

Place Branding

Coord.
Ana Margarida Barreto
João Freire
& Nuno Correia de Brito

Ficha Técnica

Título

Place Branding

Coordenação

Ana Margarida Barreto
João Freire
& Nuno Correia de Brito

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ICNOVA — Instituto
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Faculdade de Ciências
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Universidade Nova de Lisboa
Avenida de Berna, 26-C
1069-061 Lisboa
icnova@fcsh.unl.pt
www.icnova.fcsh.unl.pt

Direção da coleção

António Granado
Cláudia Madeira
Maria João Centeno

Gestora editorial

Patrícia Contreiras

Design

Tomás Gouveia

Apoio

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Resumo: Esta obra tem como objectivo dar a conhecer a investigação na área do Place Branding em países de língua portuguesa e espanhola, em torno de três temáticas: *City Branding; Destination Branding e Nation Branding*). Surge no âmbito de duas primeiras edições da Conferência Ibero-Americana de Place Branding, organizadas pelo GI em Comunicação Estratégica e Processos de Tomada de Decisão do Instituto de Comunicação da Nova.

Palavras-chave: Place Branding, City Branding, Destination Branding, Nation Branding

Title:
Place Branding

Abstract: This work aims to present research in the area of Place Branding in Portuguese and Spanish-speaking countries, around three themes: *City Branding; Destination Branding and Nation Branding*). It comes within the scope of the first two editions of the Ibero-American Conference on Place Branding, organized by the Research Group on Strategic Communication and Decision-Making Processes of the Instituto de Comunicação da Nova.

Keywords: Place Branding, City Branding, Destination Branding, Nation Branding

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Introdução

Ana Margarida Barreto

Universidade Nova de Lisboa, Faculdade de Ciências Sociais e Humanas, Instituto de Comunicação da Nova — ICNOVA
ambarreto@fcsh.unl.pt

Nuno Correia de Brito

Universidade Autónoma de Lisboa. Instituto de Comunicação da Nova — ICNOVA
nmcbrito@hotmail.com

João Freire

IPAM. Universidade Europeia. Instituto de Comunicação da Nova — ICNOVA
jrmfreire@gmail.com

As últimas décadas do século XX caracterizaram-se por um aprofundamento do movimento de globalização e, conseqüentemente, por um agravamento do ambiente concorrencial. Localidades (países, cidades, regiões, estados, etc) competem entre si, não só para atrair recursos tão díspares como investimento, trabalhadores ou turistas, mas também para promover as suas exportações.

Este movimento crescente de migrações e de recursos sofreu um retrocesso durante o ano 2020, marcado pela epidemia Covid-19, o que fez com que gestores de marcas territoriais em todo mundo repensassem as suas decisões estratégicas. Para diferentes públicos-alvo emergiram novas prioridades, que contribuíram para uma reconfiguração da oferta e das mensagens. Como sucedeu em diferentes momentos da História, tem sido a capacidade e a velocidade de diferentes instituições e organizações de se adaptarem aos novos desafios que tem permitido atenuar o impacto da epidemia em diferentes sectores económicos e sociais, agora mais dependentes de investimento.

À semelhança dos gestores que assumem as suas marcas como instrumentos fundamentais para a sobrevivência num mercado cada vez mais concorrencial e volátil, também os responsáveis por localidades olham e entendem o conceito de marca como uma ferramenta crítica para garantir a sustentabilidade do seu país, região ou cidade. Mas, ao contrário das tradicionais marcas comerciais, as marcas geográficas têm uma complexidade e uma abrangência imensa.

A gestão das marcas geográficas, ou o *Place Branding*, envolve áreas científicas tão díspares, mas complementares, como a Comunicação, o Marketing, a Sociologia, o Turismo, o Urbanismo, a Geografia, o Design, as Relações Públicas, a Diplomacia e as Relações Internacionais. Talvez por isso, não obstante a sua curta longevidade, o Place Branding conquistou nos últimos 20 anos uma relevância assinalável, a contar pelos mais de 20.000 artigos científicos editados entre o ano de 2000 e 2020 em todo o mundo.

Refletir sobre estes processos inerentes ao “lugar”, enquanto espaço económico, social e cultural, e dar a conhecer a investigação na área do Place Branding em países de língua

portuguesa e espanhola, foram os objetivos das duas primeiras edições da Conferência Ibero-Americana de Place Branding, realizada na Universidade NOVA de Lisboa — FCSH, em 2020 e 2021, e organizada por um conjunto de investigadores do Instituto de Comunicação da Nova (ICNOVA).

Em virtude da complexidade e da abrangência da temática, as duas primeiras edições da conferência organizaram-se em torno de três temáticas: *City Branding; Destination Branding e Nation Branding*.

Enquadram-se na temática City Branding todas as apresentações inerentes ao desenvolvimento e gestão de marcas-cidades. As cidades são realidades complexas, quer pela abrangência dos seus públicos-alvo, quer pelo número de atores públicos e privados que operam no território. O desenvolvimento de uma estratégia de marca para cidades pode ser visto como um mecanismo de alinhamento de estratégias de diferentes atores. Comunidades locais, populações residentes e urbanismo são alguns dos elementos que deverão estar sempre presentes no desenho das estratégias das marcas-cidades.

Já no campo do Destination Branding, incluem-se as investigações que lidam com a localidade enquanto destino turístico. O turismo para a generalidade dos países é uma das maiores indústrias exportadoras. Países, regiões e cidades trabalham as suas marcas para diferenciarem a sua oferta, atrair turistas e simultaneamente garantir a satisfação com o consumo.

Finalmente, no Nation Branding compreendem-se os artigos que exploram, do ponto de vista teórico ou prático, o conceito de “marca país”, isto é, a reputação de um país e da sua população nas diferentes dimensões (cultura, administração, pessoas, exportações, turismo, investimento e imigração), e a sua influência nos processos de *public diplomacy*.

Este primeiro e-book ICNOVA inteiramente dedicado às marcas territoriais é organizado e editado pela comissão científica das duas primeiras edições da Conferência Ibero-Americana de Place Branding e reúne os diferentes trabalhos apresentados e debatidos aquando das duas referidas conferências

Denise Quintela (CIES; ICNOVA) introduz a lista de artigos convidando-nos a refletir o tema da diplomacia pública, relacionando-o com os conceitos de Nation Branding e de City Branding no contexto do ensino superior, comparando as realidades portuguesas e espanholas, com o artigo intitulado “Country & City brand towards foreign students attraction: a comparative case study between Portugal/Lisbon and Spain/Madrid”.

No seguimento desta linha de reflexão está o artigo de **Alexandre Duarte** (CECS—U. Minho/IADE/U. Católica), “Location as a factor of magnetism for international students: the case of Portugal”, no qual o autor explora o conceito de estereótipo, associado à atratividade das instituições de ensino superior, compreendendo a importância das estratégias daquelas instituições para as decisões da escolha dos estudantes para viver temporariamente num país estrangeiro.

Resultante de uma investigação de Mestrado, a proposta de **Deolésio Mendesa, Ana José e Joaquim Mourato** (Instituto Politécnico de Portalegre), para o desenvolvimento de

uma marca territorial para a Região Autónoma do Príncipe (São Tomé e Príncipe) apresenta conceitos e processos ancorados no prisma da marca em “Territorial Marketing in the Development of Sustainable Cities — Proposal for the Autonomous Region of Príncipe”.

Com uma análise que recai sobre o efeito dos logótipos tridimensionais no processo de city branding, o artigo “Um ponto de encontro móvel: O logótipo tridimensional como centro simbólico das cidades”, da autoria de **Luís Manhães Silva; Ana Melo** (CECS — U. Minho), propõe uma reflexão sobre os espaços das cidades e o papel do design como forma de criar sociabilidades e relações emocionais no processo de construção de branding das cidades.

Alexandre Duarte (CECS — U. Minho; IADE; U. Católica) e **João Braga** (U. Católica) apresentam um estudo de caso que nos permite compreender melhor as dinâmicas da criação de branding territorial em “It’s a Brand? It’s a Place? No, it’s Oporto’s case”.

Com uma pesquisa de base sobre os públicos interessados, associada ao conceito de place branding, num formato de estudo de caso, **Luís Barros e Teresa Barros** apresentam as suas conclusões no artigo “How to internal stakeholders relate with the place brand: The case of Porto and São João da Madeira”.

Em “Design and co-creation in place branding: the case of Porto Alegre”, **Paula Malamud, Marco Neves, Gabriel Patrocínio**, sugerem a aplicação de processos comunitários de design ao desenvolvimento de marcas territoriais, através do estudo de caso da cidade de Porto Alegre, no Brasil.

Resultante de uma investigação de doutoramento, o artigo “Nation Branding: the impact of Surveillance on a country’s reputation”, de **Tarik AlHassan** (U. Católica), **Alexandre Duarte** (CECS — U. Minho; IADE; U. Católica) fazem uma análise acerca do fenómeno que marcam a sociedade contemporânea sobre a vigilância e como estes estão implicados na reputação dos países.

Certos de que esta publicação irá contribuir para o crescimento da área Place Branding num contexto ibérico e latino-americano, incentivando a sua investigação nos diferentes ciclos de ensino (licenciatura, mestrado e doutoramento), incitamos que esta seja a primeira de muitas publicações sobre tão interessante, profícuo e eclético domínio científico, que se pauta pela trans- e interdisciplinariedade.

Lisboa, Janeiro de 2022

Notas biográficas

Ana Margarida Barreto é Ana Margarida Barreto é doutorada pela Universidade Nova de Lisboa, onde ensina Marketing e Comunicação Estratégica. Completou post-doc na Universidade de Tel Aviv, onde estudou atenção, percepção e memória, e trabalho de campo como visiting researcher na Universidade do Texas em Austin, Universidade de Westminster, King's College of London e Universidade Columbia. Faz também parte da coordenação do ICNOVA e é fundadora e coordenadora do grupo de investigação em Comunicação Estratégica e Processos de Tomada de Decisão daquele centro. O seu trabalho tem sido reconhecido com vários convites para participar no painel de reviewers de revistas mundiais, tais como *Communications: The European Journal of Communication Research*, *European Journal of Marketing*, *Journal of Business Research*, *Cogent Social Sciences*, *Information Processing & Management*, etc. , tendo recebido por duas vezes o Prémio Outstanding Reviewer Award no Emerald Literati Network Awards for Excellence (2015 e 2017). Ana Margarida Barreto ainda trabalhou durante cinco anos em Comunicação e Publicidade, em Portugal e Espanha.

ORCID ID: 0000-0002-7465-327X

Ciência ID: 951D-F2D7-89B3

Scopus Author ID: 55761978300

Morada: Av. de Berna, 26 C 1069-061 Lisboa, Portugal

João Freire é licenciado em Economia pela Universidade Nova de Lisboa e doutorado em Marketing pela London Metropolitan University, ao longo da sua carreira, João Freire trabalhou em diferentes empresas tais como Xerox, Brandia Central, Galucho, em diversos países tais como Reino Unido, Brasil e Portugal. João Freire tem participado como orador em diversas conferências internacionais, e tem artigos publicados em revistas académicas e capítulos em livros. Faz parte do conselho de *referees* de vários jornais académicos sendo, atualmente, o editor da revista 'Place Branding and Public Diplomacy' para a Europa, Médio Oriente e África. O professor João Freire editou o livro *Nation Branding in Europe*. O João Freire é investigador no centro de investigação do ICNOVA e docente de Marketing no IPAM.

ORCID ID: 0000-0003-1199-412X

Ciência ID: 9712-6229-E9FD

Scopus Author ID: 55417849400

Morada: Quinta do Bom Nome, Estr. da Correia 54 1500-210 Lisboa, Portugal

Nuno Correia de Brito é professor auxiliar convidado no Departamento de Ciências da Comunicação da Universidade Autónoma de Lisboa Luís de Camões, concluiu o seu mestrado em Comunicação, Cultura e Tecnologias da Informação no ISCTE — Instituto Universitário de Lisboa, em 2011, e o doutoramento em Ciências da Comunicação na mesma universidade, em 2017. Trabalha na área das Ciências Sociais com ênfase nas Ciências da Comunicação e desenvolve a sua investigação em Comunicação Estratégica, Comunicação Política, Jornalismo e Novos Media e Movimentos Sociais. É Investigador Integrado no ICNOVA da FCSH Nova e integra a SOPCOM (Sociedade Portuguesa de Ciências da Comunicação) e a APCE (Associação Portuguesa de Comunicação de Empresa).

ORCID ID: 0000-0003-2639-5832

Ciência ID: 5213-EAF4-ED32

Morada: Palácio Dos Condes Do Redondo, R. de Santa Marta 56, 1169-023 Lisboa, 1169-023, Lisboa, Portugal

Country & city brand towards foreign students attraction: a comparative case study between Portugal/Lisbon and Spain/Madrid

A Marca País e a Marca Cidade na captação de estudantes estrangeiros: estudo de caso comparativo entre Portugal/Lisboa e Espanha/Madrid

Denise Henriques Quintela

Instituto de Comunicação (ICNOVA)
Faculdade de Ciências Sociais e Humanas da
Universidade Nova de Lisboa
Centro de Investigação e Estudos de Sociologia
(CIES-IUL)
dquintela@fcsh.unl.pt

Abstract: In the beginning of the 21st century started to grow the idea of economic competitiveness linked to the identity and image of territories. In 2007, Anholt introduced the competitive identity concept, postulating that each place, regardless of its size or economic development, has unique characteristics that allow it to be competitive in niche markets. In addition, Anholt developed models of Hexagon to measure the image of countries and cities. The City Brand Hexagon (2006; Anholt and Gfk 2015), that is used in this article, measures the cities' reputation regarding Presence; Local; Prerequisites; People; Pulse; Potential. This last parameter includes the classification of places including study in higher education institutions. The other five criteria include assessments that are decisive in choosing the destination to study abroad. This article analysis the mobilization of the country and city brand to attract international students through a comparative case study between Portugal/Lisbon and Spain/Madrid that includes the observation of the official websites developed by these places to attract students from other countries, namely by checking which axes of the City Brand Hexagon are mobilized for this purpose. In addition, it is verified whether these sites, or other results, appear when introducing determined terms of reference in Google.

Keywords: place branding, Lisbon, Madrid, Portugal, Spain, study abroad, international student, public policy

Resumo: No início do século XXI começou a crescer a ideia de competitividade económica ligada à identidade e imagem dos territórios. Em 2007, Anholt introduziu o conceito de identidade competitiva, postulando que cada lugar, independentemente de seu tamanho e nível de desenvolvimento económico, possui características únicas que lhe permitem ser competitivo em nichos de mercado. O autor desenvolveu também os modelos dos hexágonos da Marca País (2005), da Marca Cidade (2006) e da Identidade Competitiva (2007), para medir a imagem externa dos países e das cidades. O Hexágono da Marca Cidade (2006; Anholt e Gfk 2015), utilizado neste artigo, mede a reputação das cidades em relação aos seis eixos seguintes: Presença; Local; Pré-requisitos; Pessoas; Pulso; Potencial. Este último vetor inclui a classificação das cidades enquanto lugares para estudar em instituições de ensino superior. Os outros cinco critérios envolvem avaliações que são decisivas na escolha do destino para estudar no exterior. Neste enquadramento, o presente artigo analisa a mobilização da marca país e da marca cidade para captar estudantes internacionais. A operacionalização da pesquisa faz-se através de um estudo de caso comparativo entre Portugal/Lisboa e Espanha/Madrid e engloba a observação dos sites oficiais destes locais para atrair estudantes de outros países, nomeadamente verificando que eixos do Hexágono da Marca Cidade são mobilizados para esse fim. Complementarmente, verifica-se se são esses sites, ou outros resultados, que aparecem no Google, quando se pesquisa o tema.

Palavras-chave: marca País, marca Cidade, Espanha, Portugal, Lisboa, Madrid, estudar no estrangeiro, estudante internacional, política pública

Introduction

In an increasingly globalized world, the reputation of a place — a country, a region or a city — is an asset that needs to be managed, namely through brand policies that include branding campaigns, in order to guarantee a distinctive positioning at national and international levels, and that this differentiation is perceived by internal and foreign audiences.

Various indexes and indicators demonstrate that a good image translates into socio economic gains, facilitates the internationalization of companies and the increases the exportation of goods and services, fosters tourism, attracts talent — including professionals, students and academics — and captures investors. Aware of this reality, more and more governments and local authorities have developed brand policies and promoted branding actions. Private agents have also sought to monetize the association with a good perception of the country,

region and/or city, to which the good performance of the actors contributes, in a logic of mutual benefit.

But the applicability of brand policies across an exponential number of locations has not been accompanied by theoretical developments. The issues of place brand do not yet have a robust theory, based on empirical evidence and comparative methodology (Gertner, 2016).

Seeking to make a contribution on these developments, this article analyzes the mobilization of country and city brand to attract international students, comparing Portugal / Lisbon with Spain/Madrid, namely by observing, on the official websites developed for attracting foreign students, which of the City Hexagon axes are shown. In addition, it is verified whether it is the mentioned sites, or other results, that appear when certain terms of reference are introduced in Google. In this sense, country/city brand policy is understood as follows (Quintela, 2020):

Transversal, symbolic and instrumental policy that defines the identity and competitive advantages of a country, a region or a city, promoting a consensual image that distinguishes that place from its competitors in the global market, aiming do attract added value that generates socio-economic progress — such as increased exports, enterprises internationalization, foreign investment (money, industry and services), qualified immigration (professionals and students), tourism growth (including residential), improving the reputation in international media and social networks, expanding the influence on world diplomacy and international organizations — and also working internally as a mechanism for collective mobilization, aggregating interests and strengthening self-esteem.

Theoretical framework

P. Kotler, P. D. Haider and I. Rein (1993) introduced the term place marketing, applying to countries, regions, cities and other places. Moilanen and Rainisto (2009) consider that the concept has evolved according to the following three phases:

- The birth of place marketing in the first half of the 19th century, in the USA, when it sought to attract inhabitants of other regions and immigrants to the West Coast, for the gold rush in the promised land, which resulted into the prosperity of California;
- In the 1960s, with the beginning of research on the effects of the place of origin of products and brands on consumer behavior, initially focusing on the concepts of Made in and Country Of Origin and, later, Product Country Image and Country Equity, themes that remain among the most analyzed in international marketing and measured in the indexes that evaluate the image of places (Papadopoulos, N., A. el Banna, S. A. Murphy and J. I. Rojas-Mendez, 2012);

- The current phase, which started in the 1990s, in which, on the one hand, the study of Destination Image/Branding was developed, concerning the relevance of tourism to the image of places and, on the other hand, the notion of economic competitiveness started to be linked to the identity and reputation of places. What Moilanen and Rainisto (2009, p. 5) call “strategic ‘niche’ generation of place marketing” and aims to achieve competitiveness in niche markets to which the place can provide exclusive benefits. This concept is related to the competitive identity of Anholt (2007), who postulates that each country (region or city), regardless of its size and degree of economic development, has unique characteristics that allow it to be competitive in niche markets to which it can provide exclusive benefits¹.

- For the countries, regions and cities to be effectively competitive, it is necessary for international audiences to have that perception. There exist dozens of indexes for measuring the image of places, from different perspectives, but one of the most respected is the one developed through the Hexagon of Country Brand, and the Competitive Identity Hexagon, which gauges(m) the reputation of the countries in six axes: Tourism; Brands / Exports; Policies / Governance; Culture / Tradition; People and Investment, which includes attracting qualified immigration, namely professionals and foreign students. Similarly, Anholt designed an hexagon model to measure the image of cities (Anholt, 2006; Anholt and Gfk, 2015) on the following six axes:

1. Presence: the international status of the city, its familiarity/knowledge by foreign audiences, including in relation to the way it is governed, as well as the contribution to the globalized development of science and culture;
2. Place: perceptions about the attractiveness of the city regarding the pleasantness of the climate, urban cleanliness, parks and the architecture of buildings;
3. Pre-requisites: the city reputation related to quality of life, cost of living, accommodation, schools, hospitals, transport and sports facilities;
4. People: whether the habitants of the city are affable, welcoming and fluent in different languages and whether the foreigners consider that they would easily integrate into the community and feel safe;
5. Pulse: if there are interesting activities to fill the free time and how exciting the city is regarding new things to discover;
6. Potential: the perception of opportunities in the economic and educational fields

¹ Within this framework, Public Diplomacy also emerges. Public Diplomacy consists in the actions taken by public and non public actors (governments, local authorities, non governmental organizations, organized groups of citizens, among other agents) to cultivate public opinion in their countries and abroad (Anholt, 2007). Public Diplomacy has been instrumental to Soft Power (Wang, 2006), which is the ability to get what you want by persuading others to adopt your goals (Nye, 1990 apud Fan, 2008).

such as easyness to find employment and whether if it is a good place to invest or study in higher education institutions.

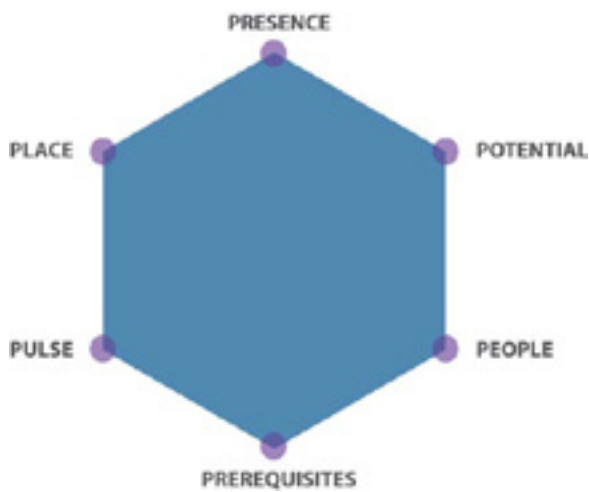


Figure 1
City Brand Hexagon
Source: Anholt (2006); Anholt e Gfk (2015)

The index resulting from the Hexagon Brand City methodology derives from the application of a questionnaire on 50 cities among audiences in 20 developed and developing countries. Madrid and Barcelona are included in the assessment but Lisbon is not yet. However, this article does not aim to fill this gap, comparing the image of Lisbon to that of Madrid. This work intends to observe how each of the cities/countries uses each one of the six axes of the Hexagon of City Brand to promote the attraction of foreign students, since it is a research perspective that hasn't been yet analyzed. To the development of this research, the City Brand Hexagon was considered more appropriated than the Country or Competitive Identity hexagons.

Nevertheless, the brand of the capital cities of Portugal and Spain appears linked to the brand of the respective country and is inseparable from it, in a logic of the umbrella country brand (Olins, 1989). The construction processes of Portugal Country Brand and Spain Country Brand were initiated in parallel, between 1999 and 2001. Twenty years later, Portugal Country Brand is managed through a tripartite public structure between AICEP Portugal Global-Agency for Investment and Foreign Trade of Portugal, dependent on the Ministry of Foreign Affairs; Turismo de Portugal, I.P.; and IAPMEI-Agency for Competitiveness and Innovation, both under the supervision of the Ministry of Economy and Digital Transition. To this dynamic is added the management of Portugal Sou Eu, by the Portuguese Business Association, Chamber of Commerce and Industry (AEP), with the involvement of sectoral partners, including associations, confederations and companies, and financed by structural funds from the European Union (EU) (Quintela, in press). The Spain — Global Spain Brand — is managed by a Secretary of State of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Unión Europea y Cooperación, created in 2018, also having a High Commission. As it is written in Wikipedia (2020):

Marca España is an initiative of Spain government and a state policy which aims to improve the image of the country abroad and among Spaniards. It began in 2012 and its efficiency resides in the medium and long term through the promotion of the foreign image of Spain in the economic, cultural, social, scientific and technological fields. In September 2018, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, European Union and Cooperation, Josep Borrell, changed the name to Global Spain. From then on, it is the Secretary of State for Global Spain who manages this policy. The project rests on three premises:

- Marca España is an inclusive project, far from political ideologies;
- Disseminates the positive aspects of Spain and spreads the image of a modern, innovative and talented country;
- Having a positive image as a country in the rest of the world influences the economic and social well-being of the population. Hence the importance of Country Brand.

In addition to this institutional management, both country brands have benefited, and have been benefited, from bottom up actions by stakeholders and civil society, which also happens in the Lisbon and Madrid brands, both managed by the respective city councils, and reinforced by branding campaigns developed by tourism institutions and resulting from alliances between public and private entities.

Methodology

The methodology used in this article is qualitative, based on the case study, as it allows an exploratory observation of contemporary phenomena, and an inductive analysis based on real data, enabling a micro interpretation, but which can be replicated in other framework (Bryman, 2012). In this context, a comparative approach is used between two case studies — the one of the Portugal Brand/the City of Lisbon Brand and the Spain Brand/the City of Madrid Brand.

The choice of these case studies, and their comparability, results from the following factors: 1) geography, since both countries form the Iberian Peninsula; 2) simultaneous brand building process in both countries; 3) community of speakers of the largest in the world, both in relation to Portuguese and Castilian; 4) accession to the EU at the same time, in 1986; 5) parallel integration of both countries in the Bologna process; 6) competition between the two destinations to attract international students.

This research aims to understand, through the contents of the official Spanish and Portuguese websites specifically designed to attract foreign students, which points of the six of the City Brand Hexagon — Presence; Local; Pre-requisites; People; Pulse; Potential — are

mobilized. The official websites analyzed are those found. Namely: 1) Study in Lisbon; 2) Study in Portugal; 3) Study in Spain; 4) Studying in Spain; 5) Study & Research in Portugal. Since no specific website of studying in Madrid was found, the city is studied within the Spanish websites mentioned above.

In addition, it is observed if are these specific official sites, or other official sites and which (of universities? Ministries? Administration?), or unofficial sites and with what typology (advertising or recruitment agencies for foreign students; media; social networks) that appear when the following search terms are entered into Google: “Estudar em Portugal”; “Estudar em Portugal para estrangeiros”; “Estudar em Lisboa”; “Estudar em Lisboa para estrangeiros”²; “Study in Portugal”; “Study in Lisbon”; “Estudiar en España”; “Estudiar en España para extranjeros”; “Estudiar en Madrid”; “Estudiar en Madrid para extranjeros”³; “Study in Spain”; “Study in Madrid”. Based on this selection of analogous terms, we observe the first 10 results that appear, as they are generally the most widely read on the various devices. The choice of the internet — official and unofficial sites — and the Google search engine, is justified because they are the main means of searching for information worldwide and for allowing equity in the comparison between the two cases.

Study in Portugal/Lisbon and study in Spain/Madrid

When you text “Estudar em Portugal” in Google, it directs to advertising platforms and recruitment agencies aimed mainly at the Brazilian market. “Estudar em Portugal para estrangeiros”, on the other hand, directs you first to the website of the Portuguese Foreigners and Borders Service (SEF), followed by articles in the media and advertising. When writing “Estudar em Lisboa”, one accesses mainly to media, although the University of Lisbon (UL) website appears. However, by placing “Estudar em Lisboa para estrangeiros”, you will find SEF again, the UL and the New University of Lisbon (NOVA) websites, media and advertising.

In the Spanish case, both “Estudiar en España” and “Estudiar en España para extranjeros” send to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Unión Europea y Cooperación, followed by advertising. “Estudiar en Madrid” refers to media, advertising and to the websites of the Universidad Complutense de Madrid (UCM), the IFM Business School (Universidad de Nebrija) and the Universidad Carlos III de Madrid. “Estudiar en Madrid para extranjeros” runs for media, advertising, StudyinSpain official website and UCM website.

From this data it can be inferred that, with regard to the allusion to the country, Portugal

2 Meaning in English study in Portugal; study in Portugal for foreigners; study in Lisbon; study in Lisbon for foreigners.

3 Meaning in English study in Spain; study in Spain for foreigners; study in Madrid; study in Madrid for foreigners.

only provides official information if the word “foreigner” is placed. In addition, it does not direct to any specific official website for the target audience. Thus, advertising and the media can be considered to prevail. In relation to Lisbon, there is some presence of public universities websites.

Regarding Spain, there is a greater prevalence of official information from the Ministry. Despite publicity and the media also have a strong presence, especially when Madrid is introduced into the equation, which also highlights the Spanish capital’s universities and shows the StudyinSpain website, which doesn’t happen in the Portuguese case.

When “Study in Portugal” is placed on Google, the first result is the official Study & Research in Portugal website, followed by advertising and the Study in Portugal Network (SiPN)⁴ website. The term “Study in Lisbon” also highlights the official Study in Lisbon website, followed by advertising and the websites of the University of Lisbon (public) and University European (private).

When inserting “Study in Spain”, as in the Portuguese case, you are referred to official websites — studying-in-spain and studyinspain — followed by advertising, but unlike Lisbon, the search for “Study in Madrid” only directs you to advertising and recruitment platforms for foreign students.

Through the analysis of the official sites of Portugal/Lisbon and Spain/Madrid mirrored in figure 2, it can be considered that all mobilize the six axes of the City Brand Hexagon. All give equal importance to the Pulse vector (entertainment), the Study in Portugal and the Study in Spain are the ones that give more relevance to the Prerequisites (quality of life; cost of living; accommodation), valuing a concept of country brand, although the Lisbon city brand is also evident at this point.

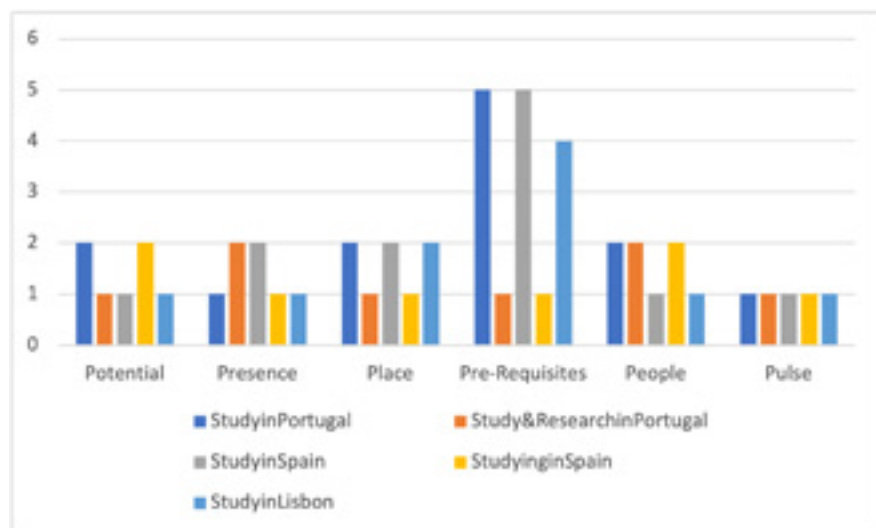


Figure 2
Comparison of the official websites of study in Spain/Madrid and Portugal/Lisbon
Source: Produced by the author for this article

⁴ SiPN is a network of the Luso American Foundation for Development that recruits North American students to study in Lisbon universities for a semester.

However, when detailing the analysis, we find other observations, as presented in Tables 1 and 2, that show on the five sites the sub-axes included in each axis of the City Brand Hexagon.

Subtitle:

- a) <http://www.studyinlisbon.pt/>
- b) <http://studyinportugal.net/>
- c) <https://www.study-research.pt/>
- d) <http://www.studyinspain.info/en/>
- e) <https://www.studying-in-spain.com>

Table 1

Comparison of the official websites of study in Spain/Madrid and Portugal/Lisbon

	Presence			Place				Pre-requisites					
	Science	Culture	Govern- ance	Climate	Cleanli- ness	Architec- ture	Parks	Quality of life	Cost of Living	Accom- modation	Schools Hospitals	Transport	Sports facilities
a				✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓
b				✓		✓		✓	✓	✓		✓	✓
c	✓			✓				✓					
d		✓		✓		✓		✓					
e				✓				✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	

Source: Produced by the author for this article

Table 2

Comparison of the official websites of study in Spain/Madrid and Portugal/Lisbon

	People		Pulse	Potencial		
	Affable	Fluent in foreign languages	Entertainment	Study at universities	Work	Invest
a	✓		✓	✓		
b	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
c	✓	✓	✓	✓		
d	✓		✓	✓		
e	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	

Source: Produced by the author for this article

The following observations can be extracted from the tables above:

- 1) Although all sites denote the Presence axis, what prevails in this is familiarity/knowledge by foreign audiences. The contribution to globalized development is only highlighted by Study & Research in Portugal, in relation to science, and by Study in Spain, regarding culture;
- 2) In Place, all sites highlight the climate, a Spanish and a Portuguese mention architecture and only Lisbon values green spaces;
- 3) In the Pre-requisites, prevails the quality of life, followed by the cost of living and accommodation, aspects highlighted mainly on the Portuguese websites of Lisbon and Study in Portugal, which are also the only ones that draw attention to the sports facilities. The Lisbon website does not disclose the city's transport network;
- 4) As for People, all emphasize the affability, hospitality and ease of integration of foreigners, in a safe environment, especially emphasized by Portugal, as with linguistic proficiency, although the Spaniards highlight, similarly to the Portuguese, the expansion of their language in the world and its value for the global job market;
- 5) In the Pulse, there is an appreciation of tourism, leisure and entertainment as strong attractions for both places;
- 6) Regarding the Potential, all the sites focus on the quality of higher education, but only one Portuguese and a Spanish site refer to the possibility that students may come to work in local companies (startups, SMEs) or multinationals, after graduating. No website encourages investment or entrepreneurship (in the future).

Limitations of the research, conclusions and future investigation

Like any study, this article is not without limitations. However, the gaps in this investigation may serve as a theme for future research on the question of the attractiveness of territories for capturing foreign students, thus seeking to produce scientific knowledge to support decision making, for an adequate design of policy measures and branding strategies.

This work did not analyze, for example, the influence of word-of-mouth, nor of family and friends in choosing the destination to study abroad based on the reputation of the country and/or the city. It would be interesting to deepen the knowledge about these and other perspectives of analysis of the phenomenon of the country/city brand in the capacity of attracting international students, as well as their fixation as future residents, qualified employees or entrepreneurs.

It would be also important that the City Brand Hexagon started to measure perceptions about Lisbon, especially in the Potential point, where the perception of cities is integrated as good places to study in higher education institutions, to work or to invest.

Even so, this analysis allowed to extract the observations that were presented throughout the text. As a final note, the following can also be added:

- i) Portugal highlights Country and City Brands but Spain focus more on Country Brand, having a institutionalized country brand policy and giving a better idea of study abroad as a cluster for exportation;
- ii) Both places give greater relevance, as distinctive factors, to the Iberian hospitality, entertainment facilities, tourism, climate and quality of life than to the valorization of science, knowledge, talent, entrepreneurship, democracy and environmental sustainability, thus contributing to continuous prevalence of an image of touristic destinations of Portugal, Spain and its capital cities.

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Nota biográfica

Denise Henriques Quintela is a Researcher and a Speaker on Public Policy analysis and its connection to Country Brand/Image/Placebranding phenomena. Is specialized on Portugal Country Brand. Develops her research work at ISCTE-Instituto Universitário de Lisboa/Centro de Investigação e Estudos de Sociologia and ICNOVA/Universidade Nova de Lisboa. Holds a Phd/Doctorate Degree on Public Policy (2015/2019) and a Masters Degree on Public Policy and Public Administration (2002/2006), both by ISCTE-Instituto Universitário de Lisboa, and a Graduation on Social and Cultural Communication (1994/1999) by Universidade Católica Portuguesa. For the last 20 years has also been Head of Office of several Communication and International Relations Offices in Public Institutions and a member of councils and projects related to her research and professional areas of interest.

ORCID ID: 0000-0003-4432-3947

Ciência Vitae: 5519-D804-94E9

Morada: Avenida de Berna 26C, 1069-061 Lisboa e Av. das Forças Armadas, 1649-026 Lisboa, Portugal

Location as a factor of magnetismo for international students: the case of Portugal

A localização como factor de magnetismo para estudantes internacionais: o caso de Portugal

Alexandre Duarte

Universidade do Minho, Centro de Estudos
Comunicação e Sociedade — CECS
alexuarte@me.com

Abstract: This study analyzes the importance of localization in the attractiveness of higher education systems, analyzing the Portuguese case in the context of European higher education. The growing importance of academic mobility (as a consequence of globalization, political decisions and demand market) coupled with the sharp demographic decline, the increased internationalization efforts of higher education institutions (HEIs) from around the world and the general increase in global competitiveness has forced the HEI, and their own regions and countries, to an increasingly strategic use of communication tools in an attempt to attract investment, resources and students to maintain and improve their position or, even, to survive. The empirical research was based on a sample of 464 European students, from several HEI belonging to EDCOM network, from which Portuguese stereotype were measured — based on the Stereotype Content Model (Fiske *et al.*, 2002) and its correlation with the intention of performing all or part of a cycle of higher studies in Portugal. The implications of this study allow to understand and, as a consequence, design strategies aiming to promote attractiveness of the Portuguese higher education system.

Keywords: academic mobility, higher education, attractiveness, country of origin effect, country image, national stereotypes

Resumo: Este estudo analisa a importância da localização na atratividade dos sistemas de ensino superior, analisando o caso português no contexto do ensino superior europeu. A crescente importância da mobilidade académica (como consequência da globalização, decisões políticas e procura do mercado) juntamente com o acentuado declínio demográfico, o aumento dos esforços de internacionalização das instituições de ensino superior (IES) de todo o mundo e o aumento geral da competitividade global tem forçado a IES, e suas próprias regiões e países, a um uso cada vez mais estratégico de ferramentas de comunicação na tentativa de atrair investimentos, recursos e alunos, para manter e melhorar sua posição ou, sequer, para sobreviver. A investigação empírica baseou-se numa amostra de 464 estudantes europeus, de várias IES pertencentes à rede EDCOM, a partir dos quais se mediu o estereótipo português — com base no Stereotype Content Model (Fiske *et al.*, 2002) e a sua correlação com a intenção da realização total ou parcial de um ciclo de estudos superiores em Portugal. As implicações deste estudo permitem compreender e, por conseguinte, conceber estratégias que visem promover a atratividade do sistema de ensino superior português.

Palavras-chave: mobilidade académica, ensino superior, atratividade, efeito país de origem, imagem do País, estereótipos nacionais

1. Introduction

The current globalized world where goods and services are exchanged with virtually no restrictions or difficulties, brought a new model followed by many changes on the production, dissemination and promotion of these products or services, both within and outside the borders of each country. In this context, a country's image and national stereotypes are extremely important and have had, over the years, an increasing leading role, since several studies show its significance when we are choosing and deciding to purchase and/or consume.

As most of the commercial activities, higher education also joined this trend. As a consequence, among other factors, the decreasing number of students, the reduction of financial resources, the development of new technologies, the fact that education is now seen as a product, the globalization, the reality of this new knowledge economy and information

society with a competition with just about no borders, the phenomenon of internationalization of education has become a heavily discussed topic both in the Academy and in the governments. Therefore, understanding the mechanisms of the decision making process of international students, which are the most important factors in those decisions, the weight and importance of each one of them, and what is the relationship between the consumers perception and the intention of their choice, is increasingly relevant to the HEIs, but also to the regions where they operate and ultimately, to their countries, since the flow of foreign students is an important source of revenue, contributing, in some cases, in a very sharply way to national economies.

In this globalization era of open markets, free and shared information almost without limits, countries have become authentic brands dealing and managing their communication as well as marketing strategies just as if they were commercial companies, in order to increase the export of their products and services as well as attracting foreign investment and tourism. Working as real brands, many countries are competing with each other for their share of millions of international students seeking experience and knowledge outside of their countries. In Australia, for instance, this sector is already the second largest source of revenue, after tourism (Shanka *et al.*, 2005).

Since knowledge is universal, and it is exchanged and traded internationally crossing borders faster than people or capital, it is understandable that both institutions (that produce and promote it), and also countries, want to attract the best students, teachers, researchers and resources. In this context, the question of image — or mental representations created from the stimuli communicated by brands, organizations or entities, such as cities and countries — is one of the most extremely important concepts identified by modern organizations (Ruão, 2008). Thus, the study of the image applied to higher education in the international context is relevant as a way to contribute to raising awareness of this issue, and studying the influence of national stereotypes (in the dual role of national organizations and geographic brands) allow us to better understand the mechanisms that generate the intention to study in that particular country.

Moreover, literature has already stressed out the fact that by differentiating the right way you can position yourself strategically and manage (improve or maintain) the dimensions that contribute to influence stereotypes that can be key tools to change the perception of consumers, managers and investors, that no government can afford to underestimate. The authors claim that the essence of a brand's magnetism is communication, perceived here in its broadest sense. That is, this symbolic exchange that generates positive or negative impressions is, in itself, a producer of magnetism, or, in other words, the engine that runs attraction. The question is whether they can, or if they are capable, or whether it is even possible for HEIs and countries generate and / or control the magnetic effect of their education brands through strategic communication?

2. Theoretical Framework

The higher education sector is going through a time of great prominence, but also full of challenges.

The constant changes in the environment, the decreasing number of students, the financial constraints and the mismatch between many courses and the needs of the market are just some of the contingencies that HEIs faces now-a-days. Adding the expansion of the internationalization of education, the result of both the advent of the information and knowledge society, as well as the globalization that broke down geographical barriers and made the dissemination of knowledge without borders or limits even more evident and pressing, and we have as a consequence increasing and increasingly global competition.

This fierce competition between the HEIs, has forced them to a more professional, even aggressive approach to the market and the growing use of marketing tools — traditionally reserved for other sectors of commercial activity — to attract students, teachers and resources, otherwise they will not survive in this increasingly transnational economy. And countries are also in this race.

2.1. The Higher Education Internationalization

Universities have always attracted international students. In the XVI century, nearly seventy European universities already had students and professors from other countries (Wilkins and Huisman, 2011). However, despite the fact that there has always been international mobility in education, due to his interest in the world, other cultures, other languages and ideas or, simply, a desire to increase his knowledge and skills (Stier, 2004), the fact is that students need, more than ever, in the current global context, to develop global cultural skills. This issue has led to an increase in demand for international higher education (Cubillo, Sánchez and Cerviño, 2005), since students recognize the added value that an experience abroad can provide them to develop at a linguistic, cultural and social level and, consequently, better prepare them for the global market (Yang, 2007; Llewellyn-Smith and McCabe, 2008).

In this global arena of transnational education, the analysis of the preferences of international students is a topic of study that is very relevant not only for HEIs involved in internationalization strategies, but also for local, regional and national authorities interested in promoting their territories as a destination for study (Cubillo et al., 2005). In fact, countless governments have shown the economic benefits resulting from higher education very vehemently.

Higher education has become a global commodity, with several countries “selling themselves” as nations specialized in research and education in order to “strengthen their

competitive position in the global competitive arena” (Stier, 2004: 91). That is why many countries have assumed objectives, create policies and provided incentives for HEIs to attract foreign students (Altbach, 2004; Altbach and Knight, 2007), since, in addition to increasing their quality, cultural level and the prestige, these also contribute significantly to the economy of the destination countries (Arora, 2007; Llewellyn-Smith and McCabe, 2008; Padlee, Kamaruddin and Baharun, 2010).

The number of foreign students in the world went from 200,000 in the 1950s, 238,000 in the 1960s (McMahon, 1992) to 800,000 in 1975, reached 1.200,000 in 1987, when the ERASMUS program started, and in 2011 there were 4.300,000 students in foreign countries (OECD, 2013), corresponding to about 20% of the total international travelers (Llewellyn-Smith and McCabe, 2008), numbers that can reach 15 million in 2025 (Altbach and Knight, 2007). Just between 2000 and 2011, the number of students in international mobility more than doubled, presenting an average growth of around 7% per year (OECD, 2013).

Of course, with this exponential increase in the number of students seeking education abroad, the efforts of many countries to attract them have also increased (Varghese, 2008). There is now, by several countries, the clear notion of the importance of the internationalization of higher education and, with this, an evident intention and availability to make the universities in each country increasingly attractive to foreign students (Domingues and Araújo, 2010). In addition to the obvious economic advantages, the attraction of foreign students can also be seen as part of a broader strategy to attract highly qualified individuals to these countries (OECD, 2013).

2.2. Location as an Attraction factor

Recognized by countless authors (Moogan, Baron and Harris, 1999; Mazzarol and Soutar, 2002; Shanka et al., 2005; Cubillo et al., 2006; Raposo and Alves, 2007; Schimmel, Eschenfelder, Clark, Marco and Racic, 2009; Simões and Soares, 2010; Morrish and Lee, 2011) as a decisive factor in choosing an HEI, the location of the Campus combines several important factors. From the outset, the location has a direct relationship with costs, either due to travel or due to the destination’s cost of living, to name just two. On the other hand, as a determinant factor of choice, there is a whole perceived image, as to say, the inference that consumers make from the location information (although it can often be inaccurate or even erroneous). All of these situations have implications in terms of the will, the probability of choice and, consequently, the intentions of enrolling and attending a higher education course (Ming, 2010). One should also add the fact that the knowledge acquired by the students comes from all the elements of the environment that surrounds them, and more ideas and values are absorbed through the experience of everything that surrounds them than from the

school classes (Haigh, 2008), so the study destination also contains other components (social, cultural, among others) that positively or negatively influence both the intention and the results of the studies themselves. In this regard, Moogan et al. (1999) warn that HEIs should be aware of the possible competitive advantage of their location in a given area, which may include the uniqueness or exclusivity of their course(s), geographical accessibility (more or less central), urban or rural, etc. and also the local tourist attractions that includes the whole range of items that value social life (bars, terraces, theaters, beaches, etc.) and conclude that the majority of students who move out of their countries to study, prefer cosmopolitan cities, where it is easier to enhance social life, so the cultural and social infrastructures around the HEI should be pointed out and highlighted (Moogan et al., 1999: 225).

With greater or lesser depth in the approach, specific characteristics such as geographical proximity, the social life of the city/region, the country's knowledge and awareness, geography and climate, the cost of living standards or the country's image, among others, are often cited in the literature under the localization factor.

In this article, we will focus on the constructs "country of origin effect", "country image" and "national stereotypes" that encompass several of these aspects.

2.2.1. Country-of-Origin Effect — CoO

Although the literature on national stereotypes and the perception of countries goes back to the 1930s (Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009), it is from the 1960s, with "Dichter's visionary idea (1962) on the role of an anthropology world in globalized markets" (Dmitrovic and Vida, 2010: 161) that this theme definitely attracts the attention of the academy, with special emphasis for the last three decades. Several authors, such as Brijs, Bloemer and Kasper (2011) even point it as one of the most studied topics in the most recent international marketing literature.

The globalization process in recent years, which drastically reduced distances, multiplied the means of communication and exponentialized trade (Canto-Guina and Giraldi, 2012), emphasized the importance of studying this theme and, in this sense, many authors they have looked at the "generalized perceptions" or pre-established and stereotyped ideas of individuals in relation to certain countries and, more importantly, how these attitudes influence their relationship with those countries and with the products and services they offer. This consequence is known as the "country of origin effect" (CoO). Papadopoulos and Heslop (1993: xxii; cit. In Verlegh, 2001) used a very happy metaphor to explain this construct, stating that "CoO represents, for a product, the same as the profession for a new person who we just meet at a party: we use that reference to contextualize and make a judgment about it."

CoO refers to consumers' beliefs about a specific country, its inhabitants and their intentions to interact with it (Li and Liu, 2009). These beliefs become especially important when consumers find it difficult to distinguish the advantages between similar offers or do not have enough information to reduce the risk of their purchasing behaviors (Bhaskaran and Sukumaran, 2007).

The importance of understanding the effect of CoO, commonly identified by the "made in ..." labels is, therefore, absolutely relevant for organizations that operate or intend to operate at an international level, since it develops from the assumption that people make stereotyped assessments of people from other countries and, consequently, about the products and services produced in those countries (Balabanis, Mueller and Melewar, 1999).

According to Dmitrovic and Vida (2010), consumers evaluate products through their characteristics and deduce their quality based on intrinsic characteristics, which can be directly related to the quality measured, such as performance, for instance, but also on extrinsic characteristics, such as the name, the packaging or the country of origin. In fact, consumers classify brands according to the associations they make with their origins, relating them to countries that, correctly or incorrectly, believe are their origin (Riefler, 2012).

The country of origin of a product is one of the extrinsic variables that consumers use in shaping their consumption preferences and in their purchasing decisions (Bilkey and Nes, 1982; Kotler and Gertner, 2002). However, as advocated by Brijs et al. (2011), CoO transforms this "simple" extrinsic attribute into a powerful symbol that, in a global context, adds an additional meaning to products.

Li and Wyer (1994) demonstrated that more than just a cognitive clue to quality, CoO has a high symbolic and emotional meaning for consumers. In fact, there are a lot of examples in the literature (Nagashima, 1970; Han and Terpstra, 1988; Hong and Wyer, 1989; Wall, Liefeld and Heslop, 1991; Chao, 1998) that prove that the simple manipulation of the 'country of origin' factor or the "made in" label changes and influences the attitudes of individuals, even when they are given the opportunity to see, touch, feel and taste the same physical products. Just remember that, despite sometimes substantial price differences, consumers continue to prefer French champagne over Austrian, German cars over Japanese, Italian fashion over Finnish or Japanese electronics over Mexican (Chattalas, Kramer and Takada, 2008).

Despite the vast existing literature on this subject, with authors speaking in more than a thousand published articles (Usunier, 2006), most of them focusing on the impact of this construct on products, tangible goods, while there are relatively few studies about services (Phau and Chao, 2008; Morrish and Lee, 2008; Stanton and Veale, 2009). Al-Sulaiti and Baker (1998) in their literature review, analyzed 99 studies, of which only seven involved services. This scarcity of research on the impact of CoO on services is somewhat surprising, considering that the services sector is experiencing the largest and fastest growth in the world economy (Veale and Quester, 2010), and trading in international services has increased strongly in

recent years and continues to grow (Javalgi, Cutler and Winans, 2001; Morrish and Lee, 2011).

Since when consumers use services, they lack not only a physical object but also the knowledge and expertise necessary to evaluate them, they are somehow forced to make assumptions about the quality of services and, thus, nationality of service providers impacts these beliefs that consumers make about the expected performance of a service (Harrison-Walker, 1995).

That's why we believe the object of this study has particular relevance, since: a) education is an asset that is increasingly sought after, as a result of the information and knowledge era that we are living in and enhanced by lifelong learning policies; b) international student mobility is a main subject with several countries and regions strongly encouraging its promotion; c) the internationalization of educational services increases every day; d) education is a "pure" service, and therefore with high qualities of belief, difficult to assess a priori and for which consumers are forced to assume about its quality and, finally, e) in the choice of international higher education, the information available about foreign HEIs is not always abundant, clear or even reliable so their perception and image are built on news in the media, as well as opinions, reports and experiences of other people, colleagues, family or friends, abundantly erroneous and inaccurate due to their very high subjectivity.

2.2.2 — Country Image

The literature has shown evidence that the image of countries affects the way consumers evaluate them, either as potential tourist destinations, as future investments or as a source of goods and services. This fact, combined with the expansion of globalization, makes nations increasingly competitive for success, both in the export of their products and services, and in the attraction of tourism and foreign investment. As a consequence, countries have to position themselves and differentiate between them in the minds of consumers, managers and investors (Chattalas et al., 2008).

In order to analyze the importance of the country's image in this study, it is important to recall two ideas previously mentioned: first, consumers have stereotyped beliefs about products from certain countries and regions in the world, and associate the quality of their products with the idea that they have of the economic and social conditions of these countries (Hong and Wyer, 1989). Consequently, they are more likely to purchase products from countries where they have more favorable images (Bhaskaran and Sukumaran, 2007). On the other hand, the education sector is today a very profitable international business that contributes favorably to the economies of several countries (Altbach, 2004; Taylor, 2004; Marginson, 2006; Arora, 2007; Altbach and Knight, 2007). It is, therefore, at the intersection of these two variables that this point gains relevance.

In this sense, many countries have sought to influence their potential students by creating a favorable perception of their characteristics, potential and advantages, comparing to the other competitors, thereby trying to increase the levels of attraction of candidates and gaining the primacy of choice. Philip Kotler (2000) refers to the image as a set of associations, attitudes and impressions that a person or group has about an object. This object can be a company, product, brand, person, city or country and these impressions can be true or false, real or imaginary, but, regardless, they are powerful factors that shape and guide behaviors (Barich and Kotler 1991: 95). Nadeau, Heslop and O'Reilly (2008) propose a shorter and more direct definition, describing the images as simplifications of complex ideas.

The images are, therefore, summaries of knowledge that can be used as mental shortcuts for the processing of information in decision-making processes (Kotler and Gertner, 2002). In other words, images are extremely important in the scope of this investigation, since they can affect attitudes towards a foreign product and, thus, shape and guide the behavior of travelers (Nadeau et al., 2008) and/or purchase intentions of consumers in general (Ahmed and d'Astous, 1993). Kotler and Gertner (2002) even claim that the gallery of images triggered and activated by the simple verbal reference to the name of a country, influence people's decisions regarding purchases, investments, place of residence and travel destination.

If the decision to purchase a product or service can be positively influenced by the country's image (Bilkey and Nes, 1982; Javalgi et al., 2001), with regard to higher education, it also plays a fundamental role in choosing a destination to study, according to vast published literature (Kotler and Gertner, 2002; Mazaroll and Soutar, 2002; Cubillo et. al, 2005; Gertner, 2010).

Some of the first attempts to realize the effect of the country's image on the choice of international students were made by Meredith A. Lawley (1998; cit. in Cubillo et al., 2005), by Peng, Lawley and Perry (2000) and by Srikatanyoo and Gnoth (2002), with all these authors concluding that the country's image is an important decision factor when choosing the study destination. Bourke (2000), found out that the perception of quality in higher education is directly proportional to the reputation of the countries, and Srikatanyoo and Gnoth (2002) added that the relationship between the evaluation of an HEI and the image of their country is bidirectional, meaning, both influence each other and are shaped by each other's beliefs and perceptions.

It is also important to emphasize that, despite the similarities with the images of the products, countries are not "products" in their conventional sense, that is, they do not offer only a service or a tangible object, with certain characteristics. On the contrary, a country's image represents and incorporates a wide range of factors and associations, including geography, natural resources and tourist attractions; people; the story; the culture; the language; the economic and political system; social institutions; infrastructures and famous people, to name but a few.

2.2.3 — National Stereotype

The concept of stereotype has, for a long time, been the subject of several attempts to define it rigorously, but its accurate conceptualization is difficult. It is, however, consensual among the authors of the theme, that the introduction of this concept in the Social Sciences was due to the direct influence of the work “Public Opinion”, of 1922, by the journalist and political analyst Walter Lippmann, where he exposes the ethnocentric nationalist influences in international political relations during the First World War.

About this work, Rosa Cabecinhas (2004) recalls that Lippmann refers to the social representations that each individual makes of himself and others, through “images in his head” that, despite interposing between the individual and reality, under form of prejudices, act as maps or guides that allow them, on the one hand, to simplify the complex and abundant information of reality and, on the other, to defend their values and interests in a complex network of social relations. In an attempt to summarize the evolution of this concept, Pereira, Ferreira, Martins and Cupertino (2002) take Lippmann’s work as a starting point, considering stereotypes as the typical images that appear in our mind when we think of a certain social group, understanding them, therefore, as a cognitive scheme used in social perception, when we process information about others. As Lima (1997: 171) reminds us, based on information processing theories, the phenomenon can be understood as one of the consequences of the principle of cognitive economics, which states that knowledge representations are organized so that we can access as much information as possible with minimal cognitive effort.

Stereotypes are, therefore, a simplification of the real, a supergeneralization, although often inaccurate in the characterization of an individual, which occurs due to the simplification of complex information in our brain, or to our own cognitive limitations. All these representations are not, therefore, faithful mirrors of reality, but rather oversimplified versions of it, since they depend more on the observer than on the object. Culture itself provides us with elements that allow us to “transform” reality into meaningful elements, giving them clarity, distinctiveness, consistency and stability of meaning (Cabecinhas, 2004: 3).

Despite the lack of consensus on a single definition and perfectly accepted by all — perhaps because, as Pereira et al. (2002) remind us, a simple search on the Google search engine finds twenty-three million documents associated with the term “stereotype” — even so, there are several authors, such as Souza (2006) that unequivocally assume the direct relationship between stereotypes and the way in which society, in general, conceives, shares and judges certain social groups, with Saulo Silva (2010) synthesizing this thought, defining them labeling processes that give rise to true caricatures that crystallize in the popular imagination.

Recently, we have seen renewed attention to the content of stereotypes themselves, more specifically to the social and psychological factors that determine the substance of these shared beliefs that individuals hold about specific social groups (Alexander, Brewer

and Livingston, 2005). The SCM (Stereotype Content Model) model proposed by Fiske, Cuddy, Glick and Xu (2002), analyzed below, is an example of analyzing the relationship between structural social variables and the formation of stereotypes. After all, as Eckes (2002: 101) concluded, “the content of stereotypes matters”.

2.3 SCM — Stereotype Content Model

In all social interactions, several authors argue that people need to understand immediately: the intentions (good or bad) of the others, that is, do they *intend* to harm me? And, secondly, the ability to carry out those intentions, that is, are they *capable* of harming me? (Fiske *et al.*, 2002; Cuddy *et al.*, 2008). These two core dimensions of general stereotype content: *warmth* and *competence*, answer these questions.

According to Wojciszke *et al.* (1998; cit. In Fiske *et al.*, 2007), 82% of the perceptions of all day-to-day social behaviors are based on these two dimensions, that is, when people spontaneously interpret the behaviours or develop the first impressions of others, warmth and competence together largely determine how people characterize them.

The Stereotype Content Model (SCM) is a model that offers a way of looking at stereotypes (Fiske *et al.*, 2002), based on three assumptions: (a) Two-dimensional hypothesis, which places perceptions on a map with two axes, defined by the dimensions warmth and competence, outcoming a representation in four quadrants; (b) the Mixed Stereotypes hypothesis, which states that, in most cases, we combine the opposite of both dimensions, that is, high warmth and low competence or vice versa; and (c) the Socio-structural hypothesis, which argues that a higher level of perceived competence corresponds to a greater sense of power or status of this group, just as a higher level of perceived competition represents a lesser sense of cordiality (warmth). This is the model that we used in our study.

3. Starting question, methodology, analysis model

As a result of the literature review presented, we advocate in this study that national stereotypes generate expectations, which, in turn, influence perception, social judgments and have a direct influence on the attraction of a given location, as an option as a study destination. In this sense, we start with the following question:

“How does Portugal’s stereotype influence the attractiveness of its higher education system by European university students?”

For the study of stereotypes, the SCM model was used (Fiske *et al.*, 2002). At the same time, and as a result of the literature review, the authors decided to include several other factors identified in the literature as relevant in the choice of the study's destination, and grouped into three major groups — personal, social and academic — to realize its importance in attraction, as well as its relationship with national stereotypes. The research scheme is shown in Fig. 1.

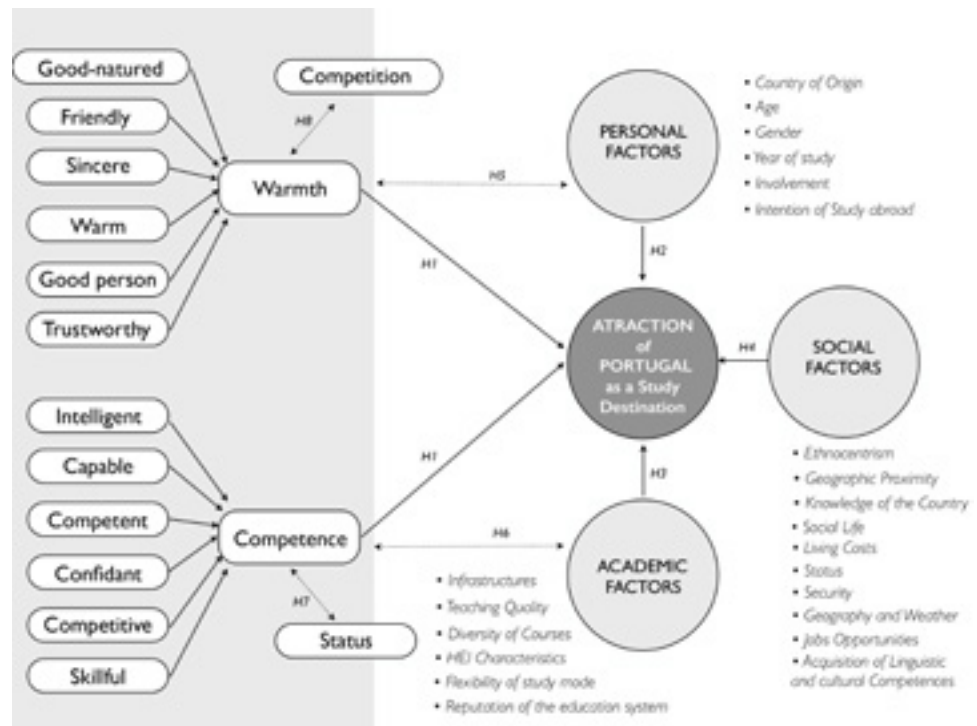


Figure 1

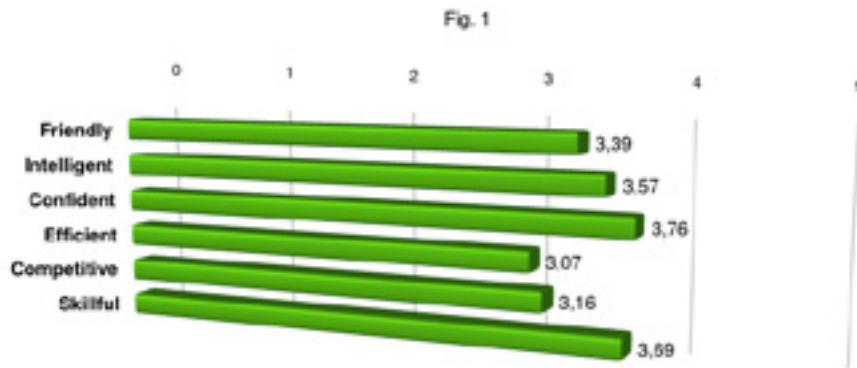
For this study, we used a convenience sample of students belonging to EDCOM (European Institute for Commercial Communication Education), a European network of HEIs exclusively in the area of communication, which has 39 members from 15 European countries.

The directors of each HEI were previously contacted and informed about the framework, scope and importance of this study in the context of European academic mobility and, subsequently, we sent them the digital survey for distribution to their students. We chose to collect the data electronically because it is easier to reach all countries, it is faster and cheaper and because it facilitates the subsequent statistical treatment. We used English because it is considered the universal language (Ha, 2009; Benzie, 2010; Wilkins and Huisman, 2011).

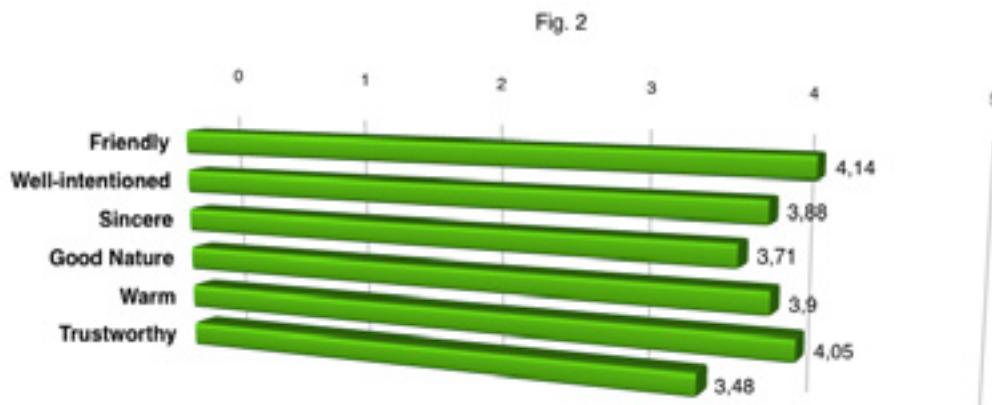
The survey had a first version that was tested with 50 foreign students who lived in Lisbon (students under the Erasmus program) and afterwards, some inaccuracies, redundancies and some of the question formulations were corrected. After collecting all the surveys, 464 remained valid, which was considered sufficient as a convenience sample.

4. Results

In the Portugal's perception analysis, and for the competence dimension (Fig. 1), the Portuguese people were evaluated in all items above the average, with scores between 3 and 4, highlighting the characteristics "confident", "skilled" and "intelligent" with the highest scores, and "efficient" with the lowest.



In the Warmth dimension (Fig. 2), the items received a higher score comparing to Competence, with some of the items surpassed 4 as average, such as the "friendly" and "warm" characteristics. Although all mean values are above the midpoint of the measurement scale for all items, we highlight "sincere" and "reliable" characteristics as the least popular.



Regarding the perceived status (Fig. 3), the average values are superior to "good education" perceived, where the average value is higher than the midpoint of the measuring scale. In the items "prestige of jobs" and "economic success", the values are below average.

In other words, globally, European students perceive the status of the Portuguese below average. It is our belief that the low score on the perception of economic success is linked to the economic situation that Portugal was going through at the time, a fact widely publicized and known in Europe.

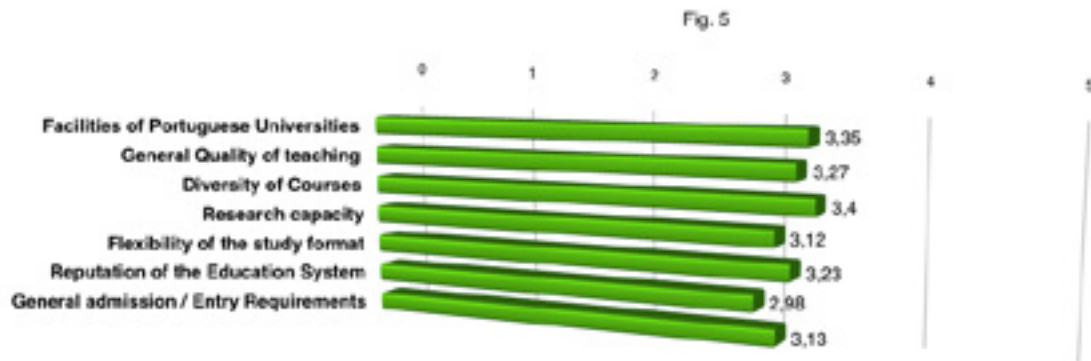


As for the level of competition (Fig. 4) that respondents perceive from the Portuguese, it is very low. This is also largely explained by the fact that all participants belong to the same great category, Europe, hence the level of competitiveness is lower. That is, although nationalities are different, there is a kind of feeling of sharing common geographic territory, values, culture, among others, which creates a feeling of belonging to the same group.



When self-evaluating, European students also rated all relevant characteristics on Competence, with values between 3 and 4. However, in general, the items with the highest score are “smart” and “competent” and the characteristics that received the lowest scores are “honest” and “confident”. In the Warmth dimension, the average values are also between 3 and 4, with all the items being scored with values greater than the midpoint of the measurement scale. Despite the small difference between the various features, the highest scores were for the “trustworthy” and “good-natured” features and the least popular were “sincere”, “friendly” and “warm”.

With regard to Portuguese academic factors (Fig. 5), the scores for most items are higher than the midpoint of the measurement scale, with the exception of the point regarding the “reputation of the education system.”

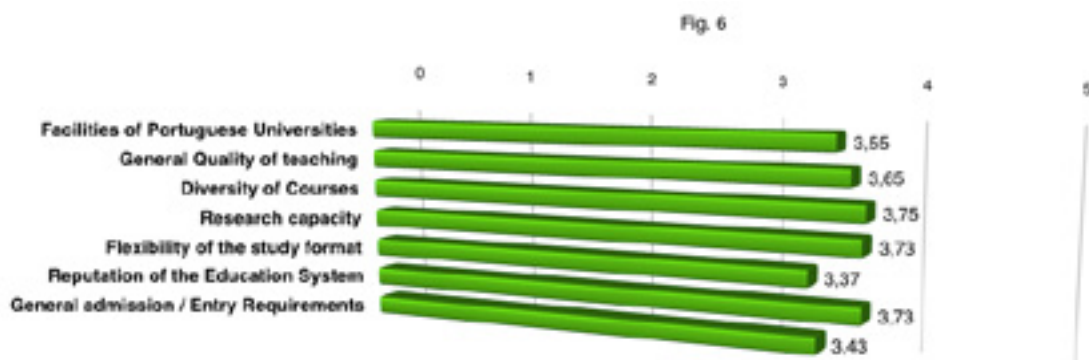


This should deserve special attention, for three main reasons: 1. Reputation is a key factor in the selection criteria of HEIs; 2. It works as risk reduction mechanism, which in the case of international students is essential; and 3. the reputation is a set of organizational associations that take a long time to change.

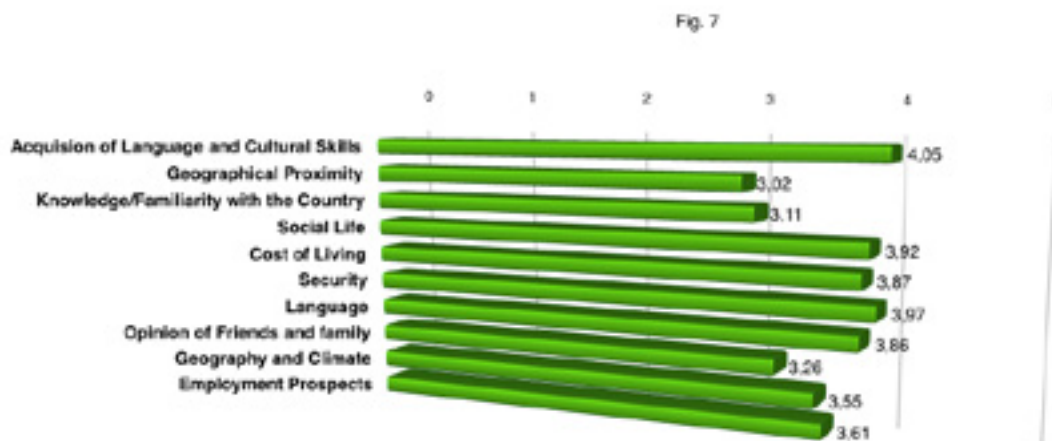
The second lowest factor was “research capacity”, just above the midpoint of the scale. Since this is an area of excellence for the Academy, a factor of great weight in the international rankings and an element of great prestige, we easily perceive its importance.

As for the best evaluated aspects, we find the “diversity of courses,” followed by “quality of the teaching staff”, “facilities” and “flexibility of the study format” in this order, despite having similar values.

In the self-assessment of academic factors of their own countries (Fig. 6), European students rated all items with a score between 3 and 4, with the highest score for the “diversity of courses”. In second and third place, and in the opposite direction of Portugal, we find “research capacity” and “reputation of the education system.”



When we look at the importance of social factors (Fig. 7) in choosing the study destination, all ten factors scored positively, with the item “acquiring cultural and linguistic skills” showing a score above 4. The following items were the “security”, “social life”, “living costs” and “language”. Considered less important are “knowledge/familiarity with the country” and finally, “geographical proximity”.



When asked about the intention to study abroad, 81% answered yes, which proves that participation in a study abroad program goes far beyond the mere acquisition of knowledge or academic skills. However, 45% consider it unlikely or very unlikely to choose Portugal as a study destination. In our opinion, the poor perceived quality of the Portuguese HE is certainly one of the reasons that contribute to this.

5. Conclusion

This research proved the existence of a positive correlation between the country’s stereotype and the intention to go to study. In this context, it can be said, as suggested by Chatallas *et al.* (2008), that Portuguese institutions should stimulate and enhance the projected image through the different factors that make up both constructs, in order to promote and increase the attractiveness of Portuguese higher education towards international students.

Having proven the relationship between the national stereotype and the intention to study in Portugal, with the Competence dimension revealing a stronger correlation than Warmth, the Portuguese HEIs, but also the national authorities, may brandish arguments that enhance the most valued factors and try to modify the least positive perceptions.

This study also confirms the relationship between the competence dimension and the

perceived status level. Thus, it can be suggested that efforts should be made to promote the status of the Portuguese, since a greater perception of this factor is directly implicated in the increase in the perception of competence, and this, in turn, has a strong influence on the decision of choosing the study destination.

We suggest communication actions supported by examples of successful Portuguese cases, disseminating more and better HEIs that arise in international rankings, articles published in leading journals, research with real benefits for people, products and projects resulting from works or partnerships with Portuguese HEI are, among many others, just a few examples that can serve as a lever to boost the perception of the Portuguese higher education status.

Finally, we believe that it would be useful to analyse the stereotype of Portugal with potential foreign students from outside Europe, since the majority of foreign students who attend our HEI are from Africa, immediately after Brazil, the largest “exporter” of students to Portugal. Although the language is the main reason that justifies these figures, there is a whole set of historical and cultural factors that enhance at the same time that stimulate relations and also give rise also to the way in which the citizens of those countries see Portugal and the Portuguese. The majority of these students, unlike European students, enter into a different mobility logic — usually longer, more engaging and paid, so with greater economic benefits for the country.

Moreover, with the increasing global competition, Portugal must ensure the guarantees of this flow of students, otherwise it will gradually begin to lose them to other geographic regions and countries. Therefore, it is necessary to know its attractiveness well, realizing the weight and importance attributed to each of the relevant social and academic factors in the decision to choose the study destination, mainly through studies of image and evaluation of stereotypes and, finally, developing strategic actions, also in terms of communication, in order to manage and improve these perceptions.

Higher education is, whether we like it or not, a worldwide business, where “HEIs operate and work their expressiveness through communication, in a competitive market logic and clear economic purposes” (Ruão, 2008) and the HEIs have no other way to survive unless increase its attractiveness. Attract more resources, more investment, better teachers, better researchers and, of course, more and better students.

Although the student’s decision and choice process is complex and multidimensional, in the case of international choice, the location factor is crucial and decisive when making decisions. Whether due to the direct relation with costs, geographic proximity, social life and surroundings, geography and climate, security or even the perceived image of the destination, the location of the campus seems to be decisive in the choice of students.

Moreover, the country’s stereotype is fundamental in this decision-making process. Based on the assumption, confirmed by extensive literature, that the mental network of affective and cognitive associations that individuals have about certain countries (country image) directly

influences the evaluation of the products and services they produce, having also proved that the stereotype of a country is bounding the way it is perceived and has a direct influence on the relationship of intentions with this country and its citizens, we argue that the study of these beliefs is, therefore, essential for multiple industries, as in this case, higher education.

A better understanding of how countries and their citizens are viewed by foreign students will benefit many stakeholders in this sector. Perceiving better how they are perceived, different factors can outline strategies to face less positive situations, improving the less evaluated dimensions, and/or enhancing the most valued ones, making their higher education more attractive and more competitive in the global market.

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Biographical note

Alexandre Duarte. With a PhD in Communication Sciences from University of Minho, a Master's degree in Communication & Image and a degree in Marketing & Advertising by IADE, Alexandre is the Ruler of various classes in Universidade Católica Portuguesa and in IADE/Universidade Europeia, visiting Professor in several Universities, developer of the Research Unit CECS from Universidade do Minho, and Course Coordinator of OFICINA de PORTFOLIO™. Throughout his career, Alexandre also had the opportunity to work for several multinational advertising agencies, in Portugal and Brazil, such as TBWA, Saatchi & Saatchi, Ogilvy, W/Portugal, W/Brazil, Lowe&Partners, or BrandiaCentral as a Senior Creative Copywriter and teach.

Ciência ID: 3819-8239-4DA5

ORCID ID: 0000-0002-2665-864X

Address: Av. de Berna, 26 C, 1069-061 Lisboa, Portugal

Territorial Marketing in the Development of Sustainable Cities — Proposal for the Autonomous Region of Príncipe

Marketing territorial no desenvolvimento das cidades sustentáveis — Proposta para a Região Autónoma do Príncipe

Deolésio Mendes

Polytechnic Institute of Portalegre
17566@ipportalegre.pt

Joaquim Mourato

Polytechnic Institute of Portalegre, Research Centre for Endogenous Resource Valorization (VALORIZA-IPP) and Research Centre and Sociology Studies (CIES-IUL)
amourato@ipportalegre.pt

Ana José

Polytechnic Institute of Portalegre;
C3i — Interdisciplinary Coordination for Research and Innovation
anajose@ipportalegre.pt

Abstract: In an environment marked by several changes and competitiveness, the territories seek to promote their visibility and enhance their attributes. In this perspective, territorial players see strategic planning and territorial marketing as two innovative instruments that help to promote and boost the socio-economic and environmental development of a given territory. This research aims to present and discuss a framework of contributions to the Development Plan of the Autonomous Region of Príncipe (ARP), focusing the contributions of territorial marketing and strategic planning, presenting the readjustment of the vision, mission and values, SWOT matrix, critical success factors and sources of competitive advantage. Target segments, positioning and marketing objectives were also defined, which boost ARP 's attractiveness, and support the activation of the proposed brand for the island, in order to promote responsible tourism and affirm ARP in the market, as a sustainable brand inclusive and participatory. In view of the results, it can be considered that the strategic development plans are significant tools, which guide the development of the countries, allowing the assessment of the gap between the not achieved and achieved strategies.

Keywords: territorial marketing, strategic planning, competitiveness, sustainable development, Autonomous Region of Príncipe

Resumo: Num ambiente marcado por várias mudanças e competitividade, os territórios procuram promover a sua visibilidade e melhorar os seus atributos. Nesta perspectiva, os actores territoriais vêem o planeamento estratégico e o marketing territorial como dois instrumentos inovadores que ajudam a promover e impulsionar o desenvolvimento sócio-económico e ambiental de um determinado território. Esta investigação visa apresentar e discutir um quadro de contribuições para o Plano de Desenvolvimento da Região Autónoma do Príncipe (ARP), focalizando as contribuições do marketing territorial e do planeamento estratégico, apresentando o reajustamento da visão, missão e valores, matriz SWOT, factores críticos de sucesso e fontes de vantagem competitiva. Foram também definidos segmentos-alvo, posicionamento e objectivos de marketing, que aumentam a atractividade da ARP, e apoiam a activação da marca proposta para a ilha, a fim de promover o turismo responsável e afirmar a ARP no mercado, como uma marca sustentável, inclusiva e participativa. Tendo em conta os resultados, pode-se considerar que os planos de desenvolvimento estratégico são instrumentos significativos, que orientam o desenvolvimento dos países, permitindo a avaliação da lacuna entre as estratégias não alcançadas e as estratégias alcançadas.

Palavras-chave: marketing territorial, planeamento estratégico, competitividade, desenvolvimento sustentável, Região Autónoma do Príncipe

Introduction

In a time where there is a climate of increasing competitiveness between cities, highly motivated by the profound socioeconomic and environmental changes seen in the last decades, there is an urgent need for territorial players (government, private sector, civil society, non-governmental organizations, among others) to find solutions in order to minimize the impacts of these frantic changes, so that the territories become in a more resilient, more attractive, more inclusive space and with a better quality of life.

The Autonomous Region of Príncipe (ARP), in the context of small African island territories, has been standing out, thanks to small measures implemented in nature conservation and preservation and sustainable tourism, which in 2012 guaranteed it the title of UN Biosphere World Reserve Organization for Education, Science and Culture (UNESCO)

and, very recently, a compliment from the United Nations (UN), as an example to follow.

From the need for a strategic plan for sustainable development for the island of Príncipe, which is, by the way, under construction by the competent authorities of that region, it became opportune to carry out this investigation, with the aim of contributing to the study and definition of the design, implementation and monitoring of the mentioned plan.

The main objective of this investigation is to understand how territorial planning and strategic marketing can support the sustainable development of ARP, through the elaboration of a framework of contributions to the island of Príncipe, in order to support territorial decision makers. in the implementation and monitoring of the strategic plan for sustainable development of ARP.

The achievement of these objectives, aims, not only to contribute to the accumulation of knowledge in this research area, but also to present results that provide information to the authority of ARP and all the players interested in the development of the island; classify and evaluate the development measures of the Príncipe2030 proposal; assist in the performance of the strategies of the Príncipe2030 proposal, regarding the implementation and monitoring of that plan.

2. Literature Revision

In this chapter will be addressed the concepts that support the proposal presented, namely, strategic planning, one of the main tools for planning and managing territories; and territorial marketing, as an enhancer of territories through the promotion of a set of dynamics.

Strategic planning supported by territorial marketing policies has been giving good results in Europe and recently in Portugal, always trying to project the territory, through sustainable projects and measures (Barros, 2011).

2.1. Strategic Planning

Territorial strategic planning has become, as one of the main planning and management tools for territories, in this globalized environment marked by constant fluidity and change (Gomes, 2014; Simplício, 2000).

Strategic planning consists in the definition of objectives and the selection of

means and ways so that these objectives are more likely to be achieved”, that is, “it corresponds to the attempt to anticipate and respond in a timely manner to events that may occur. in the external environment through the definition and structuring of general lines of long-term action, in order to achieve the proposed objectives (Nunes, 2015).

In addition, this instrument, seen as adding value to the territories, transforms them into a field of competitiveness with other places, as it takes advantage of opportunities and consequently eliminates threats (Fonseca, 2006).

This tool consists of a cyclical and decisive process for the success of sustainable cities and territories, since it allows to build, diagnose and evaluate their strategies and, through that, build a path based on the innovative vision, which promotes the identity of the places, reinforces social cohesion and responds to emerging paradigms, at the same time that: it determines the responsibilities of each actor and supports them in adapting to changes, fostering cooperation and mutual assistance between all; enables the plan's executors to act with greater clarity and accuracy; clarifies strategic objectives and makes them accessible to everyone; and manages resource savings in the best way (Araújo, 2016; Guell, 2000; Anholt, 2002).

In this sense, when this tool is well used, it should design the territory, in the sense of growth, development and innovation, in the following areas, as shown in Table 1 (Gomes, 2014).

Table 1
Main strategic sectors of intervention of the strategic plans

Strategic Areas of Intervention	
1. Quality of Life	Housing, Education / Training, Health and Safety, Sports, Infrastructure, Consumption and Services, Environment and Urban Ecology
2. Social Infrastructure	Vulnerable and minority groups, Unemployment and Professional Training
3. Culture and Territorial Identity	Artistic and cultural activity, Heritage and participation, Cooperation and Image of the city
4. Urban Management	Municipal services, Other public services, Administration and finance, Urban Planning and soil policy
5. Productive and Technological Capacity	Economic activity, Telecommunications, Transport, Human resources, Research and Development (R&D) equipment and infrastructure
6. Relationship with the Outside	Regional, National, Community and International Scope

Source: Gomes (2014)

Territorial strategic planning occurs due to the urgency to control the global socio-economic system, urban development and, mainly, to guarantee interaction and cooperation between all players of territorial development, such as: government, companies, residents, non-governmental organizations, among others, in order to attract resources of interest to the territory (Carvalho, 2012).

2.2. Territorial Marketing in the Development and Enhancement of the Territory

Territorial marketing is still a recent approach to marketing, since it was first consigned in literature in 1993 by Philip Kotler, Donald Haide and Irving Rein, as a strongly acceptable theory, through the comparison between the cities and the products (Anholt, 2002; Aragonez & Alvez, 2013).

However, for a better understanding of territorial marketing, it is first of all necessary to make a reference to the concept of marketing. Now, this consists of identifying the needs of consumers and the way in which those needs are met, in order to retain them, that is, marketing is the way in which organizations adapt their products / services to the needs of their target audience and make them reach the market (Kotler & Keller, 2012).

In this perspective, territorial marketing is understood, as being, the analysis, planning, execution and control of processes conceived by the players of a territory, in a more or less concerted and institutionalized way, which aims, on the one hand, to respond to the needs and expectations of people and entities and, on the other hand, to improve the quality and the global competitiveness of a city in its competitive environment (Cidrais, 1998, referenced by Mendes, 2020, p.21).

In addition, this tool has as

function to influence the target audience to behave in a positive and respectful way towards the products or services associated with a specific place, involving, for this purpose, the analysis and satisfaction of the needs of the *stakeholders* in order to create advantageous relationships in the exchange relationship with these and increase the value and attractiveness of territories (American Marketing Association, 2020, referenced by Mendes, 2020, p.21).

Thus, “*territorial marketing involves re-evaluating the re-presentation of regions to create and promote a new image, in order to increase their competitive position, both in terms of attracting investment and retaining available resources*” (Stokols & Shumacker, 1981). So, like the products, also places are “*classified and evaluated in all their dimensions*”, being necessary for its players to promote territorial values and attributes, efficiently and effectively, in order to attract audiences that are of interest to the territory (Kotler, Haider, & Rein, 1993).

The elaboration and implementation of territorial marketing in a region, should have as guide, a clear and concise strategy, involving a set of techniques and an organizational culture that excels essentially on teamwork.

In addition, this tool seeks to “*understand the competitive opportunity in the geographical context, define an effective strategy according to a given opportunity and the agents involved, stimulate action and carry out interventions and communicate with current and potential agents*” (Fernandes & Gama, 2006).

Table 2
Target markets of territorial marketing

Target Markets of Territorial Marketing
– Residents and workers – The existence of people is the most necessary condition to develop development strategies, which is why many territories have been betting on incentives to attract and fix population.
– Business and industry – The existence of a cohesive business and employer network can promote the population’s fixation and consequently attract new resources.
– Tourists and Visitors – The mobilization of this group encourages the creation of hotel infrastructures and consequently generates new jobs, and promotes the improvement of the transport, health and other sectors.
– Exploration Market – Should not be considered isolated in the system, because no territory has all resources inherent to development.
– Initiatives-reinforcement and local attractiveness – Creation of events with international projection.

Source: Barros (2011)

The main task of strategic territorial marketing focuses on planning, organizing and validating the relevance of cooperation between stakeholders, as well as ensuring the involvement of all territorial players in local development (Moreira & Silva, 2007), since the territorial development, based on marketing strategies, promotes autonomy and creativity in search of solutions, contributing to a constant renewal of territorial affirmation strategies and reinforcing territorial self-esteem / self-image (Cidrais, 2008).

3. Methodology

The problem of this research focuses on the Sustainable Development of the Autonomous Region of Príncipe, supported by two tools: the Strategic Territorial Planning, which elaborates and outlines the guidelines/strategies for sustainable development; and Territorial Marketing, which by its means seeks to operationalize them making the territory more attractive. In order to respond to this problem, a framework of contributions was made for the elaboration of the ARP Strategic Plan of Sustainable Development, and, subsequently, for the implementation and monitoring phase of the referred plan. The work presented here was preceded by a comparative analysis between the guidelines of the Agenda 2030 of the United Nations for Sustainable Development, the Strategic Plan of Sustainable Development of Cape Verde, São Tomé and Príncipe and the ARP plan itself.

4. Contributions to the Strategic Plan for Sustainable Development of the Autonomous Region of Príncipe

This chapter seeks to cooperate with ARP players in the implementation and monitoring of the ARP Strategic Plan of Sustainable Development. In this way, it will be possible to enumerate the island's strengths, weaknesses, threats and opportunities, through territorial marketing and strategic planning. In addition, it will be possible to create a strategy that will improve the Príncipe's visibility with its audiences.

To this end, were used the mechanisms of strategic planning and territorial marketing, as shown below.

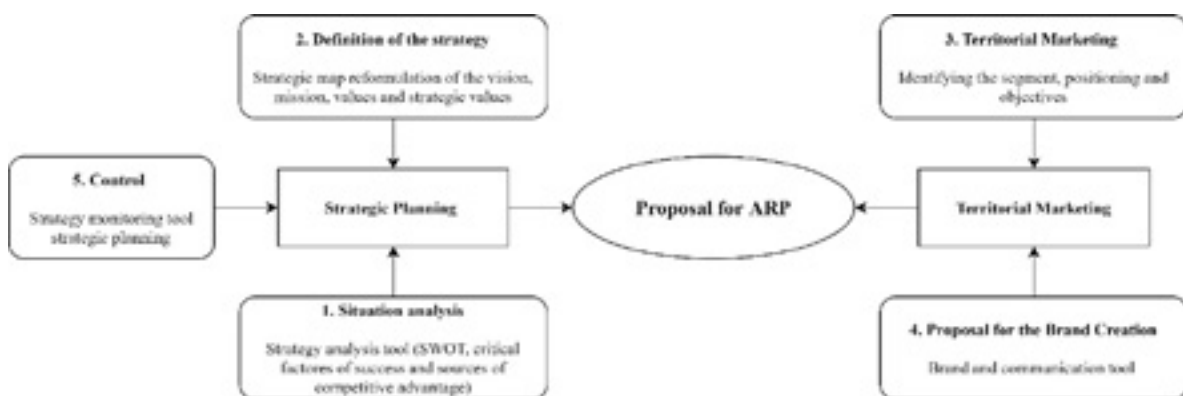


Figure 1
Mechanisms of strategic planning and territorial marketing
Fonte: Mendes (2020)

4.1. Situation analysis

In the global assessment of RAP, it was decided to use the SWOT analysis to identify the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats.



Figure 2
SWOT Analysis
Source: Adapted from Mendes (2020)

The exposed elements are not watertight elements, they are elements that vary according to the evolution of the ARP development.

In clarifying the main critical factors of success for the development of ARP, it is concluded that they are the high biodiversity; availability of energy resources (water, solar, waves and seas, wind); return of staff trained abroad; and staff training to generate more value and competitiveness. The sources of competitive advantage, on the other hand, go through the sustainable lifestyle; quality of services; and strategic partnerships.

Vision

Autonomous Region of Príncipe, a world reference in the conservation of biodiversity, responsible tourism and sustainable development.

Mission

Autonomous Region of Príncipe, World Biosphere Reserve, aims to promote its sustainable development based on responsible tourism and biodiversity conservation, in order to encourage the return of its personnel qualified abroad, requalify the existing infrastructure, restructure the basis of public administration, boost its attributes, promote quality of life and green to blue economy, in order to meet the needs of sustainable development and biodiversity conservation.

Values

Promote Sustainability, in the three dimensions of sustainable development (economic, social and environmental); **Foster Inclusion**, through the return of staff trained abroad and the creation of measures that promote the reintegration of people in situations of social vulnerability, for greater social cohesion; **Resilience**, creating and adopting measures that mitigate the impacts of climate change; **Excellence**, promoting the competitiveness and quality of services throughout the public and private administration, so that it stimulates growth; **Innovation**, combining all existing synergies, in order to foster the entrepreneurial and creative competence of individuals, establish the alignment of education from pre-school to high school and encourage the use of new communication and information technologies, in order to generate knowledge; **Justice**, through inclusive and participatory governance before all actors.

Strategic Objectives

The strategic marketing objectives that will support the vision and mission, in order to make ARP a more attractive place to visit, live or invest in, are as follows:

- Create an attractive image of ARP, in order to promote its visibility;
- Bet on the qualification of its staff, to facilitate interaction with the market and, consequently, efficiently meet the needs of different audiences;
- Foster investment attraction.

4.2. Territorial Marketing

Segmentation

The segmentation of target audiences in a territory allows actors in the territory to clearly identify for whom, to develop strategies. Thus, the main segments for ARP are: residents, tourists, events, and investors.

Positioning

The positioning proposed for ARP is based on an **“environmentally friendly island, where nature and man go hand in hand, and where everyone is part of the development process, for an increasingly sustainable Príncipe, with better quality of life, more resilient and, above all, more inclusive”**.

The defined positioning highlights the following key notions, for the success in the development of ARP: sustainability, translates the idea of promoting economic and social sustainability, but above all environmental; quality of life, it is desired that ARP is a place, where men can live with dignity, have access to health conditions, education, housing, decent employment, security, among others; development, boosting economic and social development, always respecting the environment; Inclusion and Cohesion, protecting people in situations of vulnerability and giving them conditions to develop, in a healthy environment; resilience, developing measures mainly to halt the impacts of climate change; people, the involvement of all individuals in the ARP heritage development and conservation process.

4.3. Brand Creation Proposal

Brand Identity

Brand Name

“Príncipe Island”

The designation was privileged, in English, because most of the people who visit the island are foreigners, even though they are not from an English-speaking country, it is assumed that the majority uses English mainly during the trip, to communicate.

This name is due to the fact that the intention is to project and promote the island of Príncipe and its attributes, before the international community, in order to attract, mainly tourists and investors.

Logo

The logo will be illustrated with a parrot, which symbolizes the island of Príncipe on the country's coat of arms (STP) and underneath the name previously proposed, "Príncipe Island".

Regarding the colors used, it will refer to the colors of the ARP flag, as well as the the warm colors that represent the African continent. Note that the blue represents the sea, the green the abundant vegetation that covers the island, the black symbolizes the rocks of the island, the yellow the attributes of the island and the red the intensity and cultural immensity of Africa.

Slogan

"Discover our world and have an experience"

Just like the brand name, the slogan will also be in English since the main targets are external audiences (tourists, investors, and Social Organizations).

Brand Image

The objective of ARP is to develop a brand that conveys the idea of proximity to its public and, above all, that values the island's attributes, through a concept that strives for quality, excellence, inclusion and above all sustainability, in order to provide the targets with a unique experience, feeling an integral part of the island.

Brand Identity Prism

The prism of the brand identity translates what the brand is, how it relates to its segments and how they interpret it.

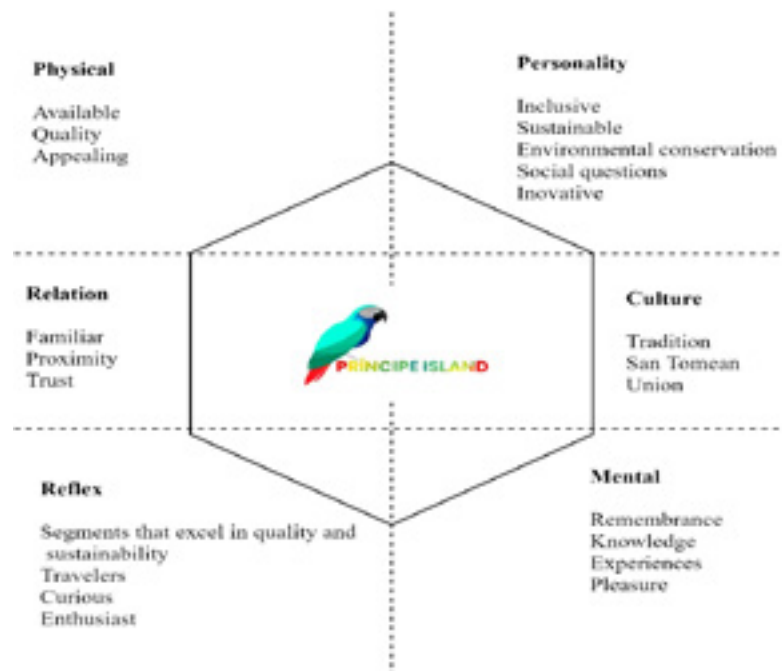


Figure 3
Brand Identity Prism
Source: Mendes (2020)

In this light, the elements defined in this prism, will allow to consolidate the global vision that is intended for ARP, as well as stipulate the region's identity.

4.4. Control

The suggested tool for monitoring ARP's territorial marketing strategies is the Strategic Map through the four perspectives of the Balanced Scorecard, (financial, customer, internal processes and learning and growth), which will allow to assess the global strategic situation of the territory.

The use of these four perspectives of the Balanced Scorecard facilitates the monitoring of strategies and provides actors with detailed information on the achievement of objectives.

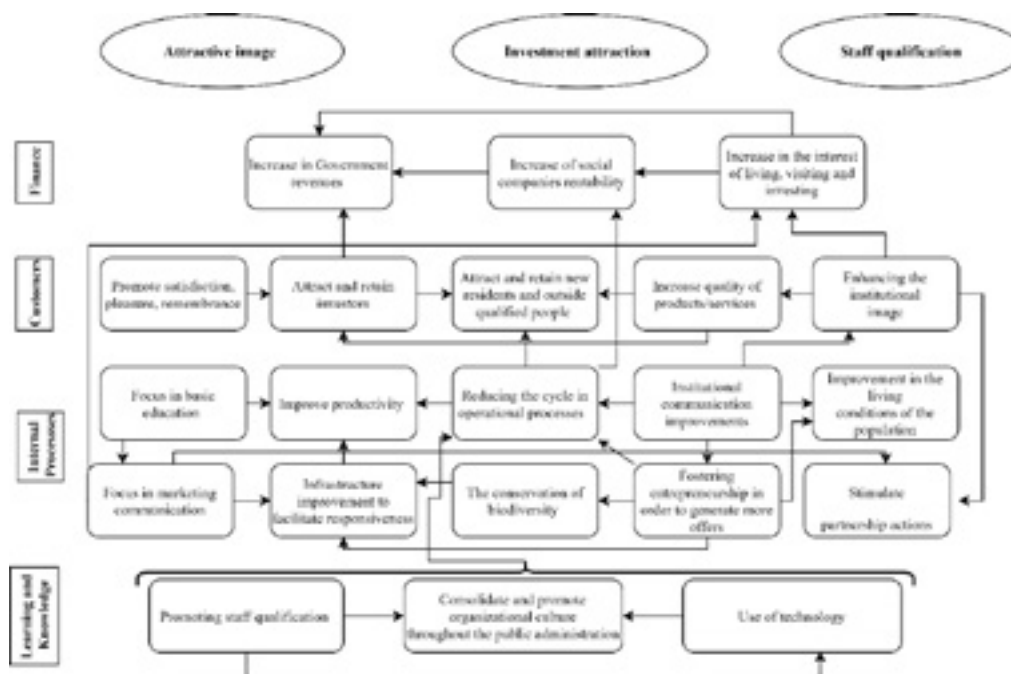


Figure 4
Strategic Map
Source: Mendes (2020)

In addition to these contributions, it is recommended that ARP continue to boost its development based on sustainability policies, so that it is in the main forums and “stages”, where it can share its experience and acquire new knowledge with other nations.

The combination of the different perspectives of the documents mentioned above, allowed the creation of a framework of contributions to ARP, which favored analyzing the global situation of ARP and monitoring its development strategy, improving competitiveness,

promoting territorial promotion strategies, identifying the attractions according with the different target audiences, to improve the way of communicating with the different targets and to foster entrepreneurship through a clear and concise strategic vision.

It is considered that this instrument will be an asset for the development of ARP, because through it it will be possible to outline the path to follow towards a more sustainable, more inclusive, more resilient and more environmentally friendly island of Príncipe. It is a possible situation, if this instrument facilitates the establishment of cooperation, strengthens ties of friendships, attracts investments, structures public administration, enhances education, favors the involvement of all actors, among other benefits.

Conclusions

A wide field of reflection is open on the main difficulties that small island states have been facing, mainly due to the weaknesses shown in strategic planning, not supported by territorial marketing policies. It becomes necessary to build strategies for the development of places, based on tools such as strategic planning and territorial marketing, so that the planning instruments are able to face the new paradigms of sustainable cities and territories, generating competitive advantages (Precedo, Orosa, & Míguez, 2010; Lapa, Reis, Silva, Trajano, Sá & Correia, 2018).

Considering that the strategic development plans are important tools that guide the development of countries and allow them to assess the gap between strategies that have not been implemented and those that have been implemented. Measures were proposed that could assist the ARP plan, especially in the context of strategic planning and territorial marketing.

This translates a set of measures that aim to enhance the island's visibility, so that ARP is an ideal place to live, visit and invest. In this sense, it is up to the actors of that region to bet not only on basic attractions, but on attractions that bring value to the island and its people.

In the general framework of the investigation, it was concluded that strategic planning based on territorial marketing strategies, becomes an asset for territories that wish to be competitive, because it allows the development of a cohesive, consistent development strategy that generates value for all the actors. In addition, the combination of these two tools, fosters cooperation between the public and private sectors, facilitates communication between all actors, and assigns the responsibilities of each agent so that the strategy is successful.

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Biographical notes

Deolésio Mendes has a degree in Management, a Master's degree in Small and Medium Enterprises Management, from the School of Technology and Management of the Polytechnic Institute of Portalegre (Portugal) and will begin a new Master's in Business and Labor Law at the University of Santiago (Cape Verde). He was President and co-founder of the African Students Nucleus of the Polytechnic Institute of Portalegre, carried out a curricular internship at the former Caixa Económica Montepio Geral (Current Banco Montepio, Balcão de Portalegre, Portugal), Team Leader in the Business Simulation Project, at the Escola Superior de Technology and Management at the Polytechnic Institute of Portalegre and was a Social Action Volunteer at the Vila de Rei City Council.

ORCID ID: 0000-0002-4014-5920

Address: ESTG, Campus Politécnico, 10 — 7300-555 Portalegre, Portugal

Ana José is a adjunct professor at the Polytechnic Institute of Portalegre. I work in the area of Social Sciences, marketing. PhD in Marketing from the University of Extremadura, Spain. Areas of expertise: Market Orientation, Place Branding and Social Responsibility. Professor in Undergraduate and Masters Courses, and Researcher, in the areas of strategy, marketing research, higher education, Place Branding and Social Responsibility. Coordinator of the Degree in Advertising and Marketing Administration for 10 years. Coordinator for the Marketing and Place Branding area of the Tourism Promotion project in the Municipality of Portalegre. Scientific advisor for research students, trainer and mentor in various business projects. Speaker at various academic and scientific events. Founder and coordinator of the We all have Love to GIVE Project, which supports vulnerable children and families in the District of Portalegre. Co-founder and President of the MyFriend Humanitarian Association, which supports and empowers children, youth and refugee women. International volunteer for refugee cause.

ORCID ID: 0000-0002-3297-5334

Ciência ID: A219-A373-DA92

Scopus Author ID: 57226706565

Address: ESTG, Campus Politécnico, 10 — 7300-555 Portalegre, Portugal

Joaquim Mourato completed the PhD degree in Economics in 2005 by Universidade Lusíada de Lisboa, PhD degree in Economics and Business at Universidad de Extremadura on 2004 by Universidad de Extremadura — Campus Badajoz, Bachelor in Business Administration and Management in 1995 by Instituto Superior de Novas Profissões, and Postgraduate Certificate in Strategic Management of Higher Education Institutions in 2008 by Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya. He is Professor Coordinator at Instituto Politécnico de Portalegre, Escola Superior de Tecnologia e Gestão

ORCID ID: 0000-0002-0748-6387

Ciência ID: 8416-B322-2BDF

Scopus Author ID: 57200068172

Address: ESTG, Campus Politécnico, 10 — 7300-555 Portalegre, Portugal

Um ponto de encontro móvel: o logótipo tridimensional como centro simbólico das cidades

*A mobile meeting point: the three-dimensional
logo as the symbolic center of cities*

Luiz Fernando Manhães da Silva

Universidade do Minho/CECS
fernandomanhaes@prix.com.br

Ana Duarte Melo

Universidade do Minho/CECS
anamelo@ics.uminho.pt

Resumo: Este artigo tem como objetivo observar e refletir sobre as percepções, efeitos e consequências da exibição de logótipos tridimensionais que várias cidades em Portugal adotaram como sua própria marca no espaço público, seguindo o exemplo do caso “I Amsterdam” (Allam, 2020; Zenker & Braun, 2017), uma tendência de *branding* territorial, que exhibe as marcas em espaços centrais e emblemáticos das cidades. Entendemos como logótipos tridimensionais das marcas-cidade, os nomes das cidades e/ou as suas marcas construídas como estruturas visuais sólidas, que de alguma maneira impactam o espaço, os transeuntes e a paisagem urbana. Tendo como foco particular o caso da cidade do Porto e a marca-cidade “Porto.” (Porto ponto), aborda-se o potencial comunicacional da marca a partir dos suportes tridimensionais, refletindo sobre a influência e a interação que estabelecem com moradores e turistas da cidade. Busca-se assim um novo olhar sobre conceito marca-cidade, a partir dos logótipos tridimensionais como centro simbólico das cidades em várias dimensões: 1) a sua mobilidade por vários espaços da cidade; 2) o relacionamento presencial com os cidadãos; 3) a apropriação destes logótipos em publicações nas redes sociais. A base metodológica deste estudo exploratório é a observação *in loco* das pessoas que tiram fotos juntas com os logótipos, complementada com uma busca aleatória de publicações nas redes sociais com a exibição da marca territorialmente reconhecida como “Porto.”.

Palavras-chave: Marca-Cidade; *Branding Territorial*; Logótipos Tridimensionais; Publicidade Urbana; “Porto.”

Abstract: This article aims to observe and reflect on the perceptions, effects and consequences of the display of three-dimensional logos that several cities in Portugal have adopted as their own brand in the public space, following the example of the “I Amsterdam” case (Allam, 2020; Zenker & Braun, 2017), a territorial branding trend, which displays brands in central and emblematic spaces in cities. Three-dimensional logos of city brands refer to the names of cities and/or their brands built as solid visual structures, which somehow impact the space, the passers-by and the urban landscape. With a particular focus on the case of the city of Porto and the city-brand “Porto.” (Porto dot), the communicational potential of the brand is approached from the three-dimensional supports, reflecting on the influence and interaction they establish with residents and tourists of the city. Therefore, a new look at the brand-city concept is sought, based on three-dimensional logos as the symbolic center of cities in several dimensions: 1) their mobility through various spaces in the city; 2) the face-to-face relationship with citizens; 3) the appropriation of these logos in publications on social networks. The methodological basis of this exploratory study is the observation *in loco* of people who take pictures together with the logos, complemented with a random search of publications on social networks with the display of the territorially recognized brand as “Porto.”.

Keywords: City Brand; Territorial Branding; Three-Dimensional Logos; Urban Advertising; “Porto.”

Introdução

É na cidade que vivemos. A cidade que ao longo do tempo temos visto a crescer, a evoluir e a transformar-se em qualquer parte do mundo. É a cidade presente, que pulsa a cada nova estação do ano e nos obriga a reverenciá-la todos os dias. É a cidade com seus defeitos e deformidades. Para Miguel Melo Bandeira (citado em Silva, 2015, p. 18), é a cidade que “será, pois dentro deste universo real é, simultaneamente, imaginário”.

Nas últimas décadas, principalmente depois do período pós-segunda guerra, as cidades tiveram grande expansão demográfica, o que propiciou produção em escala, consumo em massa e o surgimento de manejos comerciais indutores de novas práticas, amplificando o papel da publicidade, e isso, mudou o estilo de vida das pessoas e conseqüentemente, a paisagem urbana. Por outro turno, as cidades cresceram, aumentaram seu território, novas superfícies foram criadas e os suportes publicitários se multiplicaram pelas ruas e avenidas.

Com o crescimento das cidades, novos arranjos construtivos foram evidenciados no espaço público. Este artigo centra-se numa abordagem exploratória com objetivo de aferir e refletir sobre o impacto e as interações dos suportes publicitários na paisagem urbana, com foco nos logótipos tridimensionais da cidade do Porto.

As cidades são as paisagens contemporâneas. Na visão de Peixoto, as paisagens estão inseridas num território “intermediário, de transição, entre diferentes suportes, na passagem da pintura à fotografia, da arquitetura ao cinema”.

Tudo é textura: o *skyline* confunde-se com a calçada; olhar para cima equivale a voltar-se para o chão. A paisagem é um muro. Cidades feitas de fluxos, em trânsito permanente, sistema de interfaces. Fraturas que esgarçam o tecido urbano, desprovido de rosto e história. Mas esses fragmentos criam analogias, produzem inusitados entrelaçamentos. Um campo vazado e permeável através do qual transitam as coisas. Tudo passa nessas franjas, nesses espaços intersticiais, nessas pregas. (Peixoto, 2003, p. 13)

A paisagem nos remete à imagem. O suporte publicitário da imagem 1 nos remete à paisagem, mas também é uma forma de compor o espaço. “A imagem depende apenas de si mesma: não há exterior capaz de subordiná-la” (Jr Neiva, 2002, p. 25). Ela assume a sua forma real, o visível. Em Meyer (2018), a imagem é tratada com o impacto necessário para fazer da retórica, a realidade da modernidade.



Imagem 1
Quiosque informativo do início do século passado na calçada, cidade do Porto
Fotografia: Autor Silva, L (2019)

Relacionando arquitetura e publicidade compreende-se então, a arquitetura comercial como uma “arquitetura de persuasão” (Nobrega & Duarte, 2009, pp. 233 e 234). “O mundo se converte num cenário, os indivíduos em personagens. Tudo é imagem” (Peixoto, 1988, p. 361).

Paisagens urbanas

Michel de Certeau (1994) é muito específico ao separar os conceitos de espaço e de lugar, distinguindo entre dois campos. “Um lugar é a ordem (seja qual for), segundo a qual se distribuem elementos nas relações de coexistência. Aí acha-se, portanto, excluída a possibilidade, para duas coisas, de ocuparem o mesmo lugar” (Certeau, 1994, p. 201). O espaço “é o lugar praticado. Assim, a rua geometricamente definida pelo urbanismo é transformada em espaço pelos pedestres” (Certeau 1994, p. 202).

Nesta lógica de ocupação e apropriação do espaço, fica evidenciado o envolvimento da publicidade, do consumo e do espaço público. De acordo com o que a imagem 2 demonstra, as pessoas e os motoristas simplesmente se deslocam e ao mesmo tempo se integram na paisagem, no quotidiano, se apropriando do sentimento de pertencimento. “Em pleno foco do consumo enquanto organização total da vida quotidiana” (Baudrillard, 2018, p. 20).

Na verdade, as marcas usam o capital das marcas-cidade para os seus fins estratégicos. Em Melo (2011) observamos:

Num breve mapeamento exploratório observamos que o fazem de diversos modos: quer replicando imagens e ícones das cidades, quer associando-se aos seus códigos discursivos particularidades identitárias para criar envolvimento e sentimento de pertença, para alcançar um efeito de globalização, traduzindo os valores da marca para os valores do local. (Melo, 2011, p. 71)

Imagem 2

Adesivo em prédio público com a marca Porto, diante de pedestres e motoristas

Fotografia: Autor Silva, L. (2019)



Narrativas visuais

O espaço público também é o espaço da comunicação visual e sensorial. O conceito de comunicação tem hoje uma proporção mais ampla “é a noção alargada à reflexão de várias disciplinas, envolvendo simultaneamente diferentes domínios especializados, metodologias e técnicas disponíveis” (Ferin, 2010, p. 15). A reapropriação do espaço publicitário na paisagem urbana, parece assim emergir de um conflito latente entre o sistema regulado e regulador e o uso comunicacional do espaço da cidade, pelos cidadãos. É importante lembrar que a atividade publicitária não tem uma ferramenta única ou específica. Ela se utiliza de diversas manifestações artísticas, técnicas e culturais para desempenhar a sua própria.

“Na verdade, recorrentemente as marcas comerciais usam e reusam o capital das marcas-cidade para os seus fins estratégicos (...) quer associando os seus códigos discursivos e particularidades identitárias para criar envolvimento e sentimento de pertença, para alcançar o efeito de glocalização, traduzindo os valores da marca para os valores do local”. (Melo, 2018, p.73)

O comportamento humano foi transgredindo aos poucos a forma de se ver e viver a cidade. E a publicidade fez parte de tudo isso. Do ponto de vista económico, essa presença é muito mais facilmente notada com os impactos sofridos ao longo do tempo. É difícil afirmar

até que ponto a publicidade se realimenta no espaço público. Entretanto, sua ocupação na paisagem urbana nos parece ser inegável. A reflexão aqui é redescobrir as cidades e os contextos publicitários nelas inseridas. Em Ferreira, fica evidente a necessidade da busca por essa descoberta.

Um tal exercício não se esgota, porém, naquele processo de especificação territorial de temas tradicionalmente ausentes na reflexão urbana (...). O objetivo último da presente reflexão foi o de procurar redescobrir a cidade — no sentido de encontrar respostas para essa questão banal (?) e de saber do que falamos quando falamos de cidade”. (Ferreira, 2004, p. 72)

Conhecer a cidade e suas ruas é apropriar-se do conhecimento do mundo. Na tradição europeia “as cidades têm um centro, local vivo, animado, onde encontramos por assim dizer a quinta-essência do urbano” (Dupuy, 1995, p. 91). Ao posicionar as marcas tridimensionais das cidades no espaço público, além de ressaltar o que está ao fundo ou no campo de visão do observador, o simbólico ganha relevância e o envolvimento das pessoas com uma marca comercial, ganha outros contornos, fazendo esquecer por algum tempo que aquilo é comercial e marca o território com sua presença e na divulgação de fotos nas redes sociais, conforme a imagem 3 denota.

A publicidade ao constituir-se como elemento da paisagem e também dos media, contribuiu para a transformação da identidade do lugar. Por isso, “Os símbolos são instrumentos por excelência da “integração social” (Bourdieu, 1989, p. 10). Assim, a “sociedade de consumo contemporânea vive sob o abrigo dos signos e na recusa da realidade. Os símbolos e signos integram o espaço urbano a ser interpretado (...) Encontramo-nos em pleno foco do consumo enquanto organização total da vida cotidiana” (Baudrillard, 2018, p. 20). Segundo o mesmo esquema, pode-se afirmar que a dimensão do consumo até aqui pelo autor definida, leva-nos a buscarmos algo que ainda está por vir.

O consumismo rumo à sociedade pós-moderna perdeu a sua virtude provocadora “O consumo de massa significava que se aceitava, no importante domínio do modo de vida, a ideia de mudança social e de transformação social (...) o universo dos objetos, da publicidade, da mídia, a vida cotidiana e o indivíduo não tem mais peso próprio” (Lipovetsky, 2005, p. 85). Nessa visão, o homem moderno rompe com a tradição e é aberto a novas experiências. Ele é simplesmente levado, moldado aos novos tempos.



Imagem 3
Casal diante da marca Porto na Avenida dos Aliados
Fonte: Instagram autorizado @nogarimatheus (2019)

A publicidade como convite à integração simbólica

Em Kotler identifica-se uma mudança comportamental induzida pela integração do universo digital e do mundo globalizado no cotidiano, alterando a forma como as pessoas interagem entre si, “permitindo que desenvolvam relacionamentos sem barreiras geográficas e demográficas” (Kotler, 2017, p.24).

A inclusão social está acontecendo não apenas no on-line, mas também no off-line. O conceito de cidades inclusivas — lugares que acolhem a diversidade de seus habitantes — costuma ser considerado um bom modelo para cidades sustentáveis semelhantes ao conceito de mídia social, o conceito de cidades inclusivas argumenta que, quando elas acolhem minorias que costumam ser deixadas para trás, dando-lhes uma sensação de aceitação, isso só traz benefícios para as cidades. (Kotler, 2017, p. 25)

Os elementos da publicidade, enquanto modificadores da arquitetura física e da paisagem urbana, são participantes da comunicação da cidade. Deste modo, o espaço é também território do marketing e passa a ser identificado como espaço mercadológico de troca, do escambo, da permuta, das interações. Ana Duarte Melo (2011) descreve a interação da publicidade com o espaço urbano e as dimensões do real ao digital:

A interação da publicidade com o espaço urbano e as dinâmicas de ocupação e apropriação da paisagem, quer por parte da publicidade, quer por parte dos cidadãos através da publicidade e/ou apesar dela, constituem o foco desta investigação. Uma reflexão crítica que pretende olhar as formas de intervenção, ativismo e participação com a cidade real e digital, enquanto espaço público, e as suas implicações na construção das narrativas e das marcas territoriais das cidades. (Melo, 2011, p. 61)

Neste contexto, a publicidade é uma das ferramentas da comunicação da cidade, “no entanto a comunicação é um dizer necessariamente associado ao compromisso relacional de um fazer” (Martins, 2017, p. 26). Em suma, na publicidade, a retórica apenas aprisiona todos aqueles que com ela se envolvem, “armadilha aqueles que a querem ignorar, aqueles que pretendem não saber ou, pior ainda, aqueles que realmente não sabem, mas julgam” (Meyer, 2018, p. 148). Toda a vez que na publicidade encontramos algo que nos faz sentirmo-nos felizes ou melhores, isso vai nos levar ao bem-estar e ao autocontentamento, como Gilles Lipovetsky (2005) tão bem tratou em a *Era do Vazio*. É através da imagem que a publicidade constrói a reputação das marcas. Mas de que imagem estamos falando? Da imagem que age sobre o espectador. “A produção de imagens nunca é absolutamente gratuita, e em todas as épocas elas foram fabricadas para determinadas utilizações, individuais ou colectivas” (Aumont, 2009, p. 55). E as imagens publicitárias?

Mas é sobre a imagem publicitária, inscrita num determinado contexto de recepção, que se trata de refletir. Imediatamente identificada como tal, e não se confundindo com outras formas de comunicação, o sentido da publicidade vai muito para além da mera atribuição de marca e/ou de produto. (Pires, 2001, p. 2)

A cidade é o palco de todos os atos, vivenciando sua fragilidade e seu crescimento. “A cidade não é feita disso, mas das relações entre as medidas de seu espaço e os acontecimentos do passado” (Calvino, 2002, p. 14). A cidade que serve e também é servida. Mas pensemos também em outros significados: “A tessitura e os contornos das cidades são ressignificados pela sociedade (...) A cidade conectada, a cidade sustentável, a cidade sentida, a cidade sem cidade, a cidade uniforme; em última análise, a cidade do cidadão (Mainieri, 2014, p. 191).

E é nessas superfícies que a sinalização de uma cidade compõe a identidade cultural das áreas urbanas.

É neste cenário, protagonizado principalmente por placas e letreiros, que se desenvolve o conteúdo do presente artigo, cujo objetivo é discutir em que medida a publicidade pode de fato romper com a identidade cultural de áreas urbanas, ou mesmo como esta pode gerar novas identidades, a partir da efêmera dinâmica contemporânea dos veículos de comunicação. (Nobrega & Duarte, 2009, p. 224)

Como os produtos e serviços, “os lugares não fogem à necessidade de diferenciação promovida pelo branding e também foram tragados pelo pensamento das marcas. O termo *place branding*, ou marca-lugar, leva a discussão de marcas para outro terreno e uma nova esfera, mais ampla, mais complexa” (Esteves, 2016, p,17). Vivemos um tempo de comunicação global e integrada. Ao expor as suas marcas nos espaços urbanos e públicos, as Câmaras Municipais, as entidades autárquicas, alcançam muito mais do que informar e identificar o local com sua marca, despoletando uma série de interações, de multiplicações relacionais com a marca e o local. Essa comunicação vai muito além, nos desdobramentos, na interação com as pessoas, e foge ao total controle do emissor embora, a partir do olhar ou da captação daquela imagem, do enquadramento das fotos ou vídeos, ganhe um verniz oficial da divulgação da cidade.

O estudo exploratório: logótipo tridimensional da marca Porto.

Os logótipos tridimensionais são parte da paisagem da cidade do Porto desde setembro de 2014. De lá pra cá, a cidade foi vivendo transformações urbanísticas e de vivência e ocupação do espaço: **Qual é a percepção das pessoas sobre a cidade, a sua marca tridimensional e que implicações tem esta na valorização do espaço?**

Para encontrar respostas a esta interrogação foi usada uma metodologia mista que integrou a observação *in loco* — das pessoas que tiravam fotos na Avenida dos Aliados em dias e horários distintos, entre setembro a novembro de 2019 — e a pesquisa nas postagens de redes sociais — uma busca aleatória nas redes sociais de turistas que postavam suas fotos associadas ao logótipo tridimensional, incluindo algumas das suas percepções sobre o que sentiram, o que as motivou a tirar uma foto junto com a marca da cidade.

Da observação e recolha de imagens e percepções deste estudo exploratório identificámos algumas dimensões relevantes, nomeadamente, a naturalização do logótipo tridimensional e a sua mobilidade estratégica no espaço da cidade, e o valor que agrega enquanto centro simbólico de interação e vivência da cidade.

A naturalização e a mobilidade do logótipo tridimensional

O crescimento da economia, fez com que a publicidade ganhasse ainda mais relevância para os anunciantes. “O desafio da publicidade neste novo milênio é forjar novas relações com os consumidores, relações que não se baseiam tanto nas mensagens que os anunciantes querem transmitir, mas sim na união destas com as informações que os consumidores desejam ter” (Adler & Firestone, 2002, p. 10). Deste modo, os espaços publicitários de rua



Imagem 4
Logótipo da marca Porto construída
com plantas para evento ecológico na cidade
Fonte: <https://www.cm-porto.pt/>

são utilizados como uma forma natural de exposição das marcas e ganham importância pela proximidade com o consumidor. O logótipo tridimensional da cidade do Porto assume esta funcionalidade, como identificado na imagem 4, com a marca Porto., construída a partir de plantas, numa referência clara à ideia de sustentabilidade.

A mídia exterior, hoje tratada como *OOH — Out of Home*, parece atender bem a essa premissa, pois as pessoas se deslocam nas cidades de um lugar para outro.

A ocupação de determinados espaços ou linhas privilegiadas no exterior, os recintos, pontos focais, paisagens interiores, etc., são outras tantas formas de apropriação do espaço. (...) Até mesmo os pormenores mais insignificantes, na rua ou no espaço público, devem estar integrados na paisagem urbana ao desempenharem as suas funções individuais. (Cullen, 2018, pp. 25 e 97)

Nas superfícies das cidades “a paisagem é uma instância última do devaneio, no intervalo, na diferença entre o espaço-tempo vividos e o espaço-tempo imaginários” (Pires, 2007, p. IX). A demarcação dos locais para a fixação dos suportes publicitários nas cidades, depende dos espaços disponíveis, da visualização necessária e dos fluxos. Com o tempo essa escassez de espaço, fez o mobiliário urbano ganhar relevância e utilidade e essa funcionalidade estratégica é visível nas imagens 5, 6 e 7 na Avenida dos Aliados, em que o logótipo se posiciona em vários lugares da cidade.

Imagem 5

Apresentação em 29 de setembro de 2014 do logótipo da cidade do Porto na Avenida dos Aliados Fonte: <https://www.cm-porto.pt/>



Imagem 6

Logótipo do Porto em outra localização da Avenida dos Aliados Fotografia: Autor Silva, L (2019)



Imagem 7

Logótipo cidade do Porto em outra localização na Avenida dos Aliados Fotografia: Autor Silva, L, (2019)





Figura 8
Turista aos pés do logótipo Porto.
Avenida dos Aliados
Fonte: Instagram autorizado @dany Sanchez
(2020)

Seria essa a base de uma teoria do cartaz na cidade e pudemos assinalar os elementos que a constituem reportando-nos aos trabalhos para uma cidade a ser construída e marcando em certos pontos, por manchas de cor, os pontos de afixação considerados ótimos em função do fluxo de circulação e de um certo número de preocupações estéticas. (Moles, 1987, pp. 229 e 230)

O ambiente de uma cidade é diverso. Suas ruas e avenidas são marcadas pela identificação visual das placas indicativas.

A ‘leveza’ do crescimento urbano é, portanto, mera retórica de propostas publicitárias e de discurso insinuante que tende a ser hegemônico, constituindo, no limite, um peso insustentável para o ambiente e para a cidade e, portanto, também para o ambiente urbano. (Ferreira, 2004, p. 112)

Será que a resignificação do espaço urbano passa, necessariamente, pelas interações do cidadão com esse espaço? Nesse contexto, a sinalização gráfica e visual ganha força: “A invasão da publicidade em todas as suas formas. Em todos os espaços disponíveis, em todos os aumentos do nosso quotidiano” (Cavazza, 2001, p. 31). Diferente de outros suportes publicitários, os logótipos tridimensionais ganham importância, pois além de não serem estáticos,

são capazes de gerar no seu entorno a convivência das pessoas, que fazem deles parte integrante de suas fotos, e assim, a paisagem se torna coadjuvante nesse contexto. É como se as pessoas se relacionassem fisicamente com as marcas e daí nascesse um valor agregado da marca para a sua cidade. Como identificado na imagem 8, esse valor simbólico não tem preço, o logótipo tridimensional ganha valor icônico e torna-se um ex-libris da cidade, fazendo da interação com o transeunte um momento único, que denota uma transposição de uma cidade inteira para uma única imagem.

Considerações finais | discussão de resultados

A mobilidade do logotipo, conforme ele é transferido de um local para outro, motiva a realocação do centro simbólico da cidade, onde se intensifica a interação entre o visitante/cidadão e a cidade ou a sua representação. Observamos que na cidade do Porto, embora os logotipos tendam a ficar localizados em zonas centrais, eles mudam de localização frequentemente.

Sem tempo pré-estabelecido, essa realocação denota uma naturalização no território, fazendo com que o mesmo se torne um objeto integrado no meio. “Até mesmo os pormenores, na rua ou na praça pública, devem estar integrados na paisagem urbana” (Cullen, 2018, p. 97). Na maior parte das vezes, nossa visão das cidades não é íntegra, mas “bastante parcial, fragmentada, envolvida com outras referências” (Lynch, 2014, p.10).

Os logótipos nas ruas e praças ocupam um espaço físico e virtual. Além de olhar, várias pessoas tiram suas fotos e gravam vídeos com as marcas, fazendo seus registros e apropriando-se desses logótipos na divulgação dessas imagens nas suas redes sociais. A ideia de pertença de quem está na foto complementa e sobrepõe-se à simples afirmação: “eu estive lá”.

Das diversas pessoas observadas, das que responderam à pergunta de como se sentiam tirando a foto, várias são unânimes em dizer que, primeiramente, como uma espécie de prova, fizeram esses registros para ressaltar a sua presença no local. Entretanto, na sequência, quando são instadas a elaborar mais, as pessoas relatam que são envolvidas na atmosfera da cidade. Naquele momento há uma interação física com o logótipo.

Além de saírem nas fotos num posicionamento integrado, como se fizesse parte do logótipo tridimensional e do espaço em que se integra, muitas sobem às letras gerando uma nova formação simbólica nos efeitos imagéticos gerados pela simbologia desses logótipos, que muitas vezes acabam também sendo publicadas nas suas redes sociais, como na imagem 9.



Imagem 9

Turistas compondo com o logótipo da marca Porto, no Palácio de Cristal
Fonte: Instagram autorizado
@renatasaavedratrindade (2020)

No ambiente digital, essa transformação ainda é maior e se dá na medida em que a composição estética do espaço cria outra realidade, que outras pessoas irão receber, muitas vezes sem conhecer o local e através dessas imagens vão ganhando novos contornos que nem sempre serão percebidos claramente. “A imagem é um pedaço de vida arrancado do real” (Melot, 2014, p.19). Com os avanços tecnológicos e a facilidade de postagens nas redes sociais com a inclusão da localização manual, tirar uma foto junto a um logótipo tridimensional, funciona como uma espécie de autenticação da imagem. É de fato a legitimidade simbólica do lugar. “A mídia social promove a inclusão social e dá às pessoas a sensação de pertencerem as suas comunidades” (Kotler, 2017, p,24).

Vemos a integração dos suportes publicitários com a urbanização das cidades, como um contributo na promoção do turismo local e no aperfeiçoamento da gestão das marcas pela Câmara do Porto, como pode ser percebido no conceito de marca, como um instrumento que garante a simbologia e a sustentabilidade da cidade. Lá, onde o logótipo tridimensional estiver, está, simbolicamente, o centro expressivo da cidade do Porto.

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Notas biográficas

Luiz Fernando Manhães da Silva é Graduado em Comunicação Social — Publicidade e Propaganda pela Universidade Federal do Espírito Santo — BR (1985). No Brasil é empresário da área de comunicação e marketing e professor adjunto no curso de Comunicação Social, Publicidade e Propaganda, Universidade Federal do Espírito Santo — UFES.

Possui experiência em Comunicação Social, principalmente nos seguintes temas: publicidade, marketing, comportamento e consumo, planos estratégicos e branding. Desde 2018 mora em Braga, Portugal, onde frequenta o Programa Doutoral em Ciências da Comunicação, na Universidade do Minho.

Url: <http://www.ics.uminho.pt>

ORCID ID: 0000-0001-9542-3310

Currículo Lattes: <http://lattes.cnpq.br/9178689385069012>

Morada: Communication and Society Research Centre, Institute of Social Sciences, University of Minho, Campus de Gualtar, 4710 — 057 Braga, Portugal

Ana Duarte Melo (Universidade do Minho/CECS) é doutorada em Ciências da Comunicação e professora na Universidade do Minho, onde lecciona e investiga nas áreas de publicidade, criatividade, comunicação estratégica e territorial, como motores de formas inovadoras e alternativas de mudança territorial, comunitária, de saúde pública, social e comportamental. Integra as Comissões de Curso da Licenciatura e do Mestrado em Ciências da Comunicação. É membro do Projeto Clic-Tour - Climate change resilient. tourism in protected areas of Northern Portugal e co-chair da seção de Pesquisa em Comunicação Participativa da IAMCR — International Association for Media and Communication Research.

Url: <http://www.ics.uminho.pt>

ORCID ID: 0000-0002-4598-7174

Ciência Vitae: 2718-B581-04B6

Morada: Communication and Society Research Centre, Institute of Social Sciences, University of Minho, Campus de Gualtar, 4710 — 057 Braga, Portugal

It's a Brand? It's a Place? No, it's Oporto's case.

*É uma marca? É um local?
Não, é o caso “Porto”.*

Alexandre Duarte

Universidade do Minho, Centro de Estudos
Comunicação e Sociedade — CECS
alexuarte@me.com

João Braga

Universidade Católica Portuguesa
joasalazarbraga@gmail.com

Abstract: The following article discusses the phenomenon of Place Branding in Portugal and one of its main cities, Porto. This paper frames this construct and points out its main manifestations in the world. Different perspectives and insights are discussed in order to context the concept — in time and space — focusing on the manifestations of Place Branding in Portugal and specially in Porto.

Keywords: place branding, city branding; globalization, Portugal, Porto, brand image

Resumo: Este artigo analisa o fenómeno de Place Branding em Portugal, com particular foco no exemplo da cidade do Porto. Ao olhar e incluir diferentes manifestações de Place Branding no mundo, este estudo olha globalmente para este fenómeno, enquanto procura um entendimento mais aprofundado sobre este constructo, analisando-o, no tempo e no espaço, com especial atenção ao caso de Portugal e, em particular, da nova identidade na cidade do Porto.

Palavras-chave: place branding, city branding, globalização, Portugal, Porto, imagem de marca

Introduction

We are experiencing an era where territorial entities are branded like ordinary companies or products (Van Ham, 2008). Nowadays, all places — whether it is a country, a region or a city — depend on trust and customer satisfaction in order to attract more and more people with the purpose of generate income. Having a good image and the best reputation possible is a priority for these territorial entities if they want to succeed at the world's stage (Boisen, Terlouw, Groote & Couwenberg, 2018). They are all competing against each other since most of them offers the same “product” and that is why the competition is fierce.

Place Branding corresponds to the practice of applying branding strategies and other marketing techniques to the economic, political, and cultural development of countries, regions, and cities (Boisen, 2007; Kemp, Childers & Williams, 2012). This phenomenon is a sort of soft power, and it develops from the attractiveness of a place's culture, political ideals, and policies (Van Ham, 2008). Likewise, these policies are becoming more important over the last decades (Boisen et al., 2018). One can consider Place Branding to be a way of influencing others into consuming the singular traces of a certain country, region, or city. Van Ham (2008, p. 127) explains it as “an effort to use strategies developed in the commercial sector to manage [...] the soft power of a geographical location”.

The practice of Place Branding goes way beyond the marketing/branding world (Anholt, 2008), because it deals mostly with real territories' socioeconomic aspirations. Van Ham (2008, p. 127) considers Place Branding a form of intellectual property — “(...) the totality of the thoughts, feelings, associations and expectations that come to mind when a prospect or consumer is exposed to an entity's name, logo, products, services, events, or any design or symbol representing them”. So, Place Branding it's a way more than just the sum

of mere slogans and vintage ad campaigns that promote paradisiac and dreamy countries.

According to Ollins (1999), it's vital to look at the history of the process, as place branding is "older" than the concept of branding itself. In this paper we look at the Portuguese experience and aim to unveil a little more if there are any effective manifestations of good Place Branding practices in our country.

Theoretical Background

A place's reputation is set by its culture, people, political ideas, and policies (Van Ham, 2008). Generally speaking, branding is essential for subjects to create value in the relationships they establish with others (Ollins, 1999). While this reality has always been experienced by brands, geographical points also undergo the same procedure too. For both brands and places, value does not correspond to a permanent state, as it always changing and adapting to time and context (Van Ham, 2008). Bosein (2015) considers Place Branding to be a way of creating, sustaining, and shaping positive place identity. Sarabia-Sanchez, Cerda-Bertomeu, and Kalandides (2018), as well as Casais & Monteiro (2019), regard place branding as an activity connected to public sector local authorities that create a place brand as a way to face competition and communicate a predetermined image which relates with the perceived identity of locals simultaneously. In this context, place branding has to do with the involvement of public diplomacy with different stakeholders, such as experts, private sector, and residents (Kalandides, 2018). Insch & Walters (2018) state it is fundamental for managers to involve citizens in the process of brand design to respect their perceived city identity. Residents are ambassadors of the city brand (Kavaratzis, 2017): it is necessary for them to be engaged with the spot, so they do not feel alienated (Henninger et al., 2016).

Nevertheless, the topic gives room for multiple interpretations and meanings (Noronha, Coca-Stefaniak, Morrison; 2017), due to its closeness to terms such as Place Marketing and Place Promotion. Some authors regard Place Branding as an instrument of Place Marketing and others show an opposite position: Place Marketing is just one of the several instruments Place Branding offers. However, all academics agree on the fact Place Branding corresponds to a « (...) network of associations in the consumer's mind based on the visual, verbal, and behavioral expression of a place and its stakeholders. » (Zenker & Braun, 2017, p. 275).

The immediate and most direct goal of these type of branding strategies is to reinforce a place's economy. As Ollins (1999) states, history is full of episodes which are reminiscent of Place Branding, but the truth is that this process is, more than anything else, a consequence of the globalized world the 21st Century presents us daily. It is undeniable that globalization accelerates Place Branding and creates the necessity for all territorial entities to develop themselves so its political and socioeconomical structures produce wealth. Van Ham (2008) and

Anholt (2008), when addressing the same topic, assert global economic forces (derived from globalization) turn “good brands” as important tools more than ever. At this stage, it is clear that brands are places and places are brands (Ollins, 1999). All states use branding techniques when promoting themselves or its local and ‘made-in’ products, but on most occasions, people do not notice as they are so used to it. The ‘Country-Of-Origin’ effect is endlessly played by these entities and that is basically why one associates Germany with cars, Japan with cameras and Switzerland with watches (Van Ham, 2008), just to name a few.

This is not an easy game though. Since Place Branding does not correspond to a static reality (Van Ham, 2008; Boisen, 2007), it seems extremely difficult for a place to find his niche or a distinctive position in world markets (Boisen et al., 2018). To engage in a competitive market, guarantee customer satisfaction and creating — plus maintaining — brand loyalty is tremendously difficult, however possible, as the cities of New York and Amsterdam or the country Singapore demonstrate.

Ordinary brands do their work by selling products which promise a “better world” (Ollins, 1999). Geographical sites are now proceeding in the same exact way, but instead of selling mere items or services, they commercialize experiences, feelings and ‘ways of living’. (The United States of America did it in the 1930’s: the billboard that preached “There’s No Way Like The American Way, in a clear reference to the so-called *American Dream*, is a great example of Place Branding). Boisen et al. (2018) and Ollins (1999) states that nations, regions and countries can use the power of branding to deliver a message about their value and values to the widest possible audience.

It is kind of amusing that political actors and brands face similar issues (Ollins, 1999), but, then again, this point only proves that disciplines like advertising communication, branding, and marketing are truly essential to states and other entities in today’s society. We believe this reality is even more relevant now more than ever as the world is still struggling with the Covid-19 pandemic. It is safe to predict that communicational processes are going to play an important role on the recovery procedure, especially Place Branding.

Places work just like brands do (Ollins, 1999; Van Ham, 2008; Anholt, 2008; Bosein et al., 2018). If a certain geographical site wants to succeed by reinforcing its influence, it must ensure its products, services and locations are commercialized in the freshest way possible, due to the fact that competition is fierce, and all actors pursue the same goal. In this context, emotional bounds are very much needed as brand loyalty dwells on those (Ollins, 1999). The Place Branding theme makes even more sense now: we live in a time when public authorities treat citizens like clients as they adopt a business-type of speak (Van Ham, 2008). It is a truism to affirm that currently countries, regions, and cities are willing to create new and different lifestyles to then sell those to local and foreign people by asking for premium prices. All these geographical points want to benefit from an appealing branding strategy, that is, they want to become an attractive venue so higher prices can be charged as well as higher profit margins can be achieved (Ollins,

1999). If this plan turns out well, it is possible for places to expand their market and political share (Bosein et al., 2018).

Nations, regions, and cities aim to appeal to more clients and charge even more for their products and services. Nevertheless, some authors understand the primary objective derives from an internal point of view, as these entities want to improve its citizens lives and experiences by “giving them a sense of belonging and a clear self-concept” (Pedeliento & Kavaratzis, 2019). Regular brands also aim to improve their own employees lives and experiences and all the great companies have success in creating a sense of shared identity among workers and collaborators. As Ollins (1999) stated, branding is not just the selling of products or ideas and gaining market share and recognition — it is mainly about constructing identities and reinforcing loyalty and reputation.

Although some authors believe that countries and other geographical entities really are like brands (Ollins, 1999; Van Ham, 2008), there are others that don't agree. Anholt (2008) doubts this practise is directly linked to the marketing communications world, believing instead that Place Branding is more related to simple “policy changes”. He states there are no proves that the use of marketing communication tools manipulates international public insights of countries, regions, and cities, supporting his statement on the fact that there is data which does not indicate a real correlation between “national brand value” and “nation branding campaigns”, mainly because it is a complex task to distinguish between regular selling strategies (like tourism campaigns and investment promotions) and genuine Place Branding policies. The author goes on by saying there are few “branding nation initiatives” that are impactful enough to be considered as game changers. Anholt's concerns can be linked to the conceptual confusion that Bosein et al. (2018) also showcase. These authors reveals that are several countries that have produced zero marketing campaigns but managed to present improvements in their reputation, while other nations have spent millions on advertising and public relations and their value stayed the same. Nevertheless, Anholt (2008) stated that Place Branding and similar techniques are essential for geographical sites to succeed in a globalized world, but it is ultimately essential for the ones who occupy political structures to understand how brand communication works and what are its main concepts. If they are able to understand it, they can create a strong new dimension for “development, statecraft and governance” (Anholt, 2008), since Place Branding is a hybrid term as it is influenced by several different sectors at the same time (Noronha et al., 2017).

Brands are profoundly linked to an idea of differentiation and identification (Aitken & Campelo, 2011) and so are places. Different brands have different meanings, symbols and values which demonstrate the existence of individual and collective identities (Askegaard, 2006). Since all places are facing global competition in both domestic and external markets, it is mandatory for them to apply branding techniques based on personal and specific impressions (Aitken & Campelo, 2011).

In this context, one can say Place Branding obeys to five major principles: 1) Distinctiveness, because each place is different and offers unique characteristics; (2) Authenticity, once the real objects, values, and people can't be replaced; (3) Memorability; for it is vital to crave the site's main traces in people's minds; (4) Co-Creation, because an holistic approach is absolutely necessary by all intervening agents: governments, business, civil society and target markets, such as investors and the press; and at last, but not least, (5) Place Making, as it essential for a place to present an integrative set-up always full of fresh innovations, public policies, structures, events and investments (The Place Brand Observer, 2015).

Place Branding in Portugal

As Ollins (1999) stated, there are many manifestations of the occurrence in the world's history. One can mention the French experience, which offers several "rebranding exercises" deeply connected to historical events, being the French Revolution and its major principles the main example. Also, the city of Paris is commonly treated as the 'City Of Lights', not because of the glittering Eiffel Tower, that's mainly to blame for the misinterpretation, but because Paris was one of the first European cities to adopt street lighting, although the nickname really gained the most traction during the Age of Enlightenment that followed. Moreover, Ollins (1999) mentions Ceylon which reinvented itself as Sri Lanka; Turkey's modernization conducted by Atatürk; and the USSR transformation into the Russian Federation. One easily understands these questions deal with not just branding, but, as the author affirms, the link with place branding is obvious. At present times there as well many countries, regions and cities which follow Place Branding strategies, such as Barcelona, Melbourne, Helsinki or Qatar (Bloom Consulting, n.d.). In Portugal there are not many immediate to mind Place Branding experiences. The Portuguese case relates more with Anholt's (2008) points-of-view. In Portugal there are plenty of national, regional and local campaigns which promote our territory and its advantages of all kinds (predominantly touristic), nevertheless it is rare to find a proper Place Branding occurrence in Portugal — but that does not mean there are no examples of it.

We believe the city of Porto is Portugal's best case of a successful Place Branding strategy and literature proves it (Casais & Monteiro, 2019). Nowadays all Portuguese and non-Portuguese people recognize Porto's new city identity primarily because of the design efforts and improvements the local government did with the help of Eduardo Aires Studio. There are a few points concerning Porto's place branding strategy that catch our attention. Do Porto's citizens feel like they belong in the city's community and daily experiences?

According to Campelo et al. (2014), the residents' involvement enhances the most important assets for place branding. This way it is essential for these individuals to co-create the place brand, so they do not feel distant from the community (Ram et al., 2016). As Boyd (2012) points

out, the co-creation method of a city brand needs to represent the different visions of multiple stakeholders and the place's authenticity, both engaging people from the city and tourists, who look for that authenticity. But this an extremely difficult task. *Insch & Walters (2018)* argue multiple place identities can be detected in different populations of the city. Also, place identities tend to vary across time. There is also the possibility resident's brand identity may contrast with the image visitors get from the city (*Zenker et al., 2017; Baxter et al., 2013*). *Casais & Monteiro (2019)* reminisce on previous studies focused on Barcelona that illustrate this idea (*Compte-Pujol et al., 2017*). Residents and tourists could not be more different.

It is a fact that governments sometimes assume that residents are only passive beneficiaries or place customers of the brand (*Casais & Monteiro, 2019*). Literature shows that most city brands are formed having the external promotion in mind as the main goal is to attract tourists and external investment (*Vasudevan, 2008*). Most of the times, these local power institutions strive for good relationships developed between residents and tourists, as those define the character and atmosphere of a place. This happens due to the fact it is essential for a place's health to benefit from a positive communication from residents to outsiders, forming a good impression of the spot (*Insch & Florek, 2008; Peighambari et al., 2016*) and promoting tourism development (*Vargas-Sanchez et al., 2015*). Then again, for this to happen, residents must have a strong sense of belonging and satisfaction towards the city (*Hunt & Stronza, 2014*). Local governments can create these feelings but only if an internal place marketing perspective is taken into consideration (*Insch & Walters, 2018*). It is important to give residents, who form the greatest group of internal stakeholders (*Compte-Pujol et al., 2017*), opportunities to participate both in the city's community and on the co-creation of the place brand. As *Insch & Walters (2018)* state, residents strive for involvement and participation.

Casais & Monteiro (2019) take a deep look at Porto's place branding experience. They start by explaining how the strategy was developed. The city brand was created in 2014 and it is called 'Porto.' Its logo has won international awards, like the European Design Awards (2015), a British Design and Art Direction award, and a Graphis. Since 2014, many other cities have come up with similar design strategies based on the simplicity and aesthetics from Porto. On a parallel side, the city's tourism has been growing immensely (*Rodrigues, 2019*): Porto was named Best European Destination in 2012, 2014, and 2017. It is essential to understand if Porto's residents feel connected with the city brand. *Casais & Monteiro (2019)* purposed to analyse that theme and they reached important conclusions that prove that a successful place branding strategy ought to connect with both internal and external agents. The authors conclude Porto's residents were included in the brand development (*Compte-Pujol et al., 2017; Kalandides, 2011*), but the involvement was little.

Porto's city brand was built under an institutional perspective (*Casais & Monteiro, 2019*). It was a designer hired by the city council who came up with the logo. Only after the logo was designed did the council organized a public event where Porto's residents would comment on it

and give suggestions. On the same occasion, citizens had also the opportunity to come up with own design/city icons. Taking into consideration Waheduzzaman & Mphande's views (2014), this situation corresponds to the so-called political model, which is based on a top-down approach followed by public discussion with the citizens. As Casais & Monteiro (2019) argue, the resident's activity is strict to the logo development, and they did not participate on a previous stage dedicated to a brand brainstorming. Even though Porto's citizens assume they wanted to participate more on previous stages of the process, most of the individuals favour the final result as they like the city's logo aesthetics and meaning.

Porto managed to create a graphic image that respects the city's view from each resident. Due to the fact Porto has a great variety of people and identities, it was important for the strategy to acknowledge these differences. The city was willing to come up with a visual language that shows Porto is a unique place. In that context, the city was inspired by its buildings and sights — that define a certain image, but are not considered 'brands' (Riza et al., 2012) — and created a new identity. 'Porto.' is based on a simple design concept, however It represents a complex, dynamic, and emotional reality sensed by the city's people (Kavaratzis & Hatch, 2013; Kavaratzis, 2009). The logo's immediate intention is to potentiate a moment of discovery and representation (Casais & Monteiro, 2019), as the selected imagery lets people build their own Porto image. Following Hernández et al. (2017) and Mueller & Schade's (2012) thoughts, one can state Porto's place branding strategy forms moments of brand attachment. Additionally, the 'Porto.' message appears accompanied by a set of icons that represent the city's top sights and traces, such as buildings, landscapes, and symbols representing gastronomy, culture, and traditions (Casais & Monteiro, 2019).

The city's spirit and personality are successfully captured by all the visual and aesthetics signs the design studio created — identified everywhere in the city and on the city's official social media accounts. 'Porto.' represents a timeless concept, as the message remains forever in individuals' minds. Moreover, the idea is independent from local government systems (Hankinson, 2007), so no matter who leads Porto the city's branding strategy will prevail and reach its residents and tourists. As Casais & Monteiro (2019) point out «the positioning of the city brand is stated with the dot after the word Porto. It comes as a form of affirmation that the brand is the city and not the city council» (p. 234).

The strategy's primarily goal was internal, as both the council and the design agency wanted to present the collective idea of 'home' Porto's people have. But now whoever visits the place — whether it is a national or a foreign tourist — experiences the same feeling.

Every city turns out to be a shared identity and Porto managed to reflect those feelings visually. Now, one can find them everywhere: in the streets, metro stations, public murals, local infrastructures and the in the back of municipal workers. Porto's local government managed to enclosure the feel of belonging in the same space, in the same city. Porto's residents have shown they identify with the new city identity due to the fact it represents faithfully the location

and depicts memories, feelings, and sensations (Compte-Pujol et al., 2017; Casais & Monteiro, 2019). Moreover, the new city brand gives room for multiple views of Porto. Nevertheless, residents tend to feel the brand speaks more to tourists than to the city's residents. This situation makes us think it is possible for the city to improve its internal place marketing strategies.

'Porto.' is undoubtedly a case of successful Place Branding. It justifies this practise is not just about fresh designs, good copywriting skills, and original branding, but also to be about Co-Creation between all agents that intervene in the city's life and existence (Pedeliento & Karatzis, 2019).

Conclusion

The subject we chose to examine demonstrates the influence that advertising communication has on current society, especially on politics and other social happenings. It gets easier to comprehend this matter if one realises Place Branding is, indeed, a form of power — soft power. Nevertheless, many authors struggle when trying to define this process due to the fact it manifests simultaneously in a great variety of sectors (Anholt, 2008), but especially in politics. In the end, Place Branding relies on many different factors and depends on a great variety of actors that need to 'co-create' strategies of this kind. If a geographical point, whether it is a country, region or city, wants to develop a way of improving its reputation and image, in order to attract the largest group of people, every single agent of that site has to be part of the change.

At most times, these entities behave just like brands do. Instead of selling a specific product or service, they commercialize the place's own traces and characteristics which are reflected on different realities, being the political and the economical the most important ones. Place Branding as a tool gets even more value if we look at the state of the globalized world. There are many different venues which offer the same product. The difference between them usually resides in the quality and effectiveness of the communication which is used to promote the site.

In Portugal there are not many examples of Place Branding techniques. Porto's city new visual identity, which was introduced back in 2014, is certainly the best case of this practice in the country. But even this campaign had its issues as a considerable group of the city's residents think the place brand was introduced to respond to touristic concerns (Casais & Monteiro, 2019). Nonetheless, people from Porto are pleased with the 'Porto.' message due to the fact it represents them in a broad, diverse way. All individuals and views are integrated within the discussed message.

It seems hard to come up with Place Branding strategies which can change the reputation of an entire country, but throughout the history one finds episode that reminisce Place Branding. It gets clear this strategy has to be considered by all geographical agents which want to promote their unique territories and people — just like brands do with their products (Ollins, 1999).

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Biographical notes

Alexandre Duarte. With a PhD in Communication Sciences from University of Minho, a Master's degree in Communication & Image and a degree in Marketing & Advertising by IADE, Alexandre is the Ruler of various classes in Universidade Católica Portuguesa and in IADE/Universidade Europeia, visiting Professor in several Universities, developer of the Research Unit CECS from Universidade do Minho, and Course Coordinator of Oficina de Portfolio™. Throughout his career, Alexandre also had the opportunity to work for several multinational advertising agencies, in Portugal and Brazil, such as TBWA, Saatchi & Saatchi, Ogilvy, W/Portugal, W/Brazil, Lowe&Partners, or BrandiaCentral as a Senior Creative Copywriter and teach.

Ciência ID: 3819-8239-4DA5

ORCID ID: 0000-0002-2665-864X

Address: Instituto de Ciências Sociais — Universidade do Minho Campus de Gualtar — Edifício 15, 4710-057 Braga, Portugal

João Braga is a Creative Copywriter & Freelance Writer + Marketing / Advertising Student in Universidade Católica Portuguesa.

ORCID ID: 0000-0002-1181-3993

Address: Palma de Cima, 1649-023 Lisboa, Portugal

How do internal stakeholders relate with the place brand: the case of Porto and São João da Madeira

Como se relacionam os stakeholders internos com a marca local: o caso do Porto e de São João da Madeira

Luís Branco Barros

University of Vigo
Lecturer in Polytechnic of Porto
— School of Management and Technology
lcb@estg.ipp.pt

Teresa Barros

Polytechnic of Porto
— School of Management and Technology
Center for Research and Innovation in Business
Sciences and Information Systems
mtb@estg.ipp.pt

Abstract: As the competitiveness of cities declines, residents move away, consumers spend less money and businesses begin to decline or close. The literature refers to the use of branding strategies to reverse this trend. Regardless of their size, cities have been adopting branding strategies to promote themselves, retain citizens, attract new residents and investors, compete for more tourists, get new investments, and job creators. According to the literature, there is a link between branding and multi-stakeholders through internal stakeholders as they are of key importance in the co-creation of place, brand co-creation and its long-term success. The aim of this research is to analyse how the internal stakeholders of two cities with different dimensions, located in Portugal — Porto and São João da Madeira — relate to the territorial brand. These cities were selected because they are recognised for attracting population, business, and tourism. To achieve this objective, an extensive literature review of territorial branding (place branding) management frameworks was carried out. A qualitative case study approach was pursued through 24 interviews with representatives of internal stakeholders conducted in both cities, targeting their most relevant internal stakeholders. The results demonstrate how the adoption of a place branding strategy influences the quality of life in the city, the level of involvement of its internal stakeholders and affects their relationship with local institutions. These results are thus very encouraging to develop further research and give clues to policy makers to adapt the necessary policy measures to meet the interests of cities. This paper contributes to knowledge by reinforcing the significance of the role of internal stakeholders in the territorial branding management process.

Keywords: place branding, internal stakeholders, brand engagement, brand equity, sustainability

Resumo: À medida que a competitividade das cidades diminui, os habitantes afastam-se, os consumidores gastam menos dinheiro e as empresas começam a decair ou a encerrar. A literatura refere a utilização de estratégias de branding para inverter esta tendência. Independentemente da sua dimensão, as cidades têm vindo a adotar estratégias de branding para se promoverem, reterem os cidadãos, atrair novos residentes e investidores, competir por mais turistas, conseguir novos investimentos e criadores de emprego. De acordo com a literatura, existe uma ligação entre a criação da marca e os múltiplos intervenientes através dos stakeholders internos, pois estes são de importância fundamental na cocriação do local, na cocriação da marca e do seu sucesso a longo prazo. O objetivo desta investigação é analisar como os intervenientes internos de duas cidades com dimensões diferentes, localizadas em Portugal — Porto e São João da Madeira — se relacionam com a marca territorial. Estas cidades foram selecionadas por serem reconhecidas por atraírem população, negócios e turismo. Para alcançar este objetivo, foi realizada uma extensa revisão bibliográfica dos quadros de gestão da marca territorial (place branding). Foi prosseguida uma abordagem qualitativa de estudo de caso, através de 24 entrevistas com representantes de intervenientes internos realizadas em ambas as cidades, dirigidas aos seus intervenientes internos mais relevantes. Os resultados demonstram como a adoção duma estratégia de place branding influencia a qualidade de vida na cidade, o nível de envolvimento dos seus intervenientes internos e afeta a sua relação com as instituições locais. Estes resultados são, assim, muito encorajadores para desenvolver mais investigação e dar pistas aos decisores políticos para adaptar as medidas políticas necessárias para satisfazer os interesses das cidades. Este documento contribui para o conhecimento, reforçando o significado do papel dos intervenientes internos no processo de gestão da marca territorial.

Palavras-chave: place branding, stakeholders internos, envolvimento da marca, equidade da marca, sustentabilidade

1. Introduction

City as a brand is a recent but widespread phenomenon. “Place branding has become a vibrant area of research and has receives increasingly widespread attention and recognition” (Chan, 2013, p. 236) and, for many years, “place branding has remained a rich and

complex area of research which has attracted the attention and the willingness of more and more researchers to explore in depth this field and understand it in order to contribute to the place branding literature and theory” (Berrada, 2018, p. 234). Places and their identities, their reputations and their images are, for Anholt (2010), a rich and rewarding theme. Branding assumed an important role across many disciplines, such as Architecture, Business Studies, Economics, Economic History, Geography, International Relations, Marketing, Media Studies, Planning, Political Science, Tourism Studies, Sociology and Urban Studies, as described by Pike (2011). As claimed by Oguztimur & Akturan (2015), city branding includes other disciplines such as marketing, architecture, city planning and tourism-based studies.

The city branding concept follows also two approaches, marketing oriented and planning oriented, due to its interdisciplinary character (Oguztimur & Akturan, 2015): the first one presents city branding as a demand-oriented communication process and the later as brand strategies.

An extended literature review of place branding management frameworks was conducted to pursue this study. An exploratory qualitative research approach followed, by means of 24 interviews with representants of internal stakeholders conducted in both cities addressed to their most relevant internal stakeholders. Due to the coronavirus pandemic, the already booked interviews suffered many changes and the constraints were managed according to the situation.

2. Place Branding Management

In this section we review the literature regarding place branding focusing on the most recognized frameworks. Firstly, the concept of place branding management is explained and then the frameworks are presented.

Place branding management has been a hot topic recently and discussed in the past decades by authors by means of several frameworks. Some of the most recognized in the literature are presented in this paper. The modern use of branding as a business tool can be found from about 1870 until the early 1900s, when use of brands became a widescale phenomenon (Blackett, 2003), by “determined firm owner-entrepreneurs and high-level managers” and towards consumer products (Low & Fullerton, 1994, p. 174). The branding theory that has emerged in 1950s “was initially developed in the context of consumer products” (Hankinson, 2015, p. 15). Factories were using brands “to indicate quality and origin” of manufactured goods and “to give the purchaser confidence” in products made of gold or silver (Blackett, 2003, p. 15). According to Hankinson (2015), after decades of working independently, these domains are now in convergence. The need to attract tourists lead cities into the search for the most adequate ways of “selling the place” in the 1970s. The following decade focused on the

best methods to manage the city and, simultaneously, Philip Kotler introduced Marketing into the equation.

“The scale of adoption of branding has been breathtaking”, states Blackett (2003, p. 20), considering that from a consumer goods confined activity for three-quarters of the 20th century, “now features in industrial and business-to-business sectors, the public and voluntary sectors, utilities and non-governmental organisations”. And the new millennium gazed at the convergence of some disciplines, with Place Branding emerging (Hankinson, Rethinking the place branding construct, 2015).

The origins of place branding are well identified (Hankinson, 2015) in the studies of Stephen Ward (1998) and Chris Philo and Gerry Kearns (1993). And some authors, such as Ashworth, et al. (2015), consider «Selling the City», by Ashworth & Voogd (1990), and «Marketing Places», by Phillip Kotler et al. (1993), seminal books on place marketing subject.

An interdisciplinary analysis (Kavaratzis M. , 2004) reveals the existence of three phases of city marketing development: (1) fragmented promotional activities, (2) city marketing mix and (3) towards city branding. Kavaratzis (2004, p. 9) also identifies four different trends on place branding discussion: (1) branding nations, (2) “the nature and effects on cultural and entertainment branding on the physical and social character of places”, (3) destination branding and (4) the concept of corporate branding applied to place branding.

Branding is the reason for the huge gap between poor and wealthy nations (Anholt, Branding Places and Nations, 2003). The place brand strategy should recognize that the main resource of most places is people who lives, and the things made and done in the place. Frequently, place branding is wrongly understood as place selling (Zenker & Braun, Rethinking the measurement of place brands, 2015). For Keller (2003, p.596), branding is based on abstract and intangible factors. All of those become part of the consumer’s memory and will affect future interactions with the brand (Keller, 2003). Accordingly, Zenker & Braun (2015, pp. 212-213) define place brand as “a network of associations in the consumers’ mind based on the visual, verbal, and behavioural expression of a place, which is embodied through the aims, communication, values, and the general culture of the place’s stakeholders and the overall place design”. These authors also argue that the place brand is the perceived image by the target audience from the communicated expression or the physical characteristics of the place. The measure of place brand effects is obtained through the willingness to stay in a place, the resident satisfaction or a positive place behaviour (Zenker & Braun, 2015).

Place branding is a process that aims to enhance the place image through the experience of an authentic place identity and the change of mindsets of place consumers (Anholt, 2010). It differs from product marketing and corporate branding, even if a clear definition is not yet established (Chan, 2013) and is more complex than branding a product or service, mainly because the stakeholders and target groups are broader (citizens, tourists, public and private sector organization decision makers) and aiming for different benefits (Middleton, 2011). City branding

emerges as “a sub-field of place branding and emphasizes the marketing and branding of cities to the residents (and potential residents) as a place to live, and to businesses as a place to invest” (Merrilees, Miller, & Herington, 2009, p. 362). For Kavartzis (2004, p. 10), “city branding centres on peoples’ perceptions and images and puts them in the heart of orchestrated activities, designed to shape the city and its future”, and “managing the city’s brand becomes the attempt to influence and treat those mental maps in a way favourable to the city’s circumstances and further needs for economic and social development”. A place brand must deliver value to its stakeholders, such as residents and local organizations, which pay taxes, invest and benefice from it (Hankinson, Rethinking the place branding construct, 2015).

Next, we will unveil the most recognized frameworks on place branding.

2.1. Place Branding frameworks

Here we present the most recognized frameworks regarding place branding.

Kotler, et al. (1993), argue that places must be projected in line with a business approach, excel in some way and think strategically. Therefore, they present a strategic market planning framework which considers the following dimensions: a) Place identity; b) Place products; c) Place buyers; d) Place selling.

Strategic place marketing contributes to a country’s enhancement position in the global marketplace (Kotler & Gertner, Country as a brand, product, and beyond: A place marketing and brand management perspective, 2002). The authors argue that the country brand management must deal with different tasks, such as managing the image, attracting tourists and factories and companies: a) Managing the image; b) Attracting tourists; c) Attracting factories and companies.

Also, Rainisto (2003, p. 229) evaluated the most critical factors in place marketing by means of developing a theoretical framework focused on success, specially through branding. The concepts of place marketing, corporate marketing and success are defined in his study, and “the framework comprises elements related to the domains of marketing management and strategy”. The author states that his study developed a new concept of Place Branding, considering that “places can be marketed as sophisticated as products and services, and places can be branded to increase value and attractivity of the location” (Rainisto, 2003, p. 232).

Rainisto’s framework comprises several success factors: a) Planning group; b) Vision and Strategic Analysis; c) Place Identity and Place Image; d) Public-private Partnerships; e) Political Unity; f) Global Marketplace and Local Development; g) Process Coincidences; h) Leadership.

Kavartzis (2004) proposes a city image communication framework that represents the beginning of a comprehensive study, and that distinguishes between primary, secondary and tertiary communication: Primary communication — related to the communicative effects of

the city actions — *Landscape Strategies* — urban design, architecture, green spaces and public spaces in the city; *Infrastructure Projects* — accessibility and diversity of public facilities; *Organisational and Administrative Structure* — community development networks and citizen's participation in the decision making, and public-private partnerships; and *Behaviour* — vision, strategy, financial incentives, number and type of events organised in the city; Secondary communication — formal and intentional communication, like advertising and public relations; Tertiary communication — communication not controlled by marketers, like word of mouth, linked to the other dimensions as it depends in those marketing efforts.

Anholt (2006) developed the Anholt-GMI City Brands Index based on a hexagonal evaluation framework, which represents a different framework from the Anholt Nation Brands Index. The author considers that cities are simpler, smaller, and easier to generalize than a whole country. Therefore, the six dimensions of its hexagon are: The Presence; The Place; The Potential; The Pulse; The People; and The Prerequisites.

Trueman & Cornelius (2006, p. 12) presented the Place Branding Identity Toolkit, which “has refined the definition of city brands and revealed the importance of identity in establishing the nature of the brand”. These authors argue that “brand identity is made of Presence, Purpose and Pace, as well as the immediate visual impact of the built environment” (Trueman & Cornelius, 2006, p. 11): Presence; Purpose; and Pace.

Focused in destination marketing, Hankinson (2004) distinguishes four main streams of brand conceptualisation: brand as communicators, brand as perceptual entities, brand as value enhancers and brand as relationships, all intertwined and not independent of each other. The author also divides place marketing into two domains — urban planning and tourism and vacation marketing — considering that each one takes a different approach. In his relational network brand, the place brand is represented by a core brand and four categories of brand relationship, which are dynamic, get stronger and evolve over time: Core brand; Primary services relationships; Brand infrastructure relationships; Media and communications relationships; and Consumer groups relationships.

More recently, the same author presented a new framework, a holistic model of the destination brand management process. Hankinson (2007) finds five guiding principles of destination branding management derived from the corporate brands literature, considering that there are sufficient similarities between these two categories: Strong, visionary leadership; A brand-oriented organisational culture; Departmental co-ordination and process alignment; Consistent communications across a wide range of stakeholders; and Strong, compatible partnerships.

Kavaratzis (2009) argues that some the above frameworks differ in several respects but that it is possible to find strong similarities, leading to an integration proposal (Annex A). The author groups those similarities into eight categories as components of an integrated approach to city brands management: Vision and Strategy; Internal Culture; Local Communities;

Synergies; Infrastructure; Cityscape and Gateways; Opportunities; and Communications.

Considering that our purpose is to analyse how the internal stakeholders of two cities with different dimensions, located in Portugal — Porto and São João da Madeira — relate to the place brand, the next subtopic is dedicated to defining the internal stakeholders.

2.2. Stakeholders

Freeman (1984) was one of the first authors to define stakeholders. In the late 1970's he developed a broad definition of stakeholder as a group or an individual with the capacity of affect or to get affected by any achievement of the organization's goal (Freeman, *Strategic Management: A stakeholder approach*, 1984). According to this author, to achieve success organizations must provide value to their stakeholders — all the relevant groups and individuals — who also help determine the success or the failure of the organization. The importance of the stakeholders is not the same, that is why they can be divided between primary and secondary ones (Figure 1). In the first category we can find those groups or individuals that are, somehow, dependent financially from the success of the organization, such as employees or suppliers. Secondary stakeholders that impact or are impacted by the organization must be involved, but can be on a later moment (Freeman, Harrison, Wicks, Parmar, & de Colle, 2010).



Figure 1
Creating value for stakeholders
Source: Freeman, et al. (2007),
cit. in Freeman, et al. (2010)

Kotler, et al. (1993, p. 18) argued that the biggest challenge of place marketing is to strengthen “the capacity of communities and regions to adapt to the changing marketplace, seize opportunities, and sustain their vitality”. And for that they considered four main target markets for place marketing: **Visitors** (business visitors, tourists and travellers); **Residents and Workers** (professionals, skilled workers, wealthy individuals, investors, entrepreneurs and unskilled workers); **Business and Industry** (heavy industry and entrepreneurs); and **Export Markets** (other localities within the domestic markets and international markets). Like any other product, urban place marketing begins with identifying the city’s target groups, its customers. Van den Berg & Braun (1999, p. 993) define customers as inhabitants (to whom “the city is a place to live, work and relax in and a supplier of a wide range of facilities like education and health care”), companies (to whom the city “is a place to locate, to do business and to recruit employees”) and tourists and other visitors (to whom the city “offers a combination of culture, education and entertainment”).

Comparing corporate brands with destination brands, Hankinson (2007) identifies the external stakeholders as shareholders, suppliers, distributors, government agencies, media, education and arts, “who over a long period of time can have a profound influence on the brand image” (Hankinson, 2007, p. 245). Braun (2008) agrees with the four core customer groups framework — residents, visitors, companies and investors — but considers that, for certain cities, it could make sense to expand it with commuters, students, export markets and intermediaries, which are in a second ring.

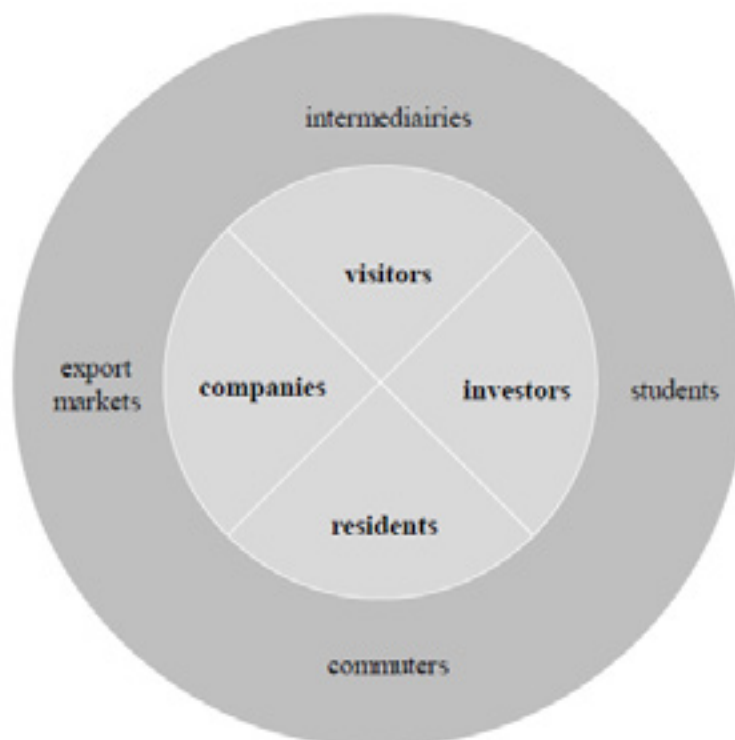


Figure 2
The customers of a city
Source: Braun (2008)

Zenker & Braun (2010) consider that the target groups in recent marketing practice are more specific and complex, and customers are not only different in terms of place brand perception but also in their place needs and demands. The authors claim that conflicts and synergies are inevitable between those needs and demands of different group targets.

Table 1
Different Target Groups for Place Marketing

Visitors	Residents and Workers		Business and Industry	
	Internal	External	Internal	External
Business Tourists	Creative Class	Creative Class	Civil Service	Investors
Leisure Tourists	Skilled Workforce	Skilled Workforce	Investors	Companies (sectors)
...	Students	Students	Companies (sectors)	...
	

Source: adapted from Zenker & Braun (2010)

Beckmann & Zenker (2012) added to the above framework (Table 1) a final stakeholder group, composed by the media, from travel books to in-flight magazines, TV, daily newspapers and others, as “media strategies are helpful in raising awareness among target populations to what a city has to offer” (Avraham, 2004).

When stakeholders possess enough information and understand the reasons behind a place brand strategy, and that it’s compatible with their own goals and share the same vision, they can be “reasonably engaged and involved” (Stubbs & Warnaby, 2015, p. 105). These authors identify some of the different stakeholders related to place branding as: a) Residents; b) Politicians; c) Governmental Organizations; d) Promotion Agencies; e) Infrastructure and Transport Providers; f) Cultural and Sports Organizations; g) Businesses; h) Academic Organizations and Schools; i) Religious Organizations.

Stubbs e Warnaby (2015) also describe several stakeholders’ classifications available in the management literature: a) Primary stakeholders — individuals or groups that are essential to the wellbeing of the organization; and secondary stakeholders; b) Voluntary and involuntary stakeholders — according to their choice of interaction; c) Potential to threaten or cooperate with the organization, in four key types: the supportive stakeholder; the marginal stakeholder; the non-supportive stakeholder; and the mixed blessing stakeholder; d) According to the main levels of interaction: inevitable interactions; necessary interactions; and desirable interactions.

The stakeholder involvement in the place brand process has got a positive impact in the effectiveness of branding in the public sector. When the stakeholders are involved in branding it results in a clearer brand concept and contributes to increase the ability to attract new inhabitants, visitors and companies (Klijn, Eshuis, & Braun, 2012). As different stakeholders have different perceptions of the city brand (Merrilees, Miller, & Herington, 2009), with each one aiming to maximise the benefits and conflicting with others (Buhalis, 2000), literature suggests that there is a link between branding and multiple stakeholders (Merrilees, Miller, & Herington, 2009), as internal stakeholders groups are of key importance for brand co-creation and its long-term success (Konecnik & Petek, 2012). Research in place branding also suggests that collaboration, participation and the role of stakeholders in the branding process is an increasing subject of investigation (Ilczuk, 2019). On the same pace, we find the Braun (2008) city consumers' target groups framework an easy and flexible tool to work with. We identified several interviewees from each target group (Annex B).

Table 2
Braun's customers target groups of a city

Core customer groups		Secondary customer groups	
Visitors	Leisure visitors, business visitors and professional visitors (Beckmann & Zenker, 2012)	Students	Van der Berg & Russo, 2002; Braun (2008)
Companies	Civil service, companies (sectors) (Beckmann & Zenker, 2012)	Commuters	Kotler (2002), Rainisto (2003), Braun (2008)
Investors	Local and external (Beckmann & Zenker, 2012)	Intermediaries	Event promoters and organisers, real estate brokers (Braun, City Marketing: Towards an integrated approach, 2008)
Residents	Employees in the city, employees elsewhere and not employed (Braun, 2008) Skilled workforce and creative class (Beckmann & Zenker, 2012)	Export markets	Target markets of place marketers (Kotler, Haider, & Rein, 1993) Outside investments and export markets (Rainisto, 2003) Potential investors (Braun et al., 2003)

Source: Braun (2008)

This case study research aims to evaluate the place brand management in two different environments: two cities of different dimensions, both from the same metropolitan area.

The research question defined is “how the internal stakeholders of two cities with different dimensions, located in Portugal — Porto and São João da Madeira — relate to the place brand?”

Propositions were developed to answer this research question considering the adoption of the Kavaratzis (2009) framework because it is an integrational proposal that takes into account insights from the previous frameworks.

Propositions:

P1: The stakeholder involvement in the place brand process has a positive impact in the effectiveness of branding in the public sector (Maheshwari, et al., 2011; Klijn, et al., 2012; Eshuis, et al., 2014);

P2: Different stakeholders have different brand image perceptions (Merrilees, et al., 2009; Fitchett, 2005; Friedman & Miles, 2002);

P3: Internal stakeholders are of key importance for brand co-creation and its long-term success (Hankinson, 2007; Konecnik & Petek, 2012; Gyrd-Jones & Kornum, 2013; Vallaster & von Wallpach, 2013):

P4: The internal stakeholders, namely residents, are the most important target market for place branding managers (Braun, et al., 2010; Kavaratzis, 2012; Klijn, et al., 2012; Zenker & Erfgen, 2014).

To find cues to answer these propositions, we developed an interview protocol designed with twenty questions (Annex C). We expect to find cues, in the statements, of the relevance of the internal stakeholders in the city brand manager strategies (Klijn, Eshuis, & Braun, 2012), although different groups of stakeholders might have distinct brand image perceptions (Merrilees, Miller, & Herington, 2009). It is also expected to find cues of the important role of residents (Kavaratzis, 2012) and the significance of the stakeholders' role for brand co-creation (Hankinson, 2007).

In the next section we outline the methodology used in this research.

Methodology

Considering the research question and the propositions of this research a qualitative approach based on two case studies was adopted. The city of Porto is a big urban area with 237 591 inhabitants, and it is one of the oldest cities in Europe, with a historic centre classified as a World Heritage Site, since 1996 by UNESCO. Known worldwide by its famous Port Wine, the city preserves a remarkable historical heritage, mixed with modernity such as public buildings like Casa da Música or Serralves Museum. On the other hand, São João da Madeira is a small urban area with 21 713 inhabitants, known for its strong industry, mainly footwear and hat making. Old industrial buildings welcome now creative industry companies on a small but green city. Both cities are from the same metropolitan area, in Portugal, separated by less than 20 km.

Based on the literature (Yin, 1994; Yin, 2018), an exploratory case study was pursued following the next case study protocol:

Table 3
The Case Study Protocol

An overview of the case study	Mission and goals; case study questions, hypothesis, and propositions; theoretical framework, and literature research.
Data collection procedures	Data collection plan; expected preparation prior to fieldwork.
Protocol questions	The questions and the potential source of evidences for addressing each question.
Tentative outline for the case study report	Format for the data, use and presentation, and bibliographic information.

Source: Adapted from Yin (2018)

Regarding the selection of the stakeholders we decided to interview the stakeholders according to the framework of Kavaratzis (2009) for this author is one of the most recognized in the literature of place branding. From each city (Porto, and São João da Madeira) we interviewed the following stakeholders, as a sample of the place brand internal influencers, according to the framework of Kavaratzis (2009), as the author groups the previous frameworks similarities into eight categories as components of an integrated approach to city brands management:

Table 4
The interviews

STAKEHOLDER	GROUP	INTERVIEWEE
Companies	Public Sector	Brand manager
	Private Business	CEO
	Private Business	CEO
Investors	Local Business	CEO
Residents	Worker in the city	Citizen
	Worker in another city	Citizen
	Unemployed	Citizen
Students	Student in the city	Citizen
	Student in another city	Citizen
Commuters	Worker from another city	Citizen
Intermediaries	Event promoter	CEO
	Real Estate agent	CEO

Source: authors

The data was collected by convenience choice according to the roles of the interviewed and the availability to participate in this study that took place mostly during the COVID emergency stage. Semi-structured interviews were developed and programmed to be conducted between late February and May, but the coronavirus pandemic forced us to do some adaptations and an online inquiry was also developed, with open questions, to provide richer insights than a questionnaire.

Finally, the interviews were conducted between July and September. Only seven interviews were obtained from São João da Madeira, and six from Porto because of the holidays season. The face-to-face interviews were conducted online, through the cloud-based video conferencing service Zoom.

In the next section the main results are presented.

3. Research and Findings

This case study research aims to evaluate the place brand management in two different environments: two cities of different dimensions, both from the same metropolitan area.

To answer the research question “how the internal stakeholders of two cities with different dimensions, located in Portugal — Porto and São João da Madeira— relate to the place brand?” propositions were developed and the framework developed by the Kavaratzis (2009) guided this purpose.

To find cues to answer these propositions, we developed an interview protocol designed with twenty questions (Annex C).

The coronavirus pandemic that affected the world since the beginning of 2020, and reached, officially, Portugal on March 2nd, disturbed the programmed interviews. Several institutions and individuals cancelled or postponed the meetings. Due to the social distance rules implemented in Portugal, we had to find new interviewees and, at a certain point, to elaborate an online inquiry, to facilitate the answers from the identified stakeholders. This procedure was conducted always by phone, online meetings and through the web. Only one interview was conducted face-to-face.

The selected city brand managers admitted the relevance of the stakeholder involvement in the place brand process. For the Porto’s brand manager, “everything we do is for the city, including all stakeholders”. “The business community is very important” for the city brand, citing “the start-ups as a good example”, he added. In São João da Madeira there is “a great associative power”, proved by “three fire stations”, “school clusters that are quite dynamic”, “the Santa Casa da Misericórdia”, “the sports associations and ADS with more than 1000 athletes”, and the industries of shoes and hats, referred the brand manager. Nine interviewees stated that the city values are shared among the members of their communities.

Five of them point “the city hall” as the main responsible for the task of promoting the city values and vision, and the others attribute such assignment to the “manager” or “the boss”, “the population” as a whole, or “local teachers”. Most of the interviewees also consider that the communication from the place brand managers are related to the city vision. Interviewee 3 declares that “authorities ensure the city preservation and citizens wellbeing”, and interviewee 6 agrees and mentions that “the sense of security is one of the symbols of the city”. The stakeholders more involved with the city have a better image of its brand and make more positive remarks about it. They also contribute more to the effectiveness of the brand. The investors and the businesspeople that have direct connections to the City Hall showed a better understanding of the values and proposals of the city, and its goals were clearer. On the other hand, businesspeople with no contact with the City Hall, demonstrated not knowing most of the answers to our questions. In line with these statements we can conclude that there are cues to accept Proposition 1 stating that the stakeholder involvement in the place brand process has a positive impact on the effectiveness of branding in the public sector.

The place brand manager of Porto pictures the city as work and investment friendly, but with special care for the more needed. Porto “has policies for attracting investment and talent”, because “cities can attract talent by the way they are organized and the quality of life”, said Interviewee 1. São João da Madeira’s place brand manager considers “the strong industrial brand that is at the origin of our council emancipation”, and “innovative industries” as the main attributes of his city. “Our wealth, our comfort, our services, our facilities come from that industrial strength”. On the interviews we may observe different reflections of these images, according to each stakeholder. Interviewees 3 and 10 praise “the innovation goal” of São João da Madeira, and Interviewee 4 agrees and also adds “the entrepreneurship” as a visiting card for the city. Interviewees 7 and 8 state that Porto have a “limited vision” and “without content”, but interviewee 9 mentions “the environmental sustainability”. Therefore, even though there is a vision, and efforts in its message to reach all stakeholders the same way, there are notorious perceptions due to the degree of involvement, or of agreement with the followed policy. The interviewees also recognized different characteristics which identify the city, naming those more relevant for each stakeholder. We can state that there are enough cues to accept Proposition 2, for different stakeholders showed different brand image perceptions.

São João da Madeira’s interviewees are clearly proud of the prestige of their industry and its innovation. And the ones from Porto recognize the importance of tourism. All of them, nevertheless, identify several internal stakeholders’ groups which embody the vision of the city: “Companies”, “businessmen”, “local associations”, “educational structure”, “church”, “museums”, and “sport clubs” are named as important local stakeholders that represent the values of each city. This positive attitude towards the internal stakeholders’ groups is in line with Proposition 3. Therefore, we can accept Proposition 3, that states that the internal

stakeholders' groups are of key importance for brand co-creation and its long-term success.

Finally, the content analysis of the speeches also shows that city brand managers care about the residents of their cities, although it was not possible to find enough cues that confirm that they are the most important target market for these cities. City brand managers concentrate a lot of their time on attracting investment (companies and jobs). Education comes immediately after, also in connection with the labour needs from companies. And thirdly, green areas and environment needs are pursued by the brand managers. Porto aims to attract and retain young talent, and to offer good quality of life at affordable prices. São João da Madeira rides the industrial tradition and inputs innovation and modernity, aiming the environmental sustainability. The strong personality of both cities contrasts with the futuristic look that both authorities seek to have. The touristic boom in Porto may have slowed down, due to the coronavirus pandemic, with financial consequences — a 2 € per night tax must be paid by each tourist since 2018 — and the consequences are not yet to imagine. The bet of São João da Madeira in technological start-ups and in the education seems more consistent with the industrial background but only future will confirm this gambling. Analysing the whole of these aspects, we can conclude that there are cues that make us believe that all the decisions are made having in mind the residents, but none of the city brand managers stated clearly that they were their primal concern. “The municipal citizens” are the main target for Porto, including “all those that live, work and are in the city”, said the brand manager of Porto. São João da Madeira “works for the people, and everything we do is just instrumental”, said the brand manager. “We want to enlarge the value of the territory and the population”, he stated. For the people, the city invests in “good educational, leisure, and sports services”. In line with the statements there are not enough cues to accept Proposition 4. This can be related to the fact that the brand managers do not distinguish among internal stakeholders, or to the smaller weight of residents, therefore more neglected by the city authorities (Berrada, 2018).

4. Conclusions and limitations of the research

The main purpose of this paper is to understand how the internal stakeholders relate with their cities' brand, as well as if the city brand managers care about the different groups of stakeholders that coexist in the city.

The exploratory qualitative nature of this study, its modest sample, and the number of interviews cannot guarantee the generalisation of the results, yet the generalization is not the purpose of an exploratory research... That might be the next step...

The two cities of this study have strong personalities, and their history is filled with success moments. Porto and its highly successful commerce. São João da Madeira's independence due to its strong industry.

The results of this research are very encouraging to develop further research and to give cues to the policy makers to adapt the necessary policy measures to fulfil the cities interests. The role of the internal stakeholders is widely recognized, and city brand managers seem to be addressing their main policies having towards those that live, work, study and invest in their cities.

This study is important by utilizing a multiple case study, infrequent in this field of research, although the lack of some of the interviews affected, evidently, the results. The study should be continued and completed with the remained interviews.

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Biographical notes

Luís Branco Barros. Multilingual communication and marketing professional with several business work experiences, teaching skills, knowledge of creative informatics tools and strong interpersonal skills. Was a journalist for 18 years and Press Officer for more than 10. Undergraduate in Tourism Management. Post-graduate in Marketing and Master in International Business. As research fields has written about Business Internationalization and Territorial Marketing. Is a PhD student of Economical Analysis and Business Strategy at University of Vigo (Spain).

ORCID ID: 0000-0003-3196-8498

Address: Circunvalación ao Campus Universitario, 36310 Vigo, Pontevedra, Spain

Teresa Barros is an Assistant Professor at Polytechnic of Porto, where she lectures since 2001. She developed her PhD thesis in the Faculty of Economics of the University of Porto in the field of Business Science — Marketing. Her research interests vary from branding: brand identity management, brand reputation, luxury branding, university branding to sustainability and project management (project managers' competencies; maturity models...). She is used to develop research by means of research action, qualitative and quantitative research (namely SEM).

Polytechnic of Porto — School of Management and Technology

ORCID ID: 0000-0002-2026-7365

Address: Rua do Curral, Casa do Curral, Margaride, 4610-156 Felgueiras, Portugal

Design and co-creation in place branding: the case of Porto Alegre

*Design e co-criação no place branding:
o caso de Porto Alegre*

Paula Malamud

CIAUD, Research Centre for Architecture,
Urbanism and Design, Lisbon School
of Architecture, Universidade de Lisboa
paulamalamud@campus.ul.pt

Gabriel Patrocínio

IFHT, UERJ, Rio de Janeiro,
Brasil, ISMAT — Instituto Superior
Manuel Teixeira Gomes
gabriel.patrocinio@ismat.pt

Marco Neves

CIAUD, Research Centre for Architecture,
Urbanism and Design, Lisbon School
of Architecture, Universidade de Lisboa
mneves@fa.ulisboa.pt

Abstract: There are many complexity elements in a place branding project. Among those are the conceptualization of a brand that expresses the local identity, the consensus among stakeholders, and the participation of residents. Nevertheless, designers master a set of skills to deal with complex problems. This paper aims to show, from the case study of the city of Porto Alegre (Brazil), how design can activate the collective participation of stakeholders and residents in a place branding process. The project ‘O que marca Porto Alegre?’ arose from a Rio Grande do Sul regional initiative, from the *Associação Brasileira das Empresas de Design – ABEDESIGN-RS* [Brazilian Association of Design Companies], with the aim of constructing a local brand that would recover the citizens’ pride and bring action guidelines to Porto Alegre. The proposal emerged from three principles: voluntary protagonism, collective authorship, and communal property. It had the participation of the municipality, academia, business and civil society and it mobilized over 40 design studios, organized in six teams around a collective creation. As a result, by means of co-creation, a project was developed integrating multidisciplinary teams, stakeholders, and citizens around a common goal.

Keywords: place branding, co-creation, stakeholders, design, identity

Resumo: Existem diversos pontos de complexidade num projeto de place branding. Entre eles, a conceituação de uma marca que expresse a identidade local, o consenso entre *stakeholders* e a participação dos residentes. Por outro lado, designers dominam um conjunto de habilidades para lidar com problemas complexos. Este artigo pretende mostrar, a partir do caso de estudo da cidade Porto Alegre (Brasil), de que forma o design pode ativar a participação coletiva com *stakeholders* e residentes em um processo de place branding. O projeto “O que marca Porto Alegre?” nasceu de uma iniciativa da regional sul-rio-grandense da Associação Brasileira das Empresas de Design (ABEDESIGN-RS) com o objetivo de construir uma marca local que resgatasse o orgulho dos cidadãos e trouxesse diretrizes de ações para Porto Alegre. A proposta partiu de três premissas: protagonismo voluntário, autoria coletiva e propriedade comunitária. Contou com participação da prefeitura, dos meios acadêmicos, empresarial e civil, e mobilizou mais de 40 estúdios de design, organizados em seis equipas, em torno de uma criação coletiva. Como resultado, por meio da co-criação desenvolveu-se um projeto que integrou equipas multidisciplinares, *stakeholders* e cidadãos em torno de um propósito em comum.

Palavras-chave: place branding, co-criação, stakeholders, design, identidade

1. Introduction

Place branding is a tool to identify vocations, potentiate identities, and strengthen places. It is a complex and multidisciplinary concept that requires involving people and promoting collaboration and protagonism to construct a *de facto* place-brand (Esteves, 2016).

Complexity is present in place branding in several aspects. According to Cardoso (2012, p. 25), ‘complexity here means a system composed of many elements, layers, and structures, whose interrelationships continuously condition and redefine the functioning of the whole.’¹

A point of complexity much discussed in place branding is the question of the participation of residents and stakeholders during the process, in order to create authentic and

1 Author’s translation

consensual brands (Aitken & Campelo, 2011; Braun et al., 2013; Esteves, 2016; Hereźniak, 2017; Kavaratzis, 2012; Kavaratzis & Kalandides, 2015).

They must participate in the conceptualization of the brand, which is an integration between culture, identity, and the image of the place, in an interconnected process of expressions, impressions, mirroring, and reflection (Kavaratzis & Hatch, 2013).

Another issue of complexity is the process of conceptualizing a brand to express the identity of the territory (Campelo et al., 2014; Esteves, 2016; Parente, 2014), carrying the sense of belonging of residents.

Place brands, therefore, can be defined as complex social constructions in which different organizations are co-creators (Lucarelli, 2018) and which should be treated with a systemic and multidisciplinary vision (Esteves, 2016).

Within this vision, where participatory, inclusive, and co-creative methods can be applied, design can make an important contribution by bringing effective solutions to complex place branding issues.

This paper intends, through the case study of Porto Alegre, to answer the following question: how can design activate collective participation with stakeholders and residents in a place branding process?

Based on the Rio Grande do Sul regional initiative of the Brazilian Association of Design Companies (ABEDESIGN-RS), more than 40 designers came together to create a brand with the objective of bringing new guidelines and strengthening the municipality of Porto Alegre. It was an innovative project, conceived and conducted by designers, where all were volunteers and the authorship was collective, which had the participation of residents and stakeholders. The project also involved co-creative processes for both the strategic and creative stages.

2. Place branding, design, and co-creation

2.1. Complexity in place branding

Place branding is a complex, multifaceted, dynamic, and participatory process (Ntounis & Kavaratzis, 2017), composed of an understanding of the multiple contexts and dimensions of a place, involving interaction between different audiences (Lucarelli, 2018).

According to Parente (2014), among the points of complexity are the definition of the identity of a territory (strategy), the control of the actions of different stakeholders (performance), and the monitoring of perception and reputation (satisfaction). It is a difficult process to be carried out without approval and sharing of objectives.

The place branding process, when participatory, can inspire residents to engage in public discussions and consultations about the future of their city, and is vital to the strategy of the territory and to building a brand with purpose and long-term vision (Ntounis & Kavaratzis, 2017).

A place brand elaborated with co-creation and community representation results in a dynamic, authentic, and collective essence. Therefore, a bottom-up approach must be adopted in order to have a sense of belonging, authenticity, stakeholder commitment, and brand sustainability (Aitken & Campelo, 2011), in addition to providing qualified information, validating hypotheses and concepts, and promoting a sense of place and pride (Esteves, 2016, p. 261).

2.2. Design for a complex world

The activity of design has changed over the years, ‘not because of taste or fashion or volubility, but because the world has changed — structurally and permanently’² (Cardoso, 2012, p. 225,226).

According to Buchanan (1992), design has the power to conceive, plan, and manufacture products that serve human beings in the realization of their individual and collective goals. The point is that the meaning of the ‘product’ has changed over the years, as have issues related to the practice of design.

Thus, Buchanan presents the evolution of design in four orders according to its complexity and the changing nature of the products developed.

The first is focused on ‘**symbols.**’ These are symbolic and visual communications, which include traditional graphic design work. It covers the communication of information in various media and materials.

The second, industrial design, arose from the manufacture of tangible physical artefacts — the material ‘**objects.**’ It is related to the form and function of everyday products. According to Cardoso (2012), design was born in the industrial era, with the purpose of improving products, previously produced by hand, making them attractive and efficient.

Migrating to the most intangible field, Buchanan describes the third order of ‘**action**’ oriented design. It is about developing experiences, activities, or services, which influence the interaction and the way human beings relate to each other.

The fourth order of design, finally, is that of ‘**thinking.**’ It is the design of complex systems or environments to live, work, play and learn.

2 Author’s translation

It is important to point out that these four areas are interconnected. Symbols, objects, actions, and thoughts merge into design practice.

Jones (2014) also categorizes the evolution of design in four stages with respect to the increasing challenges of complexity. The last stage, design 4.0, is related to social transformation and has methods and skills to deal with complex social problems, relating to stakeholders, whether they are members of an industry, a community, or citizens, in contexts of any scale.

Also according to Jones (2018), the product or object of design can be a strategy, political agreements, operational concepts, or plans developed with stakeholders using methods to achieve a common sense or a shared understanding.

According to Sanders and Stappers (2008), designers are no longer designing products for users. They are designing future experiences of people, communities, and cultures. They are designing to meet people's 'purposes.' Consequently, new disciplines of design have begun to emerge, such as interaction design, service design, and transformation design. The latter is the latest, and combines participatory design methods with user- and stakeholder-oriented processes, originating from a systemic thinking.

Another important discipline is strategic design. For Mozota (2011), design has become increasingly more strategic in the sense of value creation, thus becoming an essential competence not only for companies, but also for institutions, cities, and countries. Mozota (2006) also states that strategic design has four essential powers: 1) as **differentiator**, generating competitive advantage, 2) as **integrator**, leading and integrating teams and bringing innovation, 3) as **transformer** creating change, and 4) as **good business**, bringing more value to the brand.

All these emerging design disciplines are changing what, how, and who does the design (Sanders & Stappers, 2008).

2.3 The role of design in place branding

In the context of a territory, designers can contribute in many ways. More specifically, within place branding, design has a relevant contribution in the strategy, design, and implementation of local brands, as well as in the development of products, actions, services, and experiences that will support the brand strategy.

Maffei and Villari (2006) define the action of design in the territory as an activity whose objective is to promote systemic processes of innovation (social, economic, and technological), taking as a starting point the particularities of the local resources (material and immaterial) through different specialties and with different action focus (social, economic, cultural, etc.).

The action of designers in a territory refers to three different levels: 1) relationship level, where relationships with the community are built; 2) strategic design level, to define

strategies; 3) artefact level (product-system definition), to concretize strategies in products, services, and experiences (Maffei & Villari, 2006).

Design has a systemic approach and is capable of designing innovative solutions, besides placing the community at the centre of the project, bringing a participatory perspective (Parente & Sadini, 2017). This concept, community centred design, acts in a collective and collaborative way, creating links, exchanging experiences and information, and promoting dialogues within and outside the community (Maffei & Villari, 2006).

2.4. Co-creation in place branding

The concept of co-creation has different aspects and meanings.

From the organizational perspective, co-creation has become a widely used term to describe a change in the thinking of companies as a definer of value for a more participatory process in which people and organizations generate and develop meaning together (Ind & Coates, 2013). Co-creation, therefore, is the offering of an interaction environment in which its audiences can have an active dialogue and co-construct personalised experiences generating problem solving, innovation, and value (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004).

From the design point of view, it is possible to define co-creation as a collective creative action, shared between two or more people. Another widely used term, which is often confused with co-creation is co-design, which is also related to collective creation but occurs specifically within a design process bringing designers and non-designers together (Sanders & Stappers, 2008). Both originated in the 1970s from the participatory design introduced by the Collective Resource Approach, an innovative Scandinavian approach where workers participated in design processes (Kraft & Bansler, 1994).

The concept of co-creation includes a wide range of participatory design practices and decision-making processes with stakeholders and users. These practices have evolved from original forms of collaboration as participatory design to newer forms such as sprints and laboratories (P. Jones, 2018).

According to Parente (2014), to be efficient, place branding needs to be aligned with long-term strategic actions, as well as creating participatory connections between different stakeholders, including residents. Therefore, the inclusion of community co-creation processes in place branding is fundamental (Esteves, 2016). Currently, the diffusion of digital technologies and social networks is contributing to increase and disseminate actions of co-creation and participatory design, facilitating the collective creation of urban identity (Parente, 2014).

3. Case study: *O que marca Porto Alegre?*

3.1. Methodology

In order to answer the question ‘How can design activate collective participation with stakeholders and residents in a place branding process?’ this paper used the case study methodology, which ‘investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context’ (Yin, 2001, p. 32).

In this context, the study was based on the place branding case developed in Porto Alegre, Brazil, where information was collected from multiple sources, such as interviews with the project coordinator, reports, and photographic records.

The case study method intends to observe and analyse in depth ‘how’ and ‘why’ a phenomenon occurs (Yin, 2001). Thus, it aimed to understand what the process of building the Porto Alegre brand was like and how designers participated throughout the process, as well as the reason for co-creative processes taking place.

3.2. Context and objectives

In 2017, Porto Alegre, capital of the state of Rio Grande do Sul, was suffering the impacts of the economic recession, as were many Brazilian cities. Business closures, unemployment, lack of prospects, loss of talent.

As a consequence, the design sector was largely affected. Aiming to reverse this negative scenario, ABEDESIGN-RS met to think about alternatives to the issue.

ABEDESIGN — the Brazilian Association of Design Companies — founded in 2005, aims to expand the market of design services, valuing the activity and its benefits for society and the development of the country. The association currently has nine regional offices, among them the regional office of Rio Grande do Sul (RS), which act as dissemination hubs, as well as generating local initiatives (ABEDESIGN, 2020).

As a result of the ABEDESIGN-RS meetings, the project ‘*O que marca Porto Alegre?*’³ was launched on May 19, 2017. This is a place branding proposal with the aim of giving more visibility to the design sector and bringing benefits to the city and its community. A project

³ The title of the project, ‘*O que marca Porto Alegre?*’ suggests a wordplay that is difficult to translate directly. *Marca* means both what *marks* it, or makes it unique, as well as *brand*.

conceived, conducted, and carried out by designers to rescue the pride of the residents, attract visitors, and foster investments.

Based on the question ‘How do we want Porto Alegre to be recognized by us and the world?’, the project was planned to achieve the following objectives: 1) to define a clear positioning for Porto Alegre to be recognized by its own citizens and the world; 2) to define a brand platform with drivers that inspire actions for the city, based on this positioning, and 3) to create a contemporary and distinctive visual identity for the city.

An intrinsic and striking feature of this project is its collaborative and participative nature, having its implementation based on three fundamental premises: 1) **voluntary protagonism**: the absence remuneration for participants; 2) **collective authorship**: all participants acting as co-creators; and 3) **community ownership**: the result would be donated to the city of Porto Alegre and could not be claimed by any of its authors, public or private bodies.

Besides the planning, strategy, and creation of the visual identity, designers were responsible for the articulation with other entities, companies, and associations, seeking support for the project.

In 2018, the ABEDESIGN-RS started the contact with the *Aliança pela Inovação* [Alliance for Innovation], an initiative of the universities UFRGS, PUC-RS and Unisinos, with the aim of enhancing the environment for innovation, knowledge, and entrepreneurship in Porto Alegre. Later, in 2019, the *Aliança pela Inovação* expanded its scope and became part of the *Pacto Alegre* movement, together with the city hall and 80 other public and private entities and civil society.

Pacto Alegre is an articulation movement for transforming projects, creating conditions for the city to become a pole of innovation, attraction of investments and entrepreneurship. It has six macro challenges, among them, ‘image of the city,’ which aims to promote the image of an innovative city. To achieve this macro challenge, several projects were presented in a workshop, including ‘*O que marca Porto Alegre?*’ After a vote among the participants, the ABEDESIGN-RS project was the winner and formalized its connection with the *Pacto Alegre*, getting the support of stakeholders from the political, academic, and business milieu of the city, thus gaining more articulation, relevance, and visibility.

3.3. Processes and steps

The project ‘*O que marca Porto Alegre?*’ was structured by designers from the associated companies of the ABEDESIGN-RS, and counted on the creation and implementation of an own methodology, composed of diverse co-creative processes. It comprised of four stages as follows.

3.3.1. Research

Throughout the project, research was carried out with the aim of capturing, analysing and understanding the structural elements of the city's identity.

1) *Desk research by themes*: after the project launch, study groups were created with designers associated with the ABEDESIGN-RS, who carried out a desk research, collecting and systematising information on the following themes: economic activities, cartography, events, history and vocations, icons, projects and initiatives, natural resources. These themes were selected to provide input on the tangible and intangible aspects that make up the identity of Porto Alegre. The groups also collected information on place branding, seeking benchmarks in the world.

2) *Image and attributes research*: using qualitative and quantitative methodologies, a survey was conducted to understand the context, the main attributes, and the perceived image of Porto Alegre. Affective memories, the relationship with the present, and the perspective of the future of the participants were investigated to thus capture the feelings of the interviewees regarding the vocation and uniqueness of the city. The qualitative survey was conducted from December 2017 to March 2018 through 14 in-depth interviews with opinion formers in the city, composed of seven men and seven women, aged between 24 and 68, from different social classes. The quantitative survey was conducted between March 1 and 12, 2018, using electronic forms. Two hundred residents from 55 different neighbourhoods attended to it.

3) *Digital Listening*: held from July 12 to 31, 2019, covering a total of 1545 respondents among residents, former residents, and *lovers* (city fans) using the quantitative survey method with online application. Based on a questionnaire with nine questions designed with a universal language and accessible to the most different public profiles, the aim was to understand how the participants associated the future of the city with visual elements such as images, shapes, colours, lines, and movements.

3.3.2. Perception workshop

On July 12, 2019, a workshop was held with more than 120 residents with diverse profiles from 40 different neighbourhoods, with the aim of answering the following question: 'How do we want Porto Alegre to be recognized by us and the world?' In the selection of the participants there was a concern with the highest representation of all, that is, a diversified profile prevailing inclusion and diversity. The workshop took place one morning at UNISINOS and was attended by ABEDESIGN-RS affiliated designers and supporters of the city hall and *Pacto Alegre*. As a dynamic activity, participants were distributed in 10 tables, assisted by 10 facilitators, respectively, who led the co-creation process (Figure 1).

In order to extract perceptions about the present, the past, and the future of the city,

participants were guided to answer the following questions: What was good in the past? What would be incredible in the future? What is very nice about today? What sentence defines Porto Alegre? What does it represent in the city?

After the workshop, a report with the main insights was prepared, which was used in the following phase.

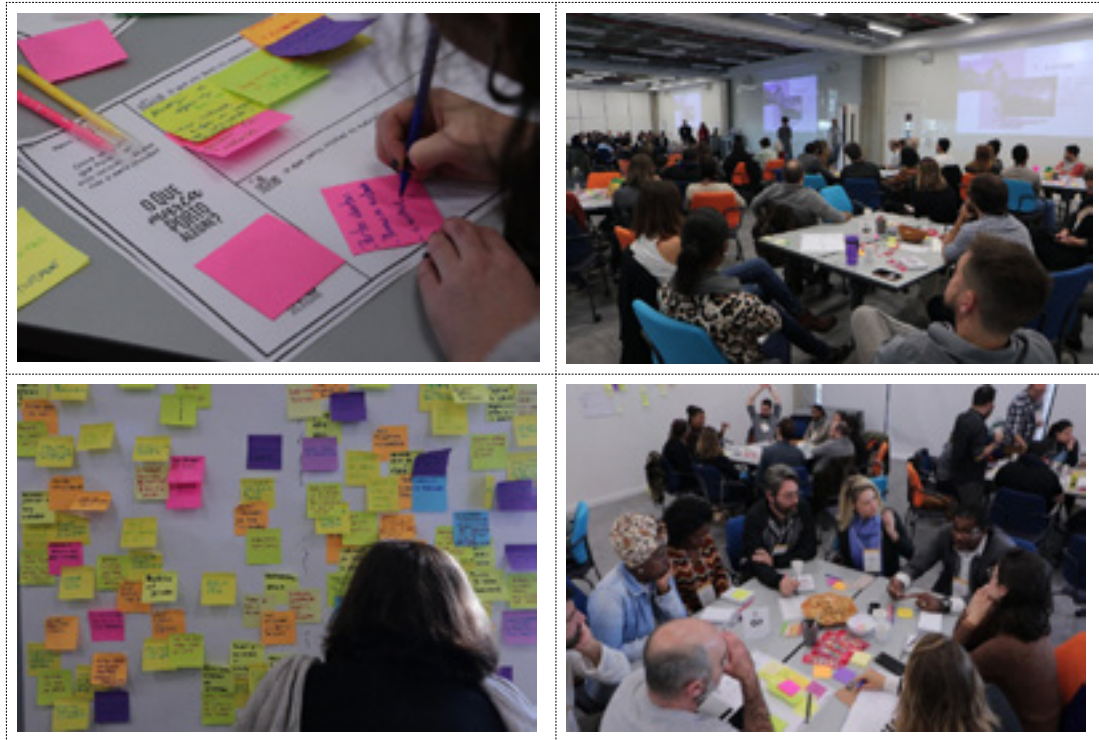


Figure 1
Images from the perception workshop. Source: ABEDESIGN-RS

3.3.3. Strategy sprint

On September 2, 3, and 4, 2019 another co-creative dynamic took place: the strategy sprint, with the aim of defining the brand's strategic guidelines, including the platform and the pillars. Members of the ABEDESIGN-RS and members of *Pacto Alegre* participated, thus forming a multidisciplinary team. A place branding methodology specially developed by the ABEDESIGN-RS was applied for this project, in which participants had to describe and then highlight the most representative elements of a Convergence Matrix composed of four essential areas: city, people (residents/visitors/business), places of the world (benchmarks), and trends. As a result, the brand platform was defined including five strategic pillars: 1) collaboration and inclusion; 2) innovation and entrepreneurship; 3) nature and circularity; 4) integral health and quality of life; and 5) art and culture.

3.3.4. Creative squads

After the definition of the platform and the strategic pillars, in August 2019 the phase of development of the visual identity for the project began, again through a co-creative process. Overall, more than 40 design studios participated, including non-members of the ABEDESIGN-RS, who met in six creative hubs. Each hub had to present at least one proposal for the visual and verbal concept that best translated the strategic pillars. In the end, 11 proposals were submitted that went through a selection process. There was a vote among the participants of the hubs and invited companies to elect six options. These six finalists were sent to a national jury composed of eight invited designers from the national ABEDESIGN, to choose three options according to the following criteria: semantics, versatility, uniqueness, reproducibility, and validity. On November 28, 2019, three finalist projects were announced, but still needing adjustments based on the jury's recommendations. To make the final changes, the creative hubs were restructured into a different group composition from the previous stage, thus emphasizing the premise of co-creation and collective authorship of the project. Finally, three visual identity options were finalized in January 2020.

3.4. Next stages

The dissemination of the project '*O que marca Porto Alegre?*' for the population was scheduled for March 26, 2020, on the 248th anniversary of the city of Porto Alegre. As an instrument of participation and civil engagement, the 'public listening' was planned for the choice of the visual identity of the brand. Through social networks, the population could 'give a like' in their preferred option, among the three options presented. It was also planned to advertise it in various media, with the support of the city hall and the *Pacto Alegre*. However, exactly in March 2020, due to the COVID-19 pandemic, the launch was postponed, still without a defined date. At the moment, meetings between the ABEDESIGN-RS and the stakeholders of the *Pacto Alegre* continue to be planned in order to continue the strategic planning for the brand, as well as to define actions to strengthen the territory, within the scope of place branding.

4. Conclusion

Designers master a set of skills that allow them to conduct challenging and complex processes. Place branding, in turn, is a complex and multidisciplinary process and design intervention can occur at various stages and in different ways.

For example, designers can contribute to solve critical points of place branding by acting in the relationship spheres with the community and stakeholders, in the definition and implementation of strategies and in the design of products, services, and experiences.

Many design processes are co-creative by nature, and in the case of place branding for Porto Alegre, co-creation was highlighted as an essential tool to achieve its goals and fulfil the premises of voluntary protagonism, collective authorship and community property.

Co-creative methods were applied in three key steps: 1) perception workshop — to capture true insights from the community and understand its needs; 2) strategy sprint — to align ideas and concepts between multidisciplinary teams and stakeholders; and 3) creative hub — to guide collective authorship among designers, resulting in the creation of a visual identity that would tangibly convey the strategic pillars.

We conclude that, as occurred in the place branding process for Porto Alegre, design can effectively play a key role in activating collective participation with stakeholders and residents, discovering the city's vocations, valuing the culture and identity of the place and developing in its residents a sense of purpose, pride, and belonging.

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Biographical notes

Paula Malamud is a PhD researcher at Faculdade de Arquitetura, Universidade de Lisboa and also contributor investigator at CIAUD — Centro de Investigação em Arquitetura, Urbanismo e Design. She holds an MBA in marketing from IBMEC, Brazil, and was founder and director of a strategic design and marketing agency in Brazil, where for over 20 years had assisted, as a brand strategist and creative director, several multinational companies. Her research interests are on Place Branding and Design processes.

ORCID ID: 0000-0002-4426-154X

Ciência ID: 4416-E62C-4466

Address: Universidade de Lisboa, Rua Sá Nogueira, Polo Universitário do Alto da Ajuda, 1349-063 Lisboa, Portugal

Marco Neves. Assistant professor at the Faculty of Architecture, University of Lisbon, where he coordinates the Interaction Design Master's degree and <DIV>, Design, Interaction and Visualization research group. He has an Habilitation (Agregação) in Design, PhD in Design and a Communication Design degree. He is an effective researcher at the Center for Research in Architecture, Urbanism and Design (CIAUD) and his main research areas are interaction design, print media, communication design, information visualization and design research.

Ciência ID: E115-AA9C-E067

ORCID ID: 0000-0002-6311-8909

Address: Universidade de Lisboa, Rua Sá Nogueira, Polo Universitário do Alto da Ajuda, 1349-063 Lisboa, Portugal

Gabriel Patrocínio. Associate Professor at ISMAT Portimão (Portugal, 2019-), and also from UERJ (Brazil, 1993-), and former Director of ESDI/UERJ School of Design. PhD in Design Policies from Cranfield University (UK, 2013). Organizer & author of the book *Design & Development: Leveraging Social and Economic Growth through Design Policies* (first launched in Portuguese, 2015). Both this book and his PhD thesis received important design awards in Brazil. Has also been board member of design associations, curator, jury member for international design awards.

Ciência ID: CE12-0C05-E59

ORCID ID: 0000-0002-1726-6871

Address: R. Dr. Estevão de Vasconcelos 33a, 8500-724 Portimão, Portugal

Nation Branding: the impact of Surveillance on a country's reputation

*Nation Branding: o impacto da Vigilância
na reputação de um país*

Tarik AlHassan

Universidade do Minho, Centro de Estudos
Comunicação e Sociedade — CECS
t-7@outlook.com

Alexandre Duarte

Universidade do Minho, Centro de Estudos
Comunicação e Sociedade — CECS
alexuarte@me.com

Abstract: Nation branding is collected efforts conducted by governments, occasionally in collaboration with private sector, local and/or international agents. This is to communicate in cooperation with local and international media providers a particular shiny image about the country in order to be perceived positively by other nations and foreign citizens, this is, with the aim of political, social, and economic prosperity as an outcome of the positive brand. This image and/or reputation of a nation can be influenced positively or negatively by communications, after all, it is often about communications and information management. While policy making is an action that governments make, in corporation with the nation in some countries, and while this process has a heavy weight in the scale of nation branding according to Simon Anholt, 2003, 2009, and 2011, the recent leaks over the past few years about some governments' activities in terms of surveillance and privacy in the nation have been under the spotlight. More and more attention has been given to the subject, especially after Snowden's leak of the National Security Agency (NSA) in the United States, since then there have been some privacy concerns related to mass surveillance in some nations including, USA, Europe, UK, China, and other countries (Lyon, 2014). The paper explores how such activity could negatively affect a nation's reputable brand. This is by introducing mass surveillance concept and background, surveillance activities conducted by governments, and explore the given justifications of security, anti-crime, and terrorism, compare data and crime rate, and finally measure the credibility of the justification which in turn could positively or negatively influence a nation's brand and reputation.

Keywords: nation branding, county image, mass surveillance, governments' activities, nations' reputation

Resumo: A marca de um país compreende o conjunto de esforços realizado por governos, ocasionalmente em colaboração com o setor privado e agentes locais e/ou internacionais para comunicar uma imagem positiva sobre o país, a fim de ser percebida positivamente por outras nações e cidadãos estrangeiros, com o intuito da prosperidade política, social e económica. Embora a formulação de políticas seja uma ação que tem um peso importante na formulação da marca nacional (Anholt, 2003, 2009 e 2011), as fugas de informação recentes nos últimos anos, sobre as atividades de alguns governos em termos de vigilância e privacidade no país têm estado na mia da opinião pública mundial. Cada vez mais atenção tem sido dada ao assunto, especialmente após as revelações de Edward Snowden da National Security Agency (NSA) nos Estados Unidos e, desde então, tem havido muitas preocupações com a privacidade relacionadas com a vigilância em massa em alguns países, incluindo EUA, Europa, Reino Unido, China e outros (Lyon, 2014). Este artigo explora como tal atividade de vigilância massiva dos cidadãos pode afetar negativamente a marca e a reputação de um país. Com o conceito de vigilância em massa como plano de fundo, atividades de vigilância conduzidas por governos e a justificação dada de segurança, prevenção de crimes e terrorismo, foram comparados dados e taxas de criminalidade, de forma a medir a credibilidade dessas justificações que, por sua vez, podem influenciar positiva ou negativamente marca e reputação de uma nação.

Palavras-chave: branding territorial, imagem do país, vigilância em massa, controlo governamental, reputação do país

Introduction

Surveillance as a concept is defined as “systematic, routine, and focused attention to personal details for a given purpose such as management, influence, or entitlement” (Lyon, 2007, p. 2). When Snowden in June 2013 revealed the activities conducted by the United States Government — National Security Agency NSA agency in particular, together with the suspicious activities conducted by large corporations' surveillance operations, more and more attention has been paid to this subject (Lyon, 2014), in fact, Facebook the largest social media

platform has been charged multiple times of breaching trust and taking advantage of the users data for political, commercial, and social purposes. According to the Guardian newspaper Facebook was officially charged for conducting surveillance activities on users in 2018 (Caddwalladr & Harrison, 2018).

Snowden's leaks placed terms "bulk data" and "dragnet", "mass surveillance", "Big Data", and "state surveillance" under the international spotlight and privacy matters turned into an international case discussed by global media bodies with concerns from citizens from all over the world about privacy and freedom. As consequence, more and more studies have been conducted for privacy concerns including human rights organizations (Kathleen, 2016).

Furthermore, *Privacy International's* survey, "covering 47 countries, indicated that there had been an increase in surveillance and a decline in the performance of privacy safeguards, eight countries were rated as being 'endemic surveillance societies'. China, Malaysia and Russia scored lowest, followed jointly by Singapore and the United Kingdom, then jointly by Taiwan (Republic of China), Thailand and the United States (*Hosenball & Whitesides, 2013*).

Theoretical background

1. What is Big Data?

According to David Lyon (2014), Big Data suggests that size is its key feature. Massive quantities of data about people and their activities are indeed generated by big data practices and many corporate and government bodies wish to capitalize on what is understood as the Big Data boom.

Sources of data may be "thought of under three main headings each of which may be applied in surveillance contexts: directed, automated, and volunteered". Data in general includes calls, CCTV cameras, online personal use (internet browsing history) and other personal and private information about citizens (Kitchin, 2014, p. 1).

While exploring the type and amount of data monitored and perceived, the questions raised are overwhelming with no moral or effective answers from Governments, which brings citizens to the clear question by Snowden about the previous practices; "what kind of society do we want?" (Lupton, 2013).

"Mass surveillance is the intricate surveillance of an entire or a substantial fraction of a population in order to monitor that group of citizens" (Greere, 2020). This activity is carried out by government administrations, agencies, and/or private organizations to monitor citizens' activities through audio and/or video and/or data tracking. Regardless of the type of regimes, different governments called 'democratic' and the ones that are

the opposite are conducting similar activities within “legal” frameworks (Greere, 2020).

Since 2007, and according to *Privacy International*, more and more countries have increased the use of surveillance confronting a failure in the performance of privacy policies; this is in comparison with the past years. Throughout the world’s cities and capitals, millions of cameras are being added rapidly in all areas, back in 2007, Greece had the best rank in comparison with around 50 countries including, USA, UK, China, Russia, Thailand, Singapore, and many others (2007).

Furthermore, in 2013, a special report was issued exploring internet surveillance operations by ‘*Reporters Without Borders*’, the report highlighted the “grave violations of freedom” due to invasive monitoring activities conducted by the governments to monitor its citizens’ activities through internet monitoring and other data collected of other forms, the initial list of citizens freedom violation included Syria, Bahrain, Vietnam, China, and Iran.

The American Civil Liberties Union issued an article in 2013 warning the Americans from “a dark future where our every move, our every transaction, our every communication, and eventually our every thought, is recorded, compiled, and stored away, ready to be examined and used against us by the authorities whenever they want”, the article warned American citizens that the activity of mass surveillance will slowly be eliminating and freedom and democracy in the country, putting the United States to the same level of dictatorships and countries that lack democracy and free speech, this is sadly with the help of “Big corporations willing to become extensions of the surveillance state” (Edwards, 2013).

According to Eck & Hatz (2020), state surveillance, and other acts of data gathering, information management, and processing of personal and private data are “distinct tactics that are components of a more general strategy, which we label information control. Information control tactics differ in how control is achieved, as well as in the types of information that are controlled. A government may use these tactics individually or in tandem, and it may change its strategy over time”.

“State surveillance can include the monitoring of online activity, location tracking via Bluetooth or Global Positioning System (GPS), tracking financial transactions, video surveillance, facial scans, and the collection of biometric data” (Eck & Hatz, 2020).

The justification for any Government towards the act of surveillance is always linked to “security” and “fighting or anti-terrorism”, the answer is clear and ‘reasonable’ especially for those who are “pro surveillance advocates” (Conniry, 2016, p. 23). However, is it the real reason? If it was, is it solid enough to invade the privacy of citizens and to transfer a free country such as the United States into a dictatorship? (Edwards, 2013) Furthermore, through his article “*The Most Surveilled Cities in The World*”, Mathew Keegan explored the most surveilled cities in the world where data exposed that nine cities in China and London in the UK are the most surveilled cities on the planet (2020). Keegan also added that the world will be covered by more than one billion cameras by 2021 (2020).

In 2011, Adam Moore highlighted the “just trust us” concept, questioning and requesting to balance the importance of security on one hand and citizens’ privacy on the other. Moore examined the US Government’s reasons to perform surveillance, this includes security matters, terrorism, and safety of citizens, at the same time, Moore also invited the officials in “power” to take citizens privacy on a similar scale of importance due to constitutional, moral, and legal concerns (pp. 146 — 148).

2. Examples of Government Surveillance

2.1. China

On March second, 2021, The Center of Security and Emerging Technology published a paper on China’s latest surveillance program called “Sharp Eyes”, the program is aimed to monitor 100% of China’s population (*Gershgorn, 2021, p. 2*). *Greshgorn described the project’s background; it was launched in 2016 by the Government with the aim to have a full surveillance on its citizens by 2021, it is claimed that the project has reached its target. Furthermore, the data collected on Chinese citizens is not only from CCTV cameras, but also internet data, and other audio and visual data as a part of the whole “security” plan by the government to monitor the community. On the other hand, the clarification of why China has the highest number of cameras on the planet along with the most developed artificial intelligence software is due to the lack of number of police in Chinese towns, having almost “300 officers to every million citizens” therefore, the need for this program is severe to maintain security.*

*The article also described the future expansion of this five years plan to similar new one stating that more power and control will be given to governments through this program, China’s next five-year plan, which covers 2021 to 2025, places specific emphasis on giving social governance to local municipalities via the grid system, as well as building out even more security projects, to strengthen construction of the prevention and control system for public security. “This means the future of China’s surveillance apparatus likely looks a lot like Sharp Eyes: More power and social control given to local governments, so neighbors watch neighbors” (*Gershgorn, 2021, p. 4*).*

It is not surprising to know that the so called ‘police state’ conducts surveillance and spying activity on its citizens. Amongst other elements such as regime style and other policies internally China loses advanced positions in the nation brand rank despite being the world’s manufacturer and economy playground of the entire world, this is on top of not having a powerful weapon (media), which is controlled by its competitor USA. The United States is always highlighting China’s internal policies in a negative coverage, which in turn affects the Chinese global brand.

2.2. The United States of America

According to Conniry (2016, p. 4) “legislative acts and measures regarding US surveillance can be dated as far back on the country’s conception but took dramatic turns in the early 20th century in the advent of communication advancements and the onset of the two World Wars”. Focusing on the post 9/11 era and what happened inside the United States from mass surveillance acts, it was noticeable that the surveillance operations and the cooperation on gathering data between public agencies and government administrations have risen post the most famous attack in the century, these operations were conducted under the cover of security and anti-terrorism, especially after the war in both Afghanistan and Iraq, all types of surveillance, data collection, monitoring, email and phone calls wires/spying and other acts were committed (Conniry, 2016, p. 9). This, until date, has divided the nation into “pro surveillance advocates” and “anti-surveillance advocates” in the country, while the government is passing more laws to legalize the surveillance operations (Conniry, 2016).

While using all its global media arms and tools to promote itself as the land of freedom and the nation that respects human rights the most on this planet, adding to that its efforts to point out non-democratic activities conducted by other Governments such as Iran, Russia, China, and many others, the United States Government showed no difference in invading its citizens privacy similarly to nations that are called in US Media dictatorships. Such activities made different media and community segments internally criticize this act against the US Government, however, until date, no ‘serious’ action was made to prevent or stop surveillance and privacy invasion against US citizens, in fact, the procedure is expanding further. Such reputation has influenced the position of the United States globally in the eyes of people who believe in freedom and who come from backgrounds of respecting human rights and privacy.

While nation branding relies heavily on communications, and while the United States has access to and/or control over global media, more and more activists and communities are discovering that USA brand is gaining negative influence through the hypocrite action of pointing out surveillance activities other governments are conducting while using the excuse of anti-terrorism or security to validate its action.

3. The Pro-Surveillance Perspective

While the argument is on one hand exposing an act that is invasive by governments and affecting society’s freedom, Governments justified the mass surveillance activity as a procedure to fight crime, increase safety measurements, and fight terrorism.

One way to evaluate the ‘efforts’ in this case shall be evaluating the ‘level of security’ in the countries that have surveillance the most, how much surveillance cameras have helped to

prevent crime, fight terrorism, and defend society especially those societies that had privacy invasion issues.

Different global sources including global indexes were explored in order to evaluate the safety and security of nations. The most surveilled countries in the world China and UK did not appear in the top 10 safest cities in the world, the safest Chinese city Wuxi appeared on the table in the 14th rank. London, the 3rd most surveilled city on the planet according to Edwards in 2020 was in the 73rd rank according to statistics from UN on safety and security index, and *Hudsons security index*.

“*Hudson’s Index UK* collects data from United Nation Office on Drugs and Crimes, regional police department statistics, Security risk & Political risk Index, World Risk Index by United Nations University Institute for Environment and Human, and Global Peace Index” (2020).

This leads to a suggestion that perhaps the use of surveillance and data monitoring either did not achieve its target, or, that these activities are inefficient enough, this is due to the incompatible rank in terms of security and safety globally.

As a result, the theory arguing that the surveillance is changing democracies such as UK, USA, Europe and many other countries into dictatorships shall be relevant as a result of the current outcome, the questioning of the ‘real reason’ behind these monitoring procedures by governments is driving more individuals, organizations, and agencies to question the sincerity and efficiency.

When it comes to nation branding the competencies rely heavily on different aspects including the communications in the nation itself and external communications about this specific nation. According to Simon Anholt one of the major aspects for a good nation brand is internal policies and procedures that create confidence in the system (Anholt, 2009). However, with the current unjustified privacy invading activities conducted by most governments, the “system” is becoming controversial (Edwards, 2013).

4. Nation Branding

Before we start in the theory and background of nation branding, one question could clarify the concept for the reader, in terms of a country’s reputation.

What is the impression that comes to the mind when reading or hearing about these countries: Syria, Iran, Iraq, Egypt, UAE, Bahrain, Afghanistan, Mali, China, and Russia? On the other hand, what is the first idea that comes to the mind when reading or hearing about Canada, Switzerland, Norway, Australia, Germany, Finland, and previously USA and UK? Whether the impression is negative or positive, it is important to highlight that the different perceptions built mentally while reading these questions are a consequence of a long-term

branding, communication, news, theory, political, social, and economic events, efforts, and operations conducted over the past few years.

It is argued academically and historically that nations have always had “brands”, “images”, and or “reputations”, even before the formal birth of the term nation branding (Olins, 2002). It is believed that the current practices of nation branding are only a logical continuation of a historical and long-standing process (Anholt & Hildreth, 2004).

Whether the nation has built its own brand, developed purposely, or formed by local or foreign source such as word of mouth, trade, travel, international media, and or history, the nation’s brand or image “concept” has always been there since the beginning of history (Loo & Davies, 2006, p. 198).

Simon Anholt, being the pioneer of this field, argued at different places (Anholt, 2007, 2009), that the nation branding concept can be used to achieve national competitiveness through developing and increasing the nation brand equity, all they need to do is aligning their efforts to improve the identity and image of the nation through the application of strategic management.

4.1. Internal Policy Making (Government’s internal procedures in the nation)

Simon Anholt defined nation branding as “the systematic process of aligning the actions, behaviors, investments, innovations and communications of a country around a clear strategy for achieving a strengthened competitive identity”; Anholt arguably gives the majority of value in nation branding on policy making and internal practices (2011, p. 12). According to Stahlberg and Bolin (2016), if the nation is constructed as a collective community in relation to political legitimacy and citizenship, it becomes a competitive brand in a challenging global economy today. Kungman (1996) remarked that there is a “crucial different” between large organizations or a company, and a nation, therefore, the weight of policy and or communication is still arguable between the researchers. Furthermore, Nye (2004) also believed that the Soviet Union had a great deal of soft power and reputation, however, it all declined due to its brutal internal policies

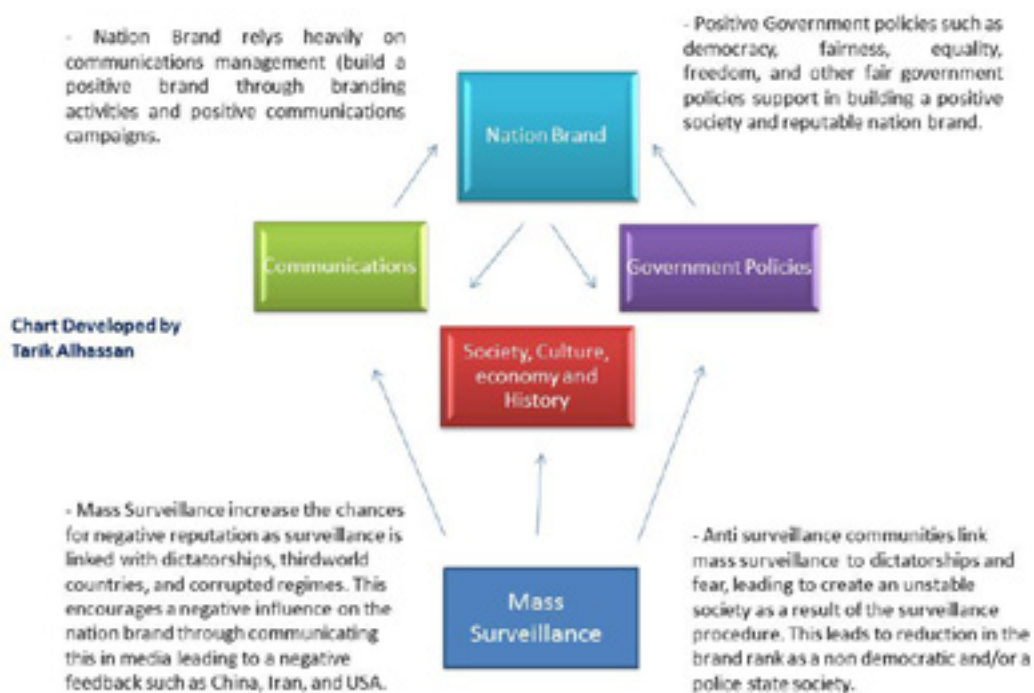
4.2. Policy Making versus Communications power on shaping nation’s brand:

Although some authors’ trend is pro-policy making for a better nation brand such as Simon Anholt, Bolin, and Sahlberg and others, there are, on the other hand, authors such as Kotler, Gudjonsson, that believe in the importance of communications. According to Gudjonsson (2005), the definition of nation branding is concerned with image promotion and

image promotion is identified as the ultimate goal. The same author believes that nation branding occurs when a government or a private company uses its power to persuade whoever has the ability to change a nation’s image. The “persuasion” is through communication tools to “alter” the image of a nation and or change the perspective, stereotype, or impression about a particular nation positively, this is with the ambition of achieving political, financial, and or political objectives According to O’shaughnessy (2000), some are cautious to see the applicability of nations as brands when it is “commonly accepted”.

4.3. How Would Mass Surveillance Influence a Nation’s Brand?

The relationship can be determined through the following chart, the information on mass surveillance and nation branding main pillars (communications + government policies) have been collected, studied, and analyzed, and potentially, the following relationship is found:



In the case of a nation having a negative reputation due to unethical practices by governments including tightening freedom, surveillance, spying on citizens, dictatorships, corruption, and or extreme cases when governments kill their own citizens due to freedom of speech, this can create a negative word of mouth, negative communications, and indeed it is a result of a negative government policy, in this case the outcome is not positive.

The example of the United States in terms of its way of promoting itself as the land of freedom and respect for humanity is no longer valid after Snowden's leaks. While the United States publicly criticizes nations such as Iran, China, and Russia for oppressing citizens and deprivation of freedom, the United States did lose a lot of credibility internally and externally due to its lack of sincerity.

According to *The Cato Institute* (2020) the United States and the UK didn't made it in top 10 nations of human freedom rank in the past years. Therefore, having the US, UK, and other European countries in low ranks when it comes to freedom, democracy, and or human rights, this automatically reduces the "soft power" mentioned earlier as a gain of a 'positive nation brand', the US shall no longer point a finger at China, Iran, Syria, North Korea, and / or any other government in issues related to these subjects when they are not reputable in the field.

Conclusion

Mass surveillance practices by governments (democratic or dictatorships) have massively increased over the past few years, some were conducted secretly in governments claiming to be democratic (UK and USA) and this was exposed through the famous Snowden's leaks. Other practices are so openly announced by governments creating full nation surveillance programs such as the Sharp Eyes Program in China. While 'security' is the usual answer for such activities, and this answer is supported by pro-surveillance advocates, others find it invasive and an unacceptable exercise in democratic countries giving an impression that these democracies are turning into police states, as a result, losing a lot of its credibility as a nation and therefore lose an advance location due to the reputation of these acts.

The point of conducting efforts of having a good nation brand is to successfully gain soft power, international investors, skilled immigrants, tourists, and many other benefits (Kungman, 1999). When the country starts to have a reputation of oppression or governments with negative reputation, this shall negatively influence the efforts to shine as a good brand.

Although the subject does not have any theory to support this link, however, the link between both can be tracked in the policy making and communications segments. Communications and policy making seem to be the main pillars in nation branding, governments with spying, surveillance, and monitoring, and or any other term given to this practice seem to gain negative reputation, when this reputation is linked to a county, this also shall reduce the appeal about that country in terms of visitors, tourists, investors, and / or skilled immigrants. Iran, North Korea, and China for instance are famous for their surveillance activities; as a result, this was reflected on the brand North Korea, Iran or China.

An American colleague found this topic interesting in terms of the relationship between surveillance and nation branding and voluntarily shared her experience while

visiting North Korea, stating that although seeing surveillance cameras is normal in Europe, however, the way and the amount of cameras in North Korea in public and private spots gave an impression of a “police state” and this definitely would stop her from visiting the country again and would rather to volunteer to teach English in other countries where feeling safer and “less monitored”.

Again, the relationship might not be a solid cause and effect type however communicating such information about countries would play a huge role in nation or place branding. When tourists visit a city and they find it welcoming, safe, and free, a recommendation will be made to their social network with an advice to visit this city; the same will happen when the experience is negative, North Korea case mentioned earlier can be a relevant example for countries aiming to recruit tourists, investors, talented immigrants and these are some of the main gains for a good nation brand along with other political and economic influence.

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Biographical notes

Tarik AlHassan. PhD student at the Universidade Católica Portuguesa. Researcher at CECC.

ORCID ID: 0000-0002-0221-3240

Address: Palma de Cima, Edifício Reitoria, 1649-023 Lisboa, Portugal

Alexandre Duarte. With a PhD in Communication Sciences from University of Minho, a Master's degree in Communication & Image and a degree in Marketing & Advertising by IADE, Alexandre is the Ruler of various classes in Universidade Católica Portuguesa and in IADE/Universidade Europeia, visiting Professor in several Universities, developer of the Research Unit CECS from Universidade do Minho, and Course Coordinator of OFICINA de PORTFOLIO™. Throughout his career, Alexandre also had the opportunity to work for several multinational advertising agencies, in Portugal and Brazil, such as TBWA, Saatchi & Saatchi, Ogilvy, W/Portugal, W/Brazil, Lowe&Partners, or BrandiaCentral as a Senior Creative Copywriter and teach.

Ciência ID: 3819-8239-4DA5

ORCID ID: 0000-0002-2665-864X

Address: Instituto de Ciências Sociais — Universidade do Minho Campus de Gualtar — Edifício 15, 4710-057 Braga, Portugal

Coleção ICNOVA

Coord.
Ana Margarida Barreto
João Freire
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