ABSTRACT

Understanding Nation Branding: A “New Nationalism” in Germany

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Graduate School of Arts and Sciences
Brandeis University
Waltham, Massachusetts

By Cocomma Bassey

This thesis is a study of the phenomenon of nation branding, its relation to public diplomacy in international relations, and how the practice has been implemented in the Federal Republic of Germany. Methodologically, it uses scholarly literature, media sources, and publications from non-governmental organizations to examine the translation of nation branding into real world situations.

A historical analysis of Germany is used to examine how the nation has dealt with its identity in the past. This is contrasted with the manner in which nation branding has aided the redevelopment of German identity since its 1990 reunification – both internally among its citizens, as well as externally from foreign perspectives. This thesis posits that although nation branding on its own has its limits, it has undoubtedly served as a very positive influence on Germany’s identity, all the while giving rise to a new form of German nationalism that has been more widely accepted on the global sphere.
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INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In an effort to foster international cultural relations (ICR), many modern-day states have adopted ICR policies, which have been collectively termed “public diplomacy”. Public diplomacy differs from traditional diplomatic practices in that interactions are no longer strictly limited to take place between governments and political nation state representatives. Instead, public organizations, corporations and even individuals become actors in international relations by means of participation in the global media and market, thereby directly influencing government policies.

An abridged description defines public diplomacy as “the construction of a ‘national culture’ by projecting such culture outward” (Aoki-Okabe et al., 212). There are various practices that fall under and are associated with public diplomacy, but the one practice this thesis focuses on is nation branding – a marketing practice, borrowed from the corporate business world. The aim of nation branding is to build, manage and improve a country’s image. This is done through tourism campaigns and placing symbolic value on export products and services in order to encourage foreign direct investments, trade, tourism and political alliances. These popular exports and tourist attractions become key features each country is known for, allowing for each nation to hone in on their strengths and portray them in a positive light. In addition to a country’s exports, however, there are other aspects of a nation’s image that are less easy to control, such as its history, depiction in the media, and the general conduct of its
citizens overseas. This paper examines the current practice of modern-day international relations; specifically in regards to nation branding, and the means by which the media and global economy have become the biggest parts of a nation’s identity. This is definitely a stark contrast to the early formative concept of the state, which was characterized by territorial conquests and monarchical leaders.

The democratic peace theory, which was founded on Immanuel Kant’s “Perpetual Peace,” written in 1795, states that democratic countries will not go to war with each other, and the world will not know “perpetual peace” until every country adopts a similar political system of democracy. Provided one agrees to adopt what is widely perceived as the “western standards” of the definition of democracy, this theory has seemed to ring true, as there has been no record of international violence outbreaks between developed nations since the end of World War II. The global migration from the use of “hard power” to that of the more humane and diplomatic “soft power” coincides with the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights; states are now prompted into finding more civil ways to pursue their own interests. This paper takes a look into some of these soft power methods, and analyses the effectiveness of adopting this less controversial approach to international relations.

Given Germany's notorious history, and the vast strides it has made in terms of its positive political and economic influence on the global sphere, the nation serves as a prime case study for effective country branding. Germany's public diplomacy strategies have served both internal and external purposes – internally by way of assisting the country to develop and restore a positive national identity, and externally by encouraging higher rates of tourism, foreign direct investments and exports. The current German state that we know of today is relatively young; its current physical
borders were established less than 20 years ago with the 1990 reunification, and ideas of German nationalism have begun to migrate away from the ethnocentrism towards the civic – where citizenship is defined by law, not one’s ethnic background. As Germany is a nation that has struggled with its identity in the past, this paper seeks to study the methods of nation branding that Germany has implemented in the recent past, and how these practices have helped the nation develop the strong identity it has today.
1.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The key to carrying out this study effectively is to clearly map out the scope of nation branding. First, I will outline a detailed background of public diplomacy as a practice in international relations, after which I will focus on scholarly analyses of nation branding. In using Germany as my primary case study, the main interest of my research is directed towards the following questions:

- How is nation branding practiced in Germany, and who are the main actors in this practice?
- What is the desired effect of nation branding in Germany? How has this end goal been addressed?
- To what extent has branding been an effective practice in improving the German image in the global arena? What is left to be desired?

Based on my research, I believe it will be seen that while nation branding has had very positive effects on the global perception of Germany, there are still aspects of the German identity that cannot simply be “fixed” through a marketing campaign. The freedom of the press, as well as the effect of governmental policies still play a major role in the formation of national identity, and it is important that this is understood, lest taxpayers’ money is spent on launching marketing campaigns that will have little to no effect on a country's global standing.

Nevertheless, this paper will show that nation branding has ignited a new form of German nationalism, one that has moved away from the ethnocentric interpretation
of German identity to include a broader demographic that is a more accurate representation of modern-day German society.
1.3 **RESEARCH METHODS**

Data collected for this thesis primarily consisted of an analysis of academic publications, which was then compared to real-life applications of nation branding as seen in the media, qualitative nation branding reports, and nation branding campaigns.

Media sources include online archived news stories, most of which are from the German *Spiegel* newspaper and article excerpts that were used in some of the scholarly publications I found in my research. The reports on nation brand rankings were found through two international organizations that specialize in nation branding: FutureBrand, Inc. and GfK Group (Gesellschaft für Konsumforschung). Annual reports are published on each respective website.

A comprehensive list of Germany-specific nation branding campaigns was obtained through nation branding specialist, Dr. Keith Dinnie’s published book, *Nation Branding: Concepts, Issues, Practices*, and detailed information on each specific campaign was available on the each campaign’s respective website, as well as through some of the publications of the campaign initiator and partner entities. This thesis will make use of both the qualitative and quantitative data obtained, although, given the relative novelty of nation branding in international relations, a much stronger emphasis will be placed on analyzing information in a social, cultural and historical context.
In order to gain some specific background information about recent research on public diplomacy and nation branding, I established a connection with the Berlin-based Institute of Cultural Diplomacy (ICD). This non-governmental organization is focused on the strengthening and supporting of international intercultural relations, and they host a series of conferences and speaker panels on some of the contemporary issues related to cultural diplomacy. Through their numerous conferences, the ICD is in possession of a wide range of scholarly publications centered on the subject of public diplomacy. This provided a lot of the background information I was looking for, and assisted me in the formation of my thesis question.

One of the things I found to be quite odd is the fact that, in comparison to the availability of information on the concepts of public diplomacy and nation branding, there is not a lot of investigation into the practical applications of each concept in international relations. In other words, the understanding of nation branding and public diplomacy is still largely in its theoretical stage, with not much information on how these practices are being implemented from one nation to the next. That being said, I believe this thesis to be very experimental in nature, the content of which can be added to or changed as quickly as communications technology and international politics evolve.
PUBLIC DIPLOMACY & NATION BRANDING

2.1 DEFINING AND UNDERSTANDING PUBLIC DIPLOMACY

If there is one thing that scholars of the public diplomacy field can agree on, it is the fact that the term “public diplomacy” lacks a unanimous definition, as its scope and limitations are contested and redefined constantly. Public diplomacy is closely associated with the practice of cross-cultural communications, and as technology has evolved to facilitate faster and broader international communications, public diplomacy has grown with it to the point that the lines have been blurred and the two terms have almost become synonymous. A number of questions have arisen as people seek to define the concept of public diplomacy: how does it differ from public and international relations? Is it merely a euphemism for “propaganda,” a term that more democratized nation states tend to shy away from? If public diplomacy is, in fact, nothing more than global communications, are we actually exploring a new concept at all? (Gregory, 275)

The definition of the term “public diplomacy” as we know it today dates back to 1965 when it was coined by Edmund Guillion, former U.S. ambassador and dean at Tufts University, who was seeking to put a more positive spin on the general concept of “propaganda” – a concept that has gained so many negative connotations as a result of the past authoritarian governments and the World War era (Cull, 2). Guillion defined public diplomacy as:

“the influence of public attitudes on the formation and execution of foreign policies. It encompasses dimensions of international relations beyond traditional
diplomacy . . . [including] the cultivation by governments of public opinion in other countries; the interaction of private groups and interests in one country with those of another . . . [and] the transnational flow of information and ideas.” (Crane, 787)

This interpretation of public diplomacy dates back to the Cold War era, and given the strong distinction between the values of the capitalist and communist powers, one can only imagine the need to define the phenomenon of countries frozen in conflict without physically going to war against each other. This was definitely a novel occurrence following the actively violent events of World War I and II.

Guillion’s definition states that public diplomacy encompasses and goes beyond “traditional diplomacy,” which begs the question of where exactly the line between traditional and public diplomacy can be drawn. The general belief is that traditional diplomacy tends to limit itself to interactions between governments only, thereby leaving out a vast majority of the country’s population. Government leaders and representatives speak on behalf of citizens, and it is to be assumed that they have the people’s best interests in mind, even though the idea of one man equally representing thousands, even millions, of people seems to be completely unrealistic. Public diplomacy bridges the gap between the government and the masses by allowing non-governmental entities to become actors as well – as evidenced by the influence ascertained by community action groups, freedom of the international press, and the largely uninhibited exchange of information made possible by advances in technology.

On the other hand, some argue that there is no distinction to be made between traditional and public diplomacy – that they are one and the same, with governments serving as the primary actors. To put it in context, Szondi states that American public diplomacy has gone through stages, which can be identified by distinct changes in the
global political environment and its impact on the U.S., such as the events of the Cold War, the fall of the Berlin Wall and 9/11 (Szondi, 3). In each case, the most significant outcomes and reactions to events took place at a governmental level, and the scope and strategy of action changes with each event, as countries encounter interactions with new cultures, geographies and languages. Government plans of action include realigning international alliances, strengthening national security and adjusting measures in market liberalization, thereby affecting various demographics to varying degrees.

This discrepancy in the understanding of public diplomacy is the reason why a concrete definition of the term is yet to take hold. Given the lack in focus, it is difficult to implement public diplomacy as an effective tool in international relations, as one can imagine the difficulty in attempting to make reference to a concept that lacks a unanimous comprehension (ibid). For the sake of this research paper and as a generalized deduction from the scholarly publications, without firmly taking sides of either of the aforementioned views, we can perceive public diplomacy as the practice of international open communications and the management of public opinions about a country, with the aim of maintaining political stability and a positive reputation in the global sphere.

In this post-war era¹, public diplomacy has become increasingly relevant as it represents a shift in methods used in international relations. This shift is characterized by the progression from the hostile, aggressive use of military and economic coercion, to a less intrusive method of power acquisition by attraction, through the spread of

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¹ For the purpose of this argument, the term “post war” aligns with the western point of view, defined as the period of time since the end of World War II.
cultural and cooperative ideas. In international relations, this change in dynamic is the foundation for the differentiation between hard and soft power, where hard power is defined as a nation state's employment of forceful measures to pursue its own interests, while soft power relies on a nation's appeal and influence.

Founder of the neoliberal school of thought, Joseph Nye, coined the term “soft power” and describes it as “the ability to attract, [which] often leads to acquiescence” (Nye, 6). The fact that soft power is measured by influence makes it intangible (as opposed to hard power's solid measures of economic and military gain), and thereby difficult to define, which provides a reason as to why a concrete definition for public diplomacy has not been agreed on as of yet. For comparison, the table below provides a comprehensive comparison between hard and soft power. The points listed under soft power also serve as a precursor to the understanding of the practice of nation branding, and also allows for one to see its strengths and limits.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hard Power</th>
<th>Soft Power</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ability to change others’ positions through force or inducement</td>
<td>Ability to shape the preferences of others by attraction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Military and economic power</td>
<td>Cultural power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coercion, force</td>
<td>Co-option, influence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absolute (easy to measure via economic growth and geographic acquisition)</td>
<td>Relative, context-based (a nation's soft power can be measured only in comparison to other countries)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tangible, easy to measure, predictable to a certain degree</td>
<td>Intangible, hard to measure, unpredictable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ownership-specified</td>
<td>Unspecified, multiple actors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Controlled by state or organizations</td>
<td>Mostly non-state actors, multiple sources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct, immediate effect with possibility for short-term results</td>
<td>Indirect, delayed effect with long-term results</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manifested in foreign politics</td>
<td>Visibly communicated via nation branding</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Comparison of Hard and Soft Power (Fan, 22)
A country’s attraction comes from a variety of sources, including and going beyond any of the following: natural resources, economic standing, language and culture, education, healthcare, geographic location. The copiousness of any one or more of these resources, however, does not unfailingly indicate a high rate of attraction and therefore a nation state’s high abundance of soft power (Fan, 5). For example, the United States and Nigeria are both blessed with rich natural resources, but it can be easily agreed that they do not have the same degree of influential strength in the global sphere. Again, China and Japan have rich cultural resources, but they do not have the same type or level of soft power in international relations (ibid). An even more extreme example can be observed throughout most of Sub-Saharan Africa, where the presence of abundant natural resources has not done much to develop the countries’ political influence internally or externally – in fact, in some cases it has done the opposite, and the natural resources serve as a source of strife. These attractions, therefore, are not measures of soft power, but sources of potential soft power (ibid). It is therefore clear that unless a country knows how to efficiently make use of its strengths and play them up in such a way so as to portray itself globally in a positive light, these potentials can easily go to waste. Moreover, as seen from the Sub-Saharan African example, the development of soft power must begin internally, within the nation’s borders, before its effects can be felt externally. The conversion of these attractions, or cultural assets, into soft power and public diplomacy is where the practice of nation branding comes in.
2.2 THE RISE OF NATION BRANDING

As previously stated, nation branding is seen as the means by which countries can optimize their assets and gain power in international relations through the force of attraction. The thing about nation branding that makes it such an interesting concept in international relations is that it is a technique borrowed from the corporate business world – where marketing is used to sell products, increase customer loyalty and broaden consumer markets. That being said, what place does this consumption-driven practice have when we are talking about the manner in which countries relate with each other, and how is it changing the international political sphere?

Leslie de Chertanony, a professor of Brand Marketing, states that there are three main reasons a country would want to engage in nation branding: to attract tourists, to stimulate inward investments, and to boost exports (Dinnie, 2008). In other words, a country wants to be admired, which can be measured (to a certain extent) by the number of tourists it receives on an annual basis; it wants economic stability, evidenced through people’s confidence in investments; and it wishes to make a distinctive contribution to the global market, which can be proven by the global demands for the country’s exports. These three objectives, however, seem to be very market-driven, and they therefore do not seem to capture the entire scope of international relations. In an advanced country like Germany, which already sits comfortably at a high level of economic and technological development, there must be other motives behind the need to portray a nation in a positive light.
Other peripheral aims that de Chernatony brings to light, which go beyond economic incentives, are the need to attract talent – highly educated and skilled workers. Several developed countries are faced with the problem of an aging population, and there is need to recruit labor from overseas (Geddes, 2002). Transitional countries, such as the former Soviet territories of Central and Eastern Europe, use nation branding as a tool to highlight their new image, thus distancing themselves from their former economic and political associations (ibid), and differentiate themselves from other countries in terms of culture and production.

One of the points previously brought up about public diplomacy and nation branding, and perhaps a point that arguably differentiates nation branding from corporate marketing, is the fact it needs to be transparent in order for it to be a successful campaign. Although nation branding is regarded as an image-promotion practice, the increasingly growing efficiency of global news broadcasting and the universal availability of information does not really allow for the spread of one-sided exaggerated information and falsehood. Simon Anholt, the first scholar and a leading world consultant on the nation branding practice, spoke about the reality of nation branding. It is not a quick-fix for a nation's image problems, and simply pumping money into a marketing campaign is nothing more than a waste of money:

“I am dumbstruck by the naïveté of governments who think that people are going to change their minds about a country they are totally indifferent to just because of some... advertisement.” (quoted in Rice, 2010)

Nation branding must not be confused with propaganda; it is only successful when the “brand” is lived by the citizens of that country. The freedom of the press and the efficiency of today's communication technologies do not to allow for governments
and private public relations agencies to promulgate exaggeratedly positive information, especially when reality does not reflect the message accurately. Again, Anholt defends this point of view:

“Country branding occurs when the public speaks to the public; when a substantial proportion of the population of the country – not just civil servants and paid figureheads – gets behind the strategy and lives it out in their everyday dealing with the outside world.” (quoted in Szondi, 2008)

That being said, and in regard to the previous example of Sub-Saharan African countries not being able to effectively make use of their natural resources to project a positive nation brand, these less-developed countries must target their nation branding inwards, in order to boost morale and enhance nation building by encouraging unity, pride and development. The societal problems plaguing a vast majority of the Sub-Saharan African population clearly go beyond what a simple nation branding campaign can fix, but this absence of a nation brand is definitely one of the reasons why these countries fail to establish strong national identities like those recognized in North America and Europe.

If we look at the effects of nation branding in terms of its contribution to a country’s increased revenue and/or favorable global perception, it may be quite difficult to identify the extent to which a country’s brand actually affects these variables. However, borrowing from the corporate business field, a number of parallels can be drawn. A product’s country of origin plays quite an important role in its global demand and supply, as evidenced by a detailed study carried out at the Copenhagen Business School (Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2001), which revealed that products labeled “Made in Germany” have higher sales and are more attractive to consumers due to Germany’s
reputation of economic efficiency, quality production and financial security – as contrasted with other countries such as China, which is known for its cheaper production costs and quality. Beyond its effect on production and exports, however, nation branding capitalizes on the entirety of a country’s identity, which can be subdivided into the following dimensions (Kalamova & Konrad, 2010):

- **Tourism**: Perception of a country’s natural and man-made resources
- **Governance**: Perception of governing style and role in nation building
- **Capital and Labor flows**: General perception of the country’s economic conditions, and a business’ willingness to invest in the economy
- **Culture and People**: Represents the attractiveness of a country’s media, history, language and society

From these points it is clear that unlike corporate branding, whose primary objective is to promote the consumption of goods and services, nation branding is a sum total of the day to day standard of living in any given country. Corporate branding is a one-way communication: the company disseminating information to potential consumers and investors. On the other hand, given the developments in media technology, international freedom of the press, and nation branding’s heavy reliance on public perception, we have a situation where the branding process is reciprocal. A country can attempt to present itself to the world in a certain light, but ultimately, its projected qualities are dependent on its true qualities – the latter being propagated through the public’s personal experiences and the news made available by means of global media. In order for a country to brand itself effectively, it must build its brand based on its true qualities, and somehow find a way to portray itself in such a way as to
improve its public perception. This creates a cyclical, co-dependent effect as pictured below:

![Diagram showing the cyclical nature of nation branding](image)

**Figure 1: “Living the Brand” The cyclical nature of nation branding**

From this, we can deduce that nation branding can be interpreted as the practical application of the imagined national identity. As a matter of fact, it can be argued that long before the active practice of nation branding, countries were already de facto brands, constantly subjected to the opinions and reputations created by the general public (Aronczyk, 2008). The only difference is that now, governmental efforts are being made to participate in the public discussion, in order to contribute a hand at molding and controlling the national image.

“Interestingly there is nothing particularly novel about the concept of branding the nation. Only the word ‘brand’ is new. National image, national identity, [and] national reputation are all words traditionally used in this arena and they don’t seem to provoke the same visceral hostility as the word ‘brand.’ Although the technologies are new and infinitely more powerful and pervasive than ever before, and the word ‘brand’ is also new, the concepts which it encompasses are as old as the nation itself. (Olins, 2003)”
Given this particular understanding of nation branding, it is clear that a country's brand is not the responsibility of one entity alone – whether that entity is the government, non-governmental organizations, PR firms or individuals. However, in calling the branding process a “practice,” we insinuate that concrete actions are being taken, which means that we need to understand the process by which a nation branding campaign takes place.

The four steps of the nation branding process are well defined in a study conducted at New York University (Aronczyk, 2008) as follows:

- **Evaluation**: What are the current perceptions of a country?
- **Training**: What about the current perception needs to be altered, and how (What is the message of the campaign)?
- **Identification**: By what means can this new message be effectively communicated to the public?
- **Implementation & Communication**: Putting the campaign to work and analyzing its successes and/or failures

The interest in the nation branding campaign is a diffusion process. It begins at the concentrated government level, which identifies the need for a change in perception. This then moves to the private and/or public sector, which drafts the marketing campaign plan. Private PR companies that specialize in country brands are known to be hired for this planning process, although, as we will see in the German case study, government offices and organizations are capable of making meaningful contributions to this process as well. As the marketing plan is executed, the branding process moves to the hands of the people. “The people” are subdivided into the country’s citizens, who validate, perpetuate and live the brand (provided the marketing
plan truly reflects the nation’s true qualities), and the rest of the international community, whose change in perception indicates the ultimate success of the branding campaign.
2.3 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PUBLIC DIPLOMACY AND NATION BRANDING

As if the debate over the unanimous definitions of public diplomacy and traditional diplomacy is not enough, there are also various theories and understandings of the relationship between public diplomacy and nation branding. Although both terms are concerned with managing a nation's international images, public diplomacy and nation branding seem to have issues with their own images, and the manner in which different international relations scholars understand each of these terms in relation to each other. Are nation branding and public diplomacy basically the same concept, or do they concern themselves with completely different areas of study? And if they are different, in what nature and to what extent do they overlap, if at all? The different theories and viewpoints are outlined by international public relations expert, Gyorgy Szondi (Szondi, 2007), and clarified as follows:

**Nation Branding and Public Diplomacy as completely different concepts:**
From this point of view, public diplomacy is viewed as a two-way communication between countries on political grounds, while nation branding is the unilateral information dissemination from one entity to a global audience, primarily with the aim of economic maximization.

According to this understanding, nation branding tends to the final aim of economic profit maximization, which is done by differentiating a certain country from others, in the hopes of gaining a competitive advantage in the global market. By creating awareness of the uniqueness of a country's culture, people and economic
strengths through branding, there is a greater chance for increased consumer demand, leading to the country's specialization in particular market sectors of tourism and trade.

Public diplomacy, on the other hand, functions in direct opposition to nation branding. While nation branding capitalizes on a country's unique differences, public diplomacy attempts to identify similarities and parallels between a certain country and the rest of the global sphere, in order to ease political bilateral relations and allow for access to the benefits of international partnerships. A great example of this was seen when Eastern European countries were attempting to gain access to the European Union, by trying to conform to the societal and economic standards set by the Western European nations.

**Nation Branding and Public Diplomacy as overlapping concepts:** There are varying ways in which this view can be conceived. Public diplomacy can be seen as part of nation branding, in which case concepts of branding and marketing are be applied to public policy. From this point of view, a nation brand uses the political aspect of public diplomacy as only one part of the entire branding campaign. Practical applications of this approach can be seen through national governments' hiring of branding consultants, who specialize in country promotion, in order to introduce a concrete strategy to an international relations agenda and to provide a broader audience for input as well as feedback on a nation's public diplomacy programs, which can be analyzed through market research. However, it should be kept in mind that narrowing public diplomacy down to the slogans and symbolisms associated with nation branding may be too much of an oversimplification of what is actually a much broader concept.

From another point of view, the roles are reversed, and nation branding can be seen as an instrument of public diplomacy – basically serving as the branch of public
diplomacy that is accessible to the general public, as opposed to the privacy of issues that are analyzed and solved at the governmental level. The fact that branding campaigns have a higher degree of visibility allows for countries to turn to nation branding in situations where they need to quickly raise international awareness or attempt to influence public opinion on particular issues. A contemporary example of this situation is illustrated by the rigorous nation branding campaigns adopted by Kazakhstan, following the release of the Sascha Baron Cohen’s international mock documentary film blockbuster “Borat.” Despite the fact that the nation is blessed with rich natural resources and a relatively stable government, the stereotypes shown in the film had a detrimental effect on Kazakhstan’s image due to the fact that the nation had neither developed a strong brand nor an easily-recognizable positive reputation. As a result of “Borat,” the Kazakh government and film industry attempted to rebrand itself by exporting movies that portrayed Kazakh society in a more realistic and positive light (Russell, 2012).

**Nation Branding and Public Diplomacy as synonymous concepts:** This model is arguably the most simplified of all three, due to the argument that by regarding both terms as the exact same concepts, one can easily overlook the differences in the nature and scope of both nation branding and public diplomacy. Public diplomacy has always had a more political connotation, while nation branding can be associated with the similar practices in the corporate business world. By simplifying these two terms and merging them under one common definition, it is harder to appreciate each concept in its fullness.

In an attempt to introduce a more advanced thought to this point of view, some scholars see nation branding the evolved product of public diplomacy, as opposed to the
two terms being simply synonymous. This perspective argues that with the increased availability of media and communications, the general public now plays as much of an important role as national governments in shaping public policy, so there is need for a new term that takes into account the role of the general public in the formation of national identity.
CASE STUDY: GERMANY

3.1 HISTORICAL OVERVIEW – “DIE DEUTSCHE FRAGE”

The Federal Republic of Germany, as we know it today, is a relatively young country when compared to similar western European nations. From its frequently-changing physical borders to its infamous quest for a national identity, it is safe to say that Germany has come a long way and has beaten quite a few odds to establish itself as a strong political and economic influence in international relations. Given the fact that it is currently one of the most financially-secure nations in Europe, with a strong export sector, stable and influential government and high standard of living, Germany arguably has one of the strongest nation brands in the world. Nevertheless, one cannot understand the present-day Germany without looking into the influence that its history has had on its present-day identity.

The German Question (die deutsche Frage) is one that has burdened the country for decades. The particulars of the question have evolved with time, but the core of the issue has always sought to find the solution to the same question: under what conditions is the German nation to be unified? Looking over Germany's history, one can see that in trying to find a solution to die deutsche Frage, the following sub-themes emerge:

- Who is a German?
- How far does German geographical territory reach?
- What is Germany's place in world economics and politics?
The first two questions have to do with Germany's internal perceptions of itself – how the German government and citizens choose to define themselves as a people, in terms of ethnicity, language and culture. Meanwhile the third question is, though likewise contingent on Germany’s development efforts, equally dependent on external international policy and judgment. A brief look into Germany's history illustrates how each of these questions has been answered over the past decades, and how the choices made throughout history have contributed to the creation of the current state of the Federal Republic of Germany.

The first time die deutsche Frage was officially used in scholarly records of Germany's history dates back to the fall of the Roman Empire around the early 1800s, which took place around modern-day Germany’s geographical region. After the dissolution of the empire, with the constituent territories left to their own devices, there was a debate on whether the German state was to include and be led by the southern Catholic Austria, an advantage of which was a vast expansion of German geographical territory. This option was commonly referred to as the “Großdeutschlösung” or the “Greater German solution” in reference to the greater territorial advantage of this option. However, the Austrian Empire also included non-German speaking territory as well, which went against the ideal vision of an ethnically homogenous German state. That being said, the second option would have been to exclude Austria from the German state, and instead be led under the second most influential territory within the German region - northern, Protestant Prussia. This alternative was known as the “Kleindeutschlösung” or the “Lesser German solution,” as it would not have offered as much geographic territory. The decision between these two choices in the founding of the German state was clearly divided along religious and ethnic lines, and as history
tends to repeat itself, it is no surprise that this division ultimately led to the Austro-
Prussian War in 1866. The war ended in Austria’s defeat and exclusion from what
became known as the North German Confederation, thus causing the Kleindeutschlösung
to prevail (Parkes, 1997).

In the wake of World War I, and the resulting Treaty of Versailles, the idea of
uniting all German-speakers under one national identity began to resurface. Although
the appropriation of Austria into German territory was in direct violation of the Treaty
of Versailles, the rise of this nationalistic sentiment can be partially attributed to the
Germans’ need to find a source of consolation through national unity following their
World War I defeat. With the Weimar Republic’s burden of paying war reparations and
the added economic and political instabilities from The Great Depression, it was the
ideal setting for a political upheaval. This ushered in a new regime; the German Third
Reich, which was led by the German National Socialist German Workers (Nazi) Party.

World War II and the events of the Holocaust make up the most infamous
moments of Germany’s entire history. Institutionalized xenophobia, perpetuated
through the dissemination of nationalist propaganda, was the main feature of this
political era, and this was a time when German nationality was strictly defined by
ethnicity. At this point, the solution to die deutsche Frage was to unify all ethnic
Germans under a highly exclusive national identity, at the ultimate expense of other
inhabitants of German and Austrian territories. One of the most popular slogans
propagated by the Nazi Party was, “One people, one nation, one leader!” (Ein Volk, ein
Reich, ein Führer!) The German plan of action was to conquer as much European

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2 The Weimar Republic was established during in the interwar period between World
War I and II, replacing Germany imperial form of government in 1919, and finally being
overtaken by the Nazi Party in 1933.
territory as possible, which was to be inhabited by a pure Aryan race, and this was not without its price. World War II is recorded as the most destructive conflict in the history of modern civilization.

Figure 2: 1938 propaganda containing the popular Nazi slogan: "Ein Volk, Ein Reich, Ein Führer" (Papiersammler, 2012)

By the end of the war, with Germany’s second defeat, there was a consensus that external political forces were needed, not only to contain Germany’s violent tendencies, but also to solve the German question of geographical boundaries once and for all. Territory captured by the Nazi party was returned to each respective nation, and the final remains of the German state was split and occupied by World War II’s victorious powers (Siegermächte): France, Russia, the United Kingdom and the United States. The opposing political influences from the west and east then caused Germany to split into two states, essentially independent of each other: the socialist, eastern German Democratic Republic and the western-influenced Federal Republic of Germany.

The fact that East Germany was lagging behind its western counterpart in terms of economic development and political freedom was the cause of a lot of instability in the German Democratic Republic. The reigning political party of West Germany, the Christian Democratic Union (CDU), was in strict opposition to East Germany. But by
1969 the Social Democratic Party (Sozialdemokratische Partei Deutschlands – SPD) took over with a new approach to internal relations. Under the direction of SPD leader Willy Brandt, West Germany adopted a more cooperative relationship with the east. Eventually, the democratic collapse of East Germany took place, and it was officially annexed into the Federal Republic of Germany on October 3, 1990. This led to the formation of the unified state we know as modern-day Germany (ibid).

While the final solution to the question of Germany’s geographical boundaries has arguably been determined (at least for the foreseeable future), the matter of defining German nationality and its place in global economics and politics remains indeterminate, as both concepts evolve with the shifts in international policy and the global market. That being said, it is interesting to analyze how and to what extent nation branding has played a role in defining German identity.
3.2 THE CONTEMPORARY GERMAN BRAND

Generally speaking and in comparison to most other developed countries, there is relatively little need for Germany to place a strong emphasis on attracting foreign investments and human capital. Amidst the current Eurozone financial crisis, Germany has stood out as the only country to have maintained its strong economic standing and remain unaffected by the global fluctuating credit ratings. As a matter of fact, the poor state of other European nations' financial markets has been somewhat positive for Germany, as investors are now diverting their assets from other countries into Germany, thereby allowing the country to benefit from lowered borrowing costs (Spiegel, 2012). German unemployment is at a record low and GDP is still on the rise, even while other European countries are entangled with seemingly-insurmountable levels of debt (The Economist, 2012).

In the case of underdeveloped countries, the incentive behind initiating a nation brand usually focuses on showcasing the country's economy and society in a positive light, with the ultimate aim of forging positive political alliances and increasing tourism and financial investments. That said, given the fact that Germany is economically stable and has attained a cooperative relationship with most of the democratized world, its need for a nation brand centers around its need to revamp its societal image. In 1999, German television network ZDF collaborated with public relations agency Wolff Olins to determine the general international perception of Germany. What was found was that Germany held a reputation for “mechanical perfection” – it had a strong economy, high-
quality exports and a stable government, but lacked the creativity, excitement and friendliness that some of the southern European countries embodied, e.g. Spain and Italy (Dinnie, 2008).

Germany’s cold character was further demonstrated through the slogans of some of its most popular exports, such as Audi’s “Vorsprung durch Technik” ³ and Dr. Oetker’s “Qualität ist der beste Rezept.” ⁴ Just as expatriates serve as ambassadors of their respective countries overseas, national exports also have a strong effect on a nation’s image. A study by Jaworski and Fosher theorizes that the success of Germany’s nation brand has mostly been built on the positive reputation of its exports (Jaworski & Fosher, 2003). That being said, a closer look at the messages that export products send is definitely essential to the full understanding of a country’s nation brand.

³ English translation, “Growth through (engineering) technology.”
⁴ English translation, “Quality is the best recipe (ingredient).”
3.3 **ANALYSING NATION BRAND INDICES**

There are a number of brand management organizations around the world, which are interested in the analysis and ranking of nation brands according to their strengths and representations of their respective countries. Due to the fact that the conclusions from these nation brand reports are subject to the judgment of each brand management organization, whose opinions vary greatly from one to the next, these nation brand ranking reports are not usually implemented or referred to on an official level. They do, however, serve as a useful source for comparative studies and analyzing the weaknesses in a nation’s brand image, especially when compared to other countries. That being said, it would mostly likely be more beneficial to study the qualitative content of these reports, instead of basing conclusions off of the actual rankings.

The table below lists the top 10 nation brands according to two consecutive reports from two different organizations. On one hand, we have FutureBrand, Inc. – a worldwide brand consultancy firm headquartered in London – and on the other hand, from Germany’s largest market research institute we have GfK Group (Gesellschaft für Konsumforschung). A simple glance at the table, and the vast differences in both organizations’ nation brand rankings, can assist one in understanding the extremely subjective nature of the study of nation branding.
As the table shows, there is great discrepancy in the results of the reports published by both of the above organizations, and a look into the methodology of data collection and analysis can shed some light upon how this occurred. GfK Group bases its findings on the average survey results of 20,337 respondents from 50 different countries, and the survey questions covered six different categories: exports, governance, culture, people, tourism and human and capital investments. FutureBrand’s findings, on the other hand, are based on the weighted average of 3,000 respondents from nine countries, along with the analysis of secondary sources and “expert opinion”.

Even though the quantitative results from both of these organizations vary to a high degree, there are several similarities in the analyses regarding the essence of the German nation brand. Germany ranks high in global and regional influence, a variable that was probably amplified to an even greater degree as a result of the country’s strong position and reputable economic stability amidst the Eurozone financial crisis. The

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5 Germany was listed #11 in the 2011-2012 edition of FutureBrand's nation branding report
effect of Germany’s position in the Euro crisis is yet to be fully understood, however, seeing as either the free market or the welfare of European citizens is at stake. Germany is basically faced with the choice of gratifying its European neighbors who are burdened with debt, or protecting the future of the Euro currency.

Beyond industry-related rankings, Germany received high scores in the following areas (FutureBrand, 2010 & 2012):

- Quality of life, safety
- Political freedom
- Healthcare, education, technological development
- Environmental friendliness
- Job opportunities, skilled workforce, market climate

Between the two reports, it was difficult to determine exactly what caused the vast discrepancies in Germany’s rankings. To determine this, it would be necessary to find out the content of both surveys and the manner in which the questions were asked and analyzed. Also, given that data collection methods were so different, personal subjectivity must have played a major role on the outcome of both studies. The important thing to take away from both of these publications, though, is that they seem to agree on the strengths of the German brand, as well as its weaknesses, which are attempted to be addressed through branding campaigns.
3.4 NATION BRANDING AND THE “NEW GERMAN NATIONALISM”

Nationalism is an aspect of German society that is usually approached with caution and reticence. Following the failure of Germany’s World War II efforts and the nationalist movement that gave rise to the Holocaust, the promotion of German patriotic pride is something the rest of the world still hesitates to fully accept without misgivings. Since Germany's reunification, the country's political policies have prioritized a pan-European identity over nationalism, and this ideological migration was facilitated further through the formation of the European Union.

Benedict Anderson analyzes the imagined community of the nation state, and how it came into formation after WWII, before which political actors were identified by their allegiance to an empire or a kingdom. The concept of the “nation” is said to be imagined, as people feel a sense of camaraderie with their fellow citizens, most of whom they will never meet during their lives. It is said to be “limited” due to the fact that there are set boundaries – geographic, cultural and societal - beyond which lies “the other”. And the nation is said to be an imagined “community” because in order for a nation to successfully exist, there must be fraternal sentiments bonding the citizens together, giving them a sense of equality, and building them up to a point where they feel that the communal benefit comes before personal benefit - thus the reasoning behind an individual enlisting in the military, willing to lay down his or her life for his or her country (Anderson, 2006).
Anderson’s understanding of the nation is depicted quite accurately by the state of Germany society during the Third Reich. However, now that we no longer see German pride and nationalism in the forefront – even in the presence of nation branding – this causes one to wonder what exactly it is about the “nation” that Germany’s nation branding campaigns is trying to promote.

Johannes Paul Raether brings up a very interesting viewpoint in saying that nation branding has shifted the focus of nationalism from ethnicity to culture:

“In the recent years Germany has seen yet another revival of Nationalism. Unlike in the Nineties, when Nazi-skins and the Kosovo war dominated the discourses around Nationalism in Germany, the contemporary "new Nationalism" expresses itself in culture. Building up to the 2006 World Cup and the 60 year anniversary of the BRD in 2009 an unprecedented amount of nation branding-campaigns, exhibitions and events was organized to communicate Germany as a strong, yet self-critical Nation. In terms of the "purified nation" and the "Kulturnation" and along narratives of a seemingly funny and harmless "party-otism", where “it’s only about soccer,” new forms of a "culturalized Nationalism" seem to take shape.” (Raether, 2006)

Using culture, instead of ethnicity, as a means of portraying national identity has much less potential for internal conflict within a community. Unlike the harsh exclusions set by an ethnically-defined nation (where the “other” is based on physical appearance, regardless of civic nationality), the culture within a community evolves with time, and can be heavily influenced by a number of external factors - thus allowing for the inclusion of aspects of German society that have not always viewed as “typically
German.” For example, as a country that is home to the largest Turkish population in Western Europe, Germany faces the challenge of coming to accept completely different language, religion and practices, while also finding a way to integrate “Turkish-ness” into the German cultural identity. This migration away from defined ethnicity is something the entire continent of Europe is learning to come to terms with, as it is faced with increased immigration rates, an aging indigenous population and the need for a larger workforce. One of the well-known methods currently being used to incorporate the “other” into European society is France’s legislation that pushes mandatory secularism on all schools – presumably with the aim of instilling a higher degree of importance on civic nationalism over whatever ethnic, religious or cultural identities one may have primarily identified with.

That being said, what we witness in German nation branding and nationality is nothing like the American patriotism we are more accustomed to on this side of the Atlantic. Even in nation branding campaigns, where the aim is country promotion, one would be hard-pressed to find a message suggesting Germany is “the best country in the world,” or even find it trying to overtly compare itself with its European neighbors. What we see instead is a push towards highlighting the aspects of German society that unite the entire nation – regardless of one’s ethnicity, religious beliefs or cultural practices. The following section examines a collection of Germany’s recent nation branding campaigns in detail, and the ways in which they have promoted this new cultural nationalism.
3.5 Germany's Nation Branding Campaigns

Table 3: A comprehensive list of Germany's major nation branding campaigns (Dinnie, 2008)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Campaign Title</th>
<th>Campaign Initiator</th>
<th>Campaign Partners</th>
<th>Campaign Aims &amp; Component</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>„Du bist Deutschland“ (You are Germany)</td>
<td>Multimedia corporation Bertelsman AG</td>
<td>supported by German celebrities and media companies Currently operating on a much smaller scale, with a different objective (since 2007)</td>
<td>Formed in 2005 to reignite positive nationalist sentiment within Germany – an issue that had been evaded since World War II. This campaign was met with quite a bit of criticism; with some saying the message was too reminiscent of the nationalist initiatives of the Third Reich. In 2007, the campaign was relaunched to address the problems of Germany's aging population and encourage reproduction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>„Deutschland – Land der Ideen“ (Germany – land of Ideas)</td>
<td>German Government (Federal Ministry of Economics and</td>
<td>Partnered with several German corporations and educational institutions eg. Deutsche Bank, DAAD (German</td>
<td>Launched in 2005; targeted both internally and externally. This campaign was</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Die Welt zu Gast bei Freunden
(A time to make friends)

Campaign title agreed upon by the FIFA World Cup Organizing Committee;

Appointed Cultural Manager of Germany’s World Cup 2006 campaign, Andre Heller designed the slogan and some of the accompanying marketing materials, while PR firm Whitestone Agency designed the campaign and event logo. All event preparation and budgeting was approved by the German government.

This campaign was the official slogan of the 2006 FIFA World Cup, hosted in Germany. The aim of this campaign was to portray Germany in a friendly manner to the rest of the world, while also successfully hosting one of the world’s largest international events.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>„Die Welt zu Gast bei Freunden“ (A time to make friends)</th>
<th>Technology); German Presidents Horst Kohler &amp; Christian Wulff</th>
<th>Academic Exchange Service), Germany Trade &amp; Invest</th>
<th>concentrated on the reinforcement of Germany as a viable investment option.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Du bist Deutschland

Figure 3: Logo for the “You Are Germany” campaign
Source:

One of the things all of these campaigns have in common is the fact that they were all conceived around the same time point in time. By the mid-2000s, it had been 15 years since France, the Soviet Union, the UK and the USA ended their German occupation, ever since which the nation shied away from the use of patriotic imagery and any nationalist initiatives reminiscent of the Third Reich.

With Germany chosen as the nation to host the International Federation of Association Football (FIFA) World Cup in 2006, however, a lot of things changed. This would be the first time Germany would claim the global spotlight since the 1990 reunification, with memories of the 1936 Olympics, where Hitler attempted to seize the
opportunity as a chance to promote his views of Aryan supremacy, still not completely forgotten. This was seen as an opportunity for Germany to reveal a new image to the world – one where they could focus on the present and future, while still respectfully keeping their past in remembrance. It is interesting to note that despite their efforts to do so, criticism still arose, especially in regards to the “Du Bist Deutschland” campaign, in which non-Germans feared of the possibility of another German nationalistic uprising, while German nationals became suspicious of another government-induced media takeover. Interestingly enough, as soon as the World Cup was over (perhaps signifying that there was no more need for overt nationalism) the campaign quieted down and took on another initiative on a much smaller scale – addressing the issues of Germany's aging population and encouraging Germans to reproduce as an investment in the future of the nation.

**Deutschland – Land der Ideen**

The phrase, “Land der Ideen” was inspired by a direct quote from former German President Horst Köhler’s inaugural address in 2004. He spoke of Germany as a country that is distinguished by its history of invention and creativity, especially in the fields of science and the arts. This branding campaign stands out from most of the others that have been launched in Germany due to the fact that “Land der Ideen” was formed, monitored and executed solely by the government. Having been under the patronage of Kohler and passed on to his presidential successor Christian Wulff in 2010, this campaign is now an integral part of the German Federal Ministry of Economics and Technology’s function. Since its inception, “Land der Ideen” has launched a series of national, as well as international projects, targeted at the creation of global partnerships.
and incentives for research, capital and human investments, and innovation in Germany.

One of the things that makes this branding campaign stand out from most of the others listed in Table 3 is that this initiative was fully implemented and backed by the government. That being said, care was taken to ensure that every detail of “Land der Ideen” was thought out and made to represent Germany in some form or another, instead of having the campaign possess any trademarks of a private organization. The font chosen for the logo, Futura, was designed by Paul Renner in 1927, and is a symbol of the Germany’s “Bauhaus” architectural movement of the early twentieth century. Dahlias, the flowers represented in the logo, were first brought to Germany by the renowned scholar and botanical geographer, Alexander von Humboldt in 1804. They are also the only flowers that naturally bloom in all three of the German national colors – black, red and yellow (Land der Ideen).

The currently ongoing projects in the “Land der Ideen” initiative are wide-ranging; serving various demographics with different aims in mind. One on hand there are numerous local and international research competitions and study grants offered for advanced scholars, while there are also extracurricular programs offered for younger children in the form of science camps. Through “Land der Ideen,” Germany has formed partnerships with quickly-developing nations such as China and India, while
also creating initiatives for gender equality in research and development through the “100 Women of Tomorrow” program. By fostering international relations as well as developing Germany’s internal work force, the nation hopes to keep up its reputation of efficiency and technological innovation, while also creating an environment that welcomes foreign students, corporations and governments that wish to participate as well.

One of the most visible projects of “Land der Ideen” took place during the summer of 2006, when Germany hosted record-breaking tourist numbers during the World Cup tournament. Germany seized the opportunity of great audience potential to erect six sculptures throughout the city of Berlin, each one symbolizing a different dimension of German contributions to modern society. The sculptures were collectively known as “The Walk of Ideas” as they were all set up in the city center, within walking distance of each other.

The soccer cleat sculpture is a reference to the design of the modern-day sports equipment that was invented and designed by Adolf “Adi” Dassler in 1953, who then went on to found one of the biggest sports equipment companies in the world today, Adidas. Following a similar reasoning, the other five sculptures were representative of the other areas of industry and art in which Germany has excelled: medicine and pharmaceutical research, automobile engineering, classical music, the revolutionizing Theory of Relativity and classical literature. Great names such as Albert Einstein, Ludwig van Beethoven and Immanuel Kant come to mind (to name just a few), and these sculptures were erected to serve as a reminder, to both international tourists and German citizens, not only of the strength of German industry, but also of the more
positive contributions Germany has offered to modern civilization – some of which have a tendency to be easily shadowed by Germany's turbulent history.

Figure 5: "Walk of Ideas" sculptures. From top left: the Revolutionized Soccer Cleat, the Milestone of Medicine, the Automobile, Musical Masterpieces, the Theory of Relativity, the Modern Printing Press
Source: www.land-der-ideen.de

Current advertising campaigns for “Land der Ideen” are usually found in places where a high traffic of international tourists can be found, such as posters in airports, advertising spaces in global media outlets (Time Magazine, CNN International, various airline magazines) and hotel brochures.
The figure above is an example of one of the posters that were used in this nation branding campaign. Despite the ostensible seriousness of Germany’s financial investments and academic research (especially in comparison to a country like Italy, which is well known for its cuisine and fashion), Germany did not want to be purely defined by its characteristics of efficiency and discipline. By using former supermodel, Claudia Schiffer, to market messages with a slightly playful, seductive undertone, Germany hoped to draw attention to its more laid-back, creative side (Breitenbach, 2006).

**A Time to Make Friends**

Soccer has become a lot more to the worldwide community than a simple sport played between 22 people for fun. Although it has not caught on in American culture the way it has in the rest of the world, this billion dollar industry has spanned into
various sectors of the global economy through the selling and purchasing of media rights, corporate sponsorships, merchandise sales, and talent trade, to name just a few. The international aspect of the sport, especially brought about through the establishment of global events such as the FIFA World Cup and the UEFA European Football Championship, has also introduced opportunities for the expression of local and national pride in an arguably non-threatening manner. That being said, international football tournaments are probably the only means by which German national pride is strongly and openly expressed. This deliberately restrained patriotism is a phenomenon we tend not to see in most developed western countries of similar culture, such as the United States, where national pride is a common pattern of presidential addresses, education curricula and everyday life.

Just as product exports and people serve as ambassadors to a nation's brand, it is interesting to note how sports can also feed into building and perpetuating a country's characteristics. This excerpt contrasts the Brazilian playing style to Germany's and it provides a very vivid allusion to the differences in culture between the two nations:

“The Brazilians aren't playing! They do magic, they do tricks, the chip and flick, they lift the ball... that's Brazilian football, how the world understands it, love it. And the Germans, they do not play either. They grind away, they work like dogs... they battle, they do sliding tackles, they destroy. That's German football, how the world sees it, fears it, hates it.” (Inthorn, 2007)

The metaphors of this extract are clear references to each country's nation brand: Brazil's colorful culture, as seen through its grand annual Carnival celebrations.
and Samba dancing, while Germany is stereotyped for its “mechanical perfection” and aggressiveness – an attribute of its notorious history.

“Brazil, for many, is still the paradise-like football country, where talent grows on trees...they let the ball dance in a samba rhythm” (ibid)

Published descriptions of similar illustrative content are usually found in newspapers and television commentaries, where there is a need for creativity in reporting in order to evade what could otherwise be an unimaginative and overwrought job. While one could argue that through mass media’s influence on society, this stereotyping has the potential to perpetuate national stereotypes – negative as well as positive – there is another way to look at this issue as well. In instances of international sports tournaments, athletic teams are seen as symbols of their respective countries, and by tending to typecast national identities, media discourse encourages people to identify with their national teams on a nationalistic level.

Based on the above description and global perception, a country like Brazil would likely have fewer problems attracting tourists than Germany if we consider the societal culture alone with all other factors being equal. Of course this assumption is less likely to hold when other factors, such as security, quality of life and ease of travel, come into play. When Germany won the bid to host the 2006 World Cup, its main challenge therefore, was to use this opportunity of being under the international spotlight to finally dissociate itself from its aggressive, xenophobic past.

The official slogan that is adopted at each international football tournament is decided on by the FIFA World Cup Organizing Committee. This committee is comprised of football officials from all over the world with varying levels of exposure to the sport, international relations and business. The World Cup slogan is a clear statement of the
host country’s objectives, and these goals go far beyond the hopes of producing a winning team. At the same time, care is taken to ensure that the slogan capitalizes on the host country’s strengths as well. The table below lists the slogans used in the past two tournaments, as well as the one that was recently decided upon for the upcoming tournament taking place in 2014.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FIFA World Cup Host Country, Year</th>
<th>Official Tournament Slogan (English Translation)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Germany, 2006</td>
<td>A Time To Make Friends.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa, 2010</td>
<td>It’s Time - Celebrate Africa’s Humanity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil, 2014</td>
<td>All In One Rhythm.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The slogan settled upon for Brazil is a statement of the country’s effort to “unite fans around what will be a colorful and vibrant celebration” as well as a representation of the “unique flavor Brazil will bring to the tournament” (FIFA.com, 2012). On the other hand, South Africa’s 2010 hosting was the first time a sub-Saharan African nation took on the responsibility of organizing an international event of that magnitude, and there was an aspiration to leverage the opportunity as a chance to show the world that there is more to the African continent than its negative reputation of poverty and corruption. Naturally, Germany was striving to adopt a tourist-friendly image, and this was the focal point of the official logo, which was designed by British and German public relations agencies, Whitestone International Ltd and Abold GmbH (Mason, 2002). A comparison of this logo to the ones that preceded and succeeded it solidifies the German branding initiative, as none of the others focus so strongly on influencing tourist temperament.
The $3 million “A Time To Make Friends” campaign urged Germans to instill a sense of hospitality throughout the nation (Connolly, 2006), and according to media reviews and reports, the aims of the campaign were certainly met. An article written by Der Spiegel newspaper discussed how German patriotism was replaced by “Partyotism” – a sense of widespread celebration, regardless of country of origin that left a very positive impression on tourists (Crossland, 2006). Former UN Secretary General Kofi Annan stated his support of Germany’s tourist-friendly initiatives, and the British Times said, “Never mind the final, the Germans are the real World Cup winners.” Following the event, Chancellor Angela Merkel had the highest approval ratings any German leader had seen since World War II and 88% of respondents had positive reports about their World Cup experience in a tourist poll (Eberl, 2010).
CONCLUSION

4.1 THE FUTURE OF NATION BRANDING IN GERMANY

The idea that a nation can adopt the corporate practice of analyzing, creating and controlling a brand image is most likely a response to the ever-growing capitalist global world market. With countless investment options, and increasing volumes of international trade and tourist travel, nations seek ways to leverage their areas of expertise in order to carve out a niche market and improve international relations. Looking deeper into this concept, it is clear that the objectives of a nation branding campaign vary from country to country. A lesser developed country is likely to strive to shed itself of its reputation for economic and/or political weakness so as to become a viable candidate for foreign investment and regional leadership. A developed country, on the other hand, uses these campaigns to break into new ground.

As Germany seeks to develop a more likeable and friendly reputation, another country may be looking to move away from concentrating on its tourism and recreational sector in order to strengthen its industrial and economic standing. This is an especially relevant issue in the face of the Euro crisis, where Greece is facing high levels of debt and decreasing candidacy for foreign investments. In the media, Germany is depicted as Europe's economic anchor, with a lot of debate around Chancellor Angela Merkel's proposed correctional policies. Her refusal to underwrite Europe's debt in favor of implementing economic austerity measures favors the continued strength of the Euro currency, while the individual citizens of nations such as Greece and Spain
bear the cost of cuts in social spending. This has caused several media outlets to run critiques of Germany’s “financial dictatorship,” immediately drawing parallels to Germany’s aggressive history (Augstein, 2012). If a nation brand is indeed influenced by the international policies and economic strategies a country adopts, and Germany is looking to improve its international relations, how and to what extent is Merkel’s stance on the Euro crisis affecting the German nation brand?

Looking to the future of nation branding, an even better question would be how to measure the effectiveness of a country’s nation branding campaigns. Unlike a business corporation, which can measure advertising campaign success through sales, revenue and customer retention, a unanimous method of nation brand measurement is yet to be decided upon.

As Simon Anholt said, the practice of nation branding is not a quick fix to international relations. As in corporate branding, a marketing advertisement can only do so much for a good; if the quality of the product does not live up to the hype, there is no way an ad campaign can do much to encourage consumption. Likewise, a country that does not live up to the image it attempts to emit does nothing more than waste time and resources on an initiative that is doomed to fail (Anholt, 2009). Simon Anholt said that many developing countries have fallen into the trap of “throwing money at their problems,” whereas what is needed is a policy adjustment (Rice, 2010).

Germany’s World Cup campaign may have been reported to be a huge success, based on the positive reviews alone, but one could easily make a point that there was much more to the event’s success than a tourist-friendly branding campaign. Organization, social order maintenance and infrastructure development are just a few requirements on that list. There is no single body or organization, political or
otherwise, that can exercise absolute influence over a nation’s brand. It would be naïve to assume that the success of the one event and the shift in the global perception of Germany is rooted back to the spread of a message through the media, although the message of the campaign undoubtedly served as a strong contribution to the efforts put into improving Germany’s reputation.

The lasting effects of nation branding campaigns is something to watch; as it is a relatively new concept with vague measurement capacity, only time will tell whether it will still be a practice nations will pursue in time to come. As doubts are already arising in regards to Germany’s relationships with its neighbors in the face of the Euro crisis, coupled with references being made to the Third Reich, one wonders whether the effects of branding are truly strong enough for Germany to overcome its past. There is no doubt that there is a need for communication technology in international relations today, but it certainly needs to be implemented with practical applications of change and development in order to achieve a successful and reliable nation brand.
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