



**A FRAMEWORK FOR BRANDING THE CITY OF JOHANNESBURG AS A
CULTURAL HERITAGE DESTINATION**

by

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A framework for branding the City of Johannesburg as a cultural heritage destination

I declare that the above thesis is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

I further declare that I submitted the thesis to originality checking software and that it falls within the acceptable requirements for originality.

I further declare that I have not previously submitted this work, or part of it, for examination at Unisa for another qualification or at any other higher education institution.



D Muzeza

Date: 28 February 2024

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DEDICATION

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ABSTRACT

Widespread negative perceptions regarding Johannesburg can have a negative impact on tourism visitor numbers in the city. It is not clear whether city stakeholders are consulted for, or allowed to participate in, the city's branding initiatives, which should typically be based on city stakeholders' opinions. Therefore, it is evident that substantial knowledge gaps exist regarding the implementation of appropriate structures and processes for efficient and effective city branding.

The current research entailed developing a framework for branding the City of Johannesburg that was tested among city stakeholders. The study followed a qualitative approach involving the use of a single case study, namely, the City of Johannesburg and a review of literature rooted in grounded theory was adopted for the study. Twelve individual in-depth interviews and two focus group discussions (FGDs) were conducted in April 2022 to collect data. The data were analysed question by question as they appeared on the research instrument with the aid of ATLAS.ti version 22. At the time of the conceptualisation of the study, limited research had been conducted on city branding in Johannesburg. Therefore, the results of the study are aimed at filling the gap identified in South African city branding literature.

The findings of the study reveal that, from the city stakeholders' point of view, there is limited understanding and implementation of appropriate city branding structures and processes, which has led to less efficient and effective city branding. The current study was integrated with existing literature to develop a comprehensive framework for branding the City of Johannesburg. Theoretically, this study is one of the first to suggest and qualitatively investigate a framework for branding the City of Johannesburg. Methodologically, the research instrument designed in this study can be adopted by other cities for city branding. Practically, the Framework for Branding the City of Johannesburg (FBJ) can be used by other cities to develop, manage and evaluate their brands. However, a limitation of the study is that data were collected in Johannesburg only, and from tourism city stakeholders only. Therefore, future research should focus on examining the approaches adopted and tools applied in different cities and should also

investigate non-tourism city stakeholder groups. In addition, the FBJ should be validated regarding managerial relevance within the broader context of other cities in South Africa, the rest of Africa and other developing countries.

Keywords: Urban tourism; city marketing strategies; branding; cultural heritage attractions

NKOMISO

Mianakanyo yo anama yo biha mayelana na Joni yi nga va na xitandzhaku xo biha ka nomboro ya vuendzi bya vapfhumba edorobeni. A swi le rivaleni leswaku vahlanganisi va doroba va tekeriwa enhlokweni, kumbe ku pfumeleriwa ku ngenela ka swirhangisiwa swo burenda swa doroba, leswi swi nga kongomisiwaka ka miehhleketo ya vahlanganisi. Hikwalaho ka sweswo, swi le rivaleni leswaku mavangwa ya mbhoniataka ya vutivi ya kona mayelana na ku humelelerisa ka swivumbiwa swa kahle na tiphurose to enerisa na vukahle byo burenda bya doroba.

Ndzavisiso wa sweswi wu katsa ku hlukisa rimba ro burenda doroba ra Joni leru ri kamberuweke exikarhi ka vahlanganisi. Dyondzo yi landzela endlelo ra nkoka ri katsaka ku tirhisiwa ka dyondzontsongo yin'we, ku nga, Doroba ra Joni na mpfuxeleto wa matsalwa wu nga na thiyori ya dyondzo. Vanhu va khumembirhi ya hlawuriwile ka hlolahloa ya ndzhiko na mitlawa mimbirhi yo kongomisa ka mikanerisano kongomo. (FGDs) leyi endliweke hi Dzivamisoko 2022 ku hlengeleta data. Data yi xopaxopiwile xivutiso hi xivutiso tanihi leswi swi humelelaka ka xitirhisi xa ndzavisiso hi ku pfuniwa hi ATLAS, 22 wa swiphemu. Enkarhini wo nongohata wa dyondzo, ndzavisiso wo pimiwile wu endliweke ka burende yadoroba ra Joni. Hambiswiritano, mimbuyelo ya dyondzo yi kongomisiwa ka ku siva vangwa ri hambanyisiwaka ematsalweni ya burende ya doroba ra Afirika-Dzonga.

Swintshwa swi nga kumiwa mayelana na dyondzo swi paluxa leswaku, ku suka ka vonelo ra vahlanganisi va doroba, ku na ku twisisa no humelerisa swivumbeko swa kahle na tiphurose swa burende swa doroba leswi pimiweke, leswi endlike vuburende bya doroba byi va kahle byi nga ringaneli. Dyondzo ya nkarhi lowu yi hlukanisiwile na matsalwa ma nga kona ku hlukisa rimba ro twisiseka ra burende ra doroba ra Joni. Hi ku ya hi thiyori, dyondzo leyi l yin'wana yo sungula ku bumabumela no lavisisa hi nkoka rimba ra burende ya doroba ra Joni. Ku ya hi methodo, xitirhisi xa ndzavisiso xi dizayiniwile ka dyondzo leyi no tirhisiwa hi madoroba man'wana kuburenda. Ku ya hi xipurakitikali, Rimba ro Burenda Doroba ra Joni (FBJ) r inga tirhisiwa eka madoroba man'wana kuhlukisa, fambisa no kambela tiburende ta tona. Hambiswiritano, pimiwo wa dyondzo i

kuva data yi hlengetiwele eJoni ntsena, ku suka ka vuendzi bya vahlanganisi va doroba ntsena. Hikokwalaho ka sweswo, mindzavisiso leyi ya ha taka yi nga ha kongomisa ka ku kambisisa timethodo ti tirhisiweke na switirhisi swi tirhisiweke ka madoroba yo hambana naswona ya nga lavisisa mitlawa ya vahlanganisi va doroba nkala-vuendzi. Tlhandla-ka-mbirhi, FBJ yi nga nkokahatiwa mayelana na yelaniso wa swa vufambisi eka vundzeni lebyi anameke bya madoroba eAfirika-Dzonga, na Afirika hinkwayo na matiko lawa nge ku hluvukeni.

Maritonkoka: Vuendzi bya le madorobeni; switirateji swo titivisa swa doroba; vuburendi, switekarinoko swa ndzhavuko wa rixaka.

OPSOMMING

Wydverspreide negatiewe persepsies van Johannesburg kan 'n negatiewe impak hê op toerisme-besoekersgetalle in die stad. Dit is nie duidelik of stadsbelanghebbers geraadpleeg word, of toegelaat word om deel te neem aan die stad se handelsmerkinisiatiewe, wat gewoonlik gebaseer moet wees op stadsbelanghebbers se opinies, nie. Dus is dit duidelik dat daar aansienlike kennisgapings bestaan wat betref die implementering van toepaslike strukture en prosesse vir doeltreffende stadshandelsmerkgewing.

Die huidige navorsing het die ontwikkeling behels van 'n raamwerk vir die handelsmerkgewing van die stad Johannesburg wat getoets is onder stadsbelanghebbers. Die studie het 'n kwalitatiewe benadering gevolg wat die gebruik van 'n enkele gevallestudie behels het, naamlik die stad Johannesburg, en 'n oorsig van literatuur wat spruit uit gegronde teorie is aangeneem vir die studie. 'n Totaal van 12 individuele indringende onderhoude en twee fokusgroepbesprekings is uitgevoer in April 2022 om data in te samel. Die data is vraag vir vraag ontleed soos wat dit op die navorsingsinstrument verskyn het met die hulp van ATLAS.ti, weergawe 22. Ten tyde van die konseptualisering van die studie is daar beperkte navorsing gedoen oor stadshandelsmerkgewing in Johannesburg. Dus is die studie se resultate daarop gerig om die gaping te vul wat in Suid-Afrikaanse handelsmerk-literatuur geïdentifiseer is.

Die bevindings van die studie het getoon dat daar uit die stadsbelanghebbers se oogpunt 'n beperkte begrip en implementering van toepaslike stadshandelsmerkstrukture en -prosesse is, wat gelei het tot minder doeltreffende stadshandelsmerkgewing. Die huidige studie is geïntegreer met bestaande literatuur om 'n omvattende raamwerk vir die handelsmerkgewing van die stad Johannesburg te ontwikkel. Metodologies gesproke kan die navorsingsinstrument wat in hierdie studie ontwerp is aangeneem word deur ander stede vir stadshandelsmerkgewing. Prakties gesproke kan die raamwerk vir die handelsmerkgewing van die stad Johannesburg deur ander stede gebruik word om hulle handelsmerk te ontwikkel, te bestuur en te evalueer. 'n Beperking van die studie is egter dat data slegs in Johannesburg ingesamel is, en net by toerisme-stadsbelanghebbers. Dus moet

toekomstige navorsing daarop fokus om die benaderings wat aangeneem is en die hulpmiddels wat in verskillende stede aangewend is te ondersoek en moet dit ook nie-toerisme-stadsbelanghebbende groepe ondersoek. Verder moet die raamwerk vir die handelsmerkgewing van die stad Johannesburg geldig bepaal word wat betref bestuursrelevansie binne die breër konteks van ander stede in Suid-Afrika, die res van Afrika en ander ontwikkelende lande.

Sleutelwoorde: stedelike toerisme; stadsbemarkingstrategieë; handelsmerkgewing; kulturele erfenisattraksies

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LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

The following abbreviations and acronyms are used throughout the study.

ABNY	Association for a Better New York
ABSA	Amalgamated Banks of South Africa
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
CBDs	Central Business Districts
CCEC	City Civil Engagement Commission
CEMS	College of Economic and Management Sciences
CoJ	City of Johannesburg
COVID-19	Coronavirus disease of 2019
DMO	Destination Marketing Organisation
DOC	Department of Commerce
FGDs	Focus Group Discussions
FIFA	Federation of International Football Associations
FNB	First National Bank
GATOA	Gauteng Tour Operators Association
GEPD	Greater Ellis Park Development Programme
GTA	Gauteng Tourism Association
HIV	Human Immune Virus
ICT	Information Communication and Technology
IEP	Institute for Economics and Peace
IIs	Individual Interviews
IMC	International Marketing Council
JHF	Johannesburg Heritage Foundation
JRA	Johannesburg Road Agency

JTC	Johannesburg Tourism Company
KPIs	Key Performance Indicators
MTN	Mobile Telecommunications Network
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NYC	New York City
OLTPS	Office of Long-Term Planning and Sustainability
RBC	Royal Bank of Canada
SAT	South African Tourism
SATSA	South African Tourism Services Association
SA-VENUES	South African Venues
SMARTT	Specified Measurable Achievable Realistic Relevant Targeted Timed
SWOT	Strength Weaknesses Opportunities Threats
UBCs	Unabridged Birth Certificates
UBS	United Bank of Switzerland
UNAIDS	Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organisation
WEF	World Economic Forum
WHO	World Health Organisation
WTO	World Tourism Organisation

CHAPTER 1:

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

As destinations, including cities, are increasingly acknowledging the stiff competition in attracting the world's finite resource of residents, investors and visitors (Ripoll Gonzalez & Gale, 2023), city branding has emerged as a critical part of the city marketing strategy (Maxim & Morrison, 2022). This view was corroborated by Ali and Al-Khafaji (2022), who assert that prospective residents, skilful/creative individuals, students and visitors are exposed to a variety of cities from which to select their place of stay, place to study and to visit, as new cities and destinations are continuously being introduced in the market (Belabas, 2023). In the same vein, research by Chi, Huang and Nguyen (2020) supported these arguments, suggesting that city branding has become critical for successful destinations. As such, successful cities or destinations today are the result of the application of appropriate structures and processes which lead to efficient and effective city branding strategies (Tran & Rudolf, 2022). In the context of the current study, Destination Marketing Organisations (DMOs) should be encouraged to implement appropriate structures and processes during city branding (Ripoll Gonzalez & Gale, 2023).

While it cannot be disputed that DMOs play a vital role in branding cities or destinations (Hanna, Rowley & Keegan, 2020), it remains unclear whether DMOs implement the proper structures and processes during city branding (Lestari, Dali & Che-Ha, 2020). Furthermore, Zhao, Cui and Guo (2021) concur and argue that not all DMOs implement appropriate structures and processes during city branding. Hakala (2021) asserts that the plethora of theory and practice structures and processes signal a participatory city branding morass, characterised by unbalanced and tokenistic participation. The aforementioned observations seem to be problematic, considering that there are city branding guidelines available to guide DMOs. To achieve efficient and effective city branding, Lestari *et al.* (2020) postulate that DMOs, as collaborators of city marketing, should not treat city branding as a mere conceptual issue, but rather as a collaborative and inclusive process.

As a city, Johannesburg has been conducting city branding projects to position itself as a competitive destination (Matiza, 2020). However, despite conducting many branding initiatives, the City of Johannesburg (CoJ) is failing in its efforts to attract visitors who stay for long and spend more money in the city (Muzeza & Van Zyl, 2018). This finding was supported by *Time-Out* (2022) magazine, which stated that the top-ranked cities in South Africa (and in the world's best cities) are Cape Town at number 11 and Johannesburg at number 49.

One of the listed cities, namely, the CoJ, is of importance to the study on which this research is based because it is South Africa and Africa's economic capital (Scholvin, 2020). The city is experiencing challenges and is failing to attract visitors who stay for a longer period of time because of the prevalent high levels of crime and lawlessness (Malleka, Booyens & Hoogendoorn, 2022; Muzeza & Van Zyl, 2018). This is disturbing because cities are critical to tourism in all countries of the world (Morrison & Coca-Stefaniak, 2021), and seeing that cities are places where tourism is important and city authorities place a high priority on the economic sector (Maxim & Morrison, 2022). According to Morrison and Coca-Stefaniak (2021), cities offer a variety of products that include attractions, events, transportation, built facilities, infrastructure and service quality and friendliness.

Morrison and Coca-Stefaniak (2021) suggest that cities are also places that receive the most visitors and/or tourists because more than half of the world's population is urbanised, and this has caused city tourism to become more important. For example, the United Nations' Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2018) asserts that 55% of the world's population is located in urban areas, and the number is expected to reach 68% by 2050. In addition, Maxim (2019) posits that the trend has contributed to the importance of urban tourism. Therefore, cities must develop in such a way that they are able to meet this growing demand for services (Gilboa & Jaffe, 2021). Consequently, because Johannesburg is viewed negatively by the source markets, it is essential for DMOs in the city to apply appropriate structures and processes during city branding to achieve the type of efficient and effective city branding that can help to improve or change these negative perceptions into positive ones, and therefore, attract visitors to spend more time and money in the city.

In their endeavours to encourage visitation to their cities, municipalities mostly conduct city branding in isolation, and other city stakeholders are not consulted or involved in the process at all (Lestari *et al.*, 2020). Regrettably, many of these conventional measures are often a mere conceptual issue in most cities or destinations (Alegro & Turnsek, 2021). This has left DMOs ill-equipped or uninformed in how to deal with negative publicity and other city challenges encountered in encouraging visitation to their cities (Kusumawati, Dewantara, Azizah & Supriono, 2023). While there is a need to encourage the implementation of appropriate structures and processes for efficient and effective city branding, there is also a need to emphasise the views or perceptions of all the city stakeholders, as it is neither effective nor appropriate to carry out city branding in isolation from those who host the visitors (Nobre & Sousa, 2022).

Accordingly, there is a dire need for the development of frameworks that outline the structures and processes that should be implemented by DMOs for efficient and effective city branding (Lestari *et al.*, 2020). According to Oxford Dictionary, effectiveness is “the degree to which something is successful in producing a desired result”. According to Drucker (2006), in the marketing and management fields, effectiveness relates to getting the right things done to perform duties and responsibilities properly. Therefore, a marketing strategy is considered to be effective when it has the intended or expected outcome, such as attracting visitors to spend more time and money in the city (Hussein, 2020). Simply stated, the term ‘efficiency’ relates to output and ‘effectiveness’ relates to outcome. Hence, for purposes of the current study, it can be argued that effective and efficient city branding means successful city branding.

Over the decades, the variety of city branding models that have been applied globally have impacted the structures and processes implemented for efficient and effective city branding (Golestaneh, Guerreiro, Pinto & Mosaddad, 2022). More recently, the focus of city branding research has shifted from the top-down approach, where city branding was implemented by municipalities, to a more bottom-up inclusive and collaborative approach (Lestari *et al.*, 2022). Therefore, the past decade has seen many researchers advocating for an inclusive and collaborative approach to city branding (Lestari *et al.*, 2022; Belabas, 2023). Golestaneh *et al.* (2022) explain that the inclusive and collaborative approach to

city branding implies the inclusion of all city stakeholders in city branding. These stakeholders' input is vital in the brand building process, since they form a diverse group with differing opinions that are difficult to control and coordinate to build a common city image (Belabas, 2023; Golestaneh *et al.*, 2022). Table 1.1 illustrates the key destination marketing stakeholders.

Table 1.1: Stakeholders in destination marketing

Tourists	Tourism sector organisation	Community	Environment	Government
Leisure/pleasure	Destination marketing organisations	Community organisations	Non-governmental organisations	National
Business	Hospitality	Resident associations	Conservation societies	Regional
Visiting friends and relatives	Attractions	Business associations	Environmental agencies	State or provincial
Other	Transport	Special panels or task forces	Others	Local
	Travel trade	Other		Other agencies
	Media			
	Employee organisations			

Source: Morrison (2013:23)

As listed in Table 1.1, it is evident that these stakeholders can be considered as crucial in the brand-building process since their beliefs and interests help in the promotion of visitation to cities. Therefore, such stakeholders act as representatives of the city (Swapan, Sadeque & Ashikuzzaman, 2022). As stakeholders, public authorities, private organisations, investors, conservation societies and residents are vital to a city such as the CoJ, and they contribute to the city's image (Mtetwa, 2020).

The question needs to be asked about how these stakeholders view this, what do they think should be the structures and processes applied by the city marketers, and are they involved in the branding of the CoJ? The current thesis acknowledged the assumption that city branding depends on socio-cultural constructs because when branding a city, it is crucial to consider the city's unique sources of competitive advantage, such as its cultural heritage and city stakeholders' perceptions (Sandbach, 2022). Therefore, it is important in the attainment of efficient and effective branding of Johannesburg to gain an understanding of the city stakeholders' perceptions and opinions. This follows the assumption by Morrison (2023) that the destination brand must be well-accepted by different stakeholders operating within the destination, especially in the tourism industry. By assessing the views and opinions of the city stakeholders, and considering the aforementioned aspects, proper structures and processes can be implemented by the city marketers which can result in improved visitation and spending in the city (that is, efficient and effective city branding in Johannesburg).

There is, therefore, a need to investigate the city stakeholders' perceptions regarding branding the city and their level of participation in the pursuit of implementing appropriate structures and processes for efficient and effective city branding. The qualitative results of this study should assist with the development of a framework for efficiently and effectively branding the CoJ, namely, the Framework for Branding Johannesburg (FBJ).

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Efficient and effective city branding depends on the implementation of proper structures and processes by the DMOs (Golestenah *et al.*, 2022). However, greater insight into the perceptions of city stakeholders is required first, that is, what structures and processes city stakeholders believe influence efficient and effective city branding? Furthermore, a clear understanding of the knowledge city stakeholders have about city branding may also shed light on the important structures and processes that must be implemented by city marketers during city branding and provide an answer as to why they are not implemented properly is needed.

Answers are dependent on the perceptions of the city stakeholders in Johannesburg. Although there is growing literature regarding city branding in South Africa (Hemmonsbey & Knott, 2016; Matiza, 2020), limited understanding of the city stakeholders' perceptions regarding the structures and processes that should be implemented for efficient and effective city branding such as inclusion and collaboration of all stakeholders still exist (Muzeza & Van Zyl, 2018). While Golestenah *et al.* (2022) note the essentiality of this issue, they argue that there is limited theory on the proper structures and processes that should be implemented for efficient and effective city branding. They prognosticate that failure to address this critical issue can lead to hurdles to efficient and effective city branding, can result in loss of tourism opportunities, can lead to reduced socio-economic well-being and lost cultural heritage conservation. Lestari *et al.* (2022) urge for the implementation of proper structures and processes in city branding to achieve efficient and effective city branding. They advocate for the inclusion and collaboration of all city stakeholders in city branding which is urgently required.

However, in the South African context, studies on city stakeholder perceptions on city branding are still limited. To support these sentiments, Table 1.2 outlines some studies on city branding in the African context and the developing world that point out to the dearth of academic research with regards to city branding in this regard:

Table 1.2: Past studies on city branding in the developing world and Africa

Author(s) and year of publication	Title of study
Du Preez (2009)	Branding and positioning an African Capital City: The Case of Tshwane in Africa.
Freire (2014)	Place branding in Africa.
Bayraktar & Uslay (2016)	Global place branding campaigns across cities, regions and nations.
Hemmonsbey & Knott (2016)	The strategic value of sport for an African city brand.

Author(s) and year of publication	Title of study
Chirisa, Bandaiko, Mandisvika, Maphosa & Mukarwi (2017)	Whose city is it anyway? Limits of city branding in Harare amidst the storm of economic hardships in Zimbabwe.
Knott & Hemmonsbey (2017)	Leveraging sport to build city brands: The case of Cape Town as an emerging city brand.
Hemmonsbey <i>et al.</i> (2018)	Conceptual framework for strategic destination branding through leveraging home-grown sport events.
Kankhuni (2020)	Tourism destination branding in Malawi: A supply-side perspective.
Belkadi (2020)	City branding of Casablanca in Morocco.
Ojo (2020)	Interrogating place brand – a case of two cities.
Mbaye & Pratt (2020)	Cities, creativities and urban creative economies: Re-descriptions and market + shifts from sub-Saharan Africa.

Source: Author's own compilation

All these aforementioned studies in Table 1.2 highlight the need for more city branding studies in the developing world and Africa. Specifically, Freire (2014), Hemmonsbey and Knott (2016), Knott and Hemmonsbey (2017), Hemmonsbey *et al.* (2018), Belkadi (2020), Kankhuni (2020) highlight the need for more city branding studies in Africa. Chirisa *et al.* (2017) indicate that place branding in Harare was not possible because of the economic and political hardships faced by Zimbabwe. Hence, this study will provide opportunities for further research in other cities and at other tourism destinations (especially in Africa). This study on which the research is based aims to suggest a framework for branding the CoJ from the stakeholders' point of view and provide more opportunities for discussing the concept of city branding which is currently limited in an African context. As a result, the CoJ might be able to position itself on the market, therefore, selling itself successfully to the prospective visitors and be able to create a strong bond between itself and its prospective visitors.

Branding some cities in South Africa still needs further research although Cape Town has been branded as the design capital of Africa (South African Tourism, 2020) and Tshwane has been branded as an emerging tourist destination (Du Preez, 2018). This calls for more academic research regarding city branding from the supply side to be conducted. Such studies will allow city marketers to better understand appropriate structures and processes that should be implemented during city branding to build better performing brands (Braun *et al.*, 2018). Before COVID-19 pandemic, Johannesburg remained popular in the African continent among business travellers and being a gateway to the country and the continent at large (Matiza, 2020). In this regard, the city has established itself as a transit city where tourists would simply bypass it for other destinations such as Cape Town, Durban and Tshwane and go on safaris in Botswana, Zimbabwe and elsewhere (Ntsibande, 2013; Matiza, 2020; Scholvin, 2022; Mbinza, 2024).

Therefore, the following are the research gaps identified for this study:

- Practically, inadequate knowledge exists regarding proper structures and processes that must be implemented to achieve efficient and effective city branding.
- Studies on perceptions of city stakeholders and those involved in city marketing in the South African context are limited; and
- A comprehensive integrated framework which flawlessly represents the components that could influence the implementation of proper structures and processes in branding Johannesburg based on cultural heritage does not exist.

The importance of this study lies in filling these gaps using a qualitative research approach that includes the perceptions of city stakeholders and the components that influence the implementation of proper structures and processes for efficient and effective city branding. This study sought to promote tourism opportunities, socio-economic well-being of city residents and visitors and the conservation of cultural heritage in the city.

To help fill in these gaps, the following section embodies the focus of the study.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTION, AIM AND OBJECTIVES

The following questions were formulated for the purposes of this study:

1.3.1 Research question

The research question was *“What branding marketing strategies can cities implement to realise increased visitation?”*

To answer the research question efficiently, sub-questions were developed into three aspects:

- What structures and processes should the city marketers implement to realise efficient and effective city branding?
- Who are the city stakeholders that should be consulted during city branding?
- How could the cultural heritage be integrated into the city branding process?

This research’s primary aim is outlined in the following sub-section.

1.3.2 Primary study objective

The main objective of this study was to develop a framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination. The achievement of this aim relied on realising the following secondary objectives:

1.3.3 Secondary study objectives

To answer the research question(s), achieve the primary objective of the study and ultimately address the research gaps set out in the literature review, the following six secondary objectives were listed to:

- Conduct an in-depth literature review on branding as a strategy of city marketing in a general context and in a cultural heritage context.
- Evaluate international best practices on city branding based on cultural heritage.
- Analyse the current situation in Johannesburg regarding city branding.

- Capitalise on extant literature to elaborate on and suggest a framework for branding the City of Johannesburg.
- Empirically test the suggested framework for branding the City of Johannesburg.
- Discuss the theoretical marketing implications and practical implications of the findings of the study, highlight its limitations and suggest avenues for future research.

The methodological procedure that was carried out in the current research study is explained in the following subsection.

1.4 STUDY METHODOLOGY

The methodological procedure was carried out in three phases as illustrated in Figure 1.1, namely:

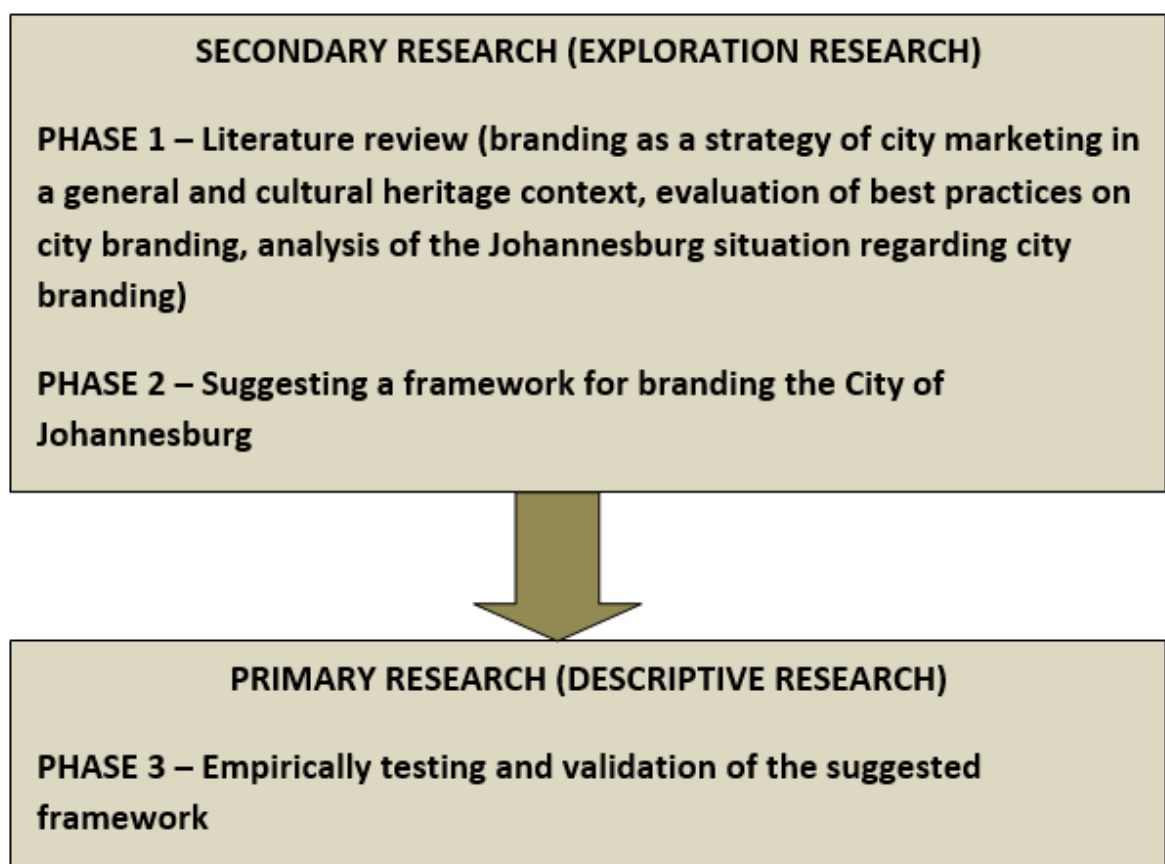


Figure 1.1: Methodological procedure of the study

The research method employed in this research first was exploratory research, consisting of literature review (**Phase 1**) and the suggestion of a framework (**Phase 2**). Descriptive research was applied through primary research where the suggested framework was tested empirically (**Phase 3**). The following section discusses the secondary research for the study.

1.4.1 Secondary research

Secondary research implies research conducted by scholars on the similar subject for their own purposes (Myers, 2020; Creswell & Creswell Baez, 2020). This implies that extant literature on city branding as a strategy of city marketing in a general context and in a cultural heritage context was examined. This was followed by an evaluation of best practices on city branding based on cultural heritage, and an analysis of the Johannesburg situation regarding city branding (**Phase 1**) (see Chapters 2, 3 and 4) was conducted to capitalise on extant literature, to elaborate on and suggest a framework for branding the CoJ (**Phase 2**) (see Chapter 5). Also, statistical records, government documents, diaries, letters etc were analysed for this purpose (Creswell & Creswell Baez, 2020). In research, a thorough conceptualisation of the topic is crucial; hence previous studies were applied as extant literature and the consultation of other sources that include articles, books, conference proceedings, theses and dissertations, internet sources and electronic databases in pursuit of branding as a strategy of city marketing. The reference list is presented at the end of the thesis.

1.4.2 Primary research

Primary research, also known as field research, entails the collection of data by the researcher in accomplishing their own studies (Merriam & Grenier, 2017). Primary research was conducted to meet the main research objective through analysing city stakeholders' perceptions regarding the suggested framework. Field research was used to test the suggested framework to accentuate the marketing theoretical and practical implications of the research results (**Phase 3**) (see Figure 1.1). The processes followed during the qualitative study are as follows:

The *first step* was to select a research design for the study which was influenced by the philosophy and research approach adopted for the study; hence, the

researcher followed a descriptive design and the exploratory design (Lune & Berg, 2017). Qualitative research was employed because it allows more understanding of the subject matter under investigation that understands what people do or say in interpreting a certain phenomenon (Merriam & Grenier, 2019). The research study employed both case study research and grounded theory as the research strategy. The choices were based on the idea that case study research offers the researcher an opportunity to understand the subject under study in real-life situations to build up theory and also compliment grounded theory (Yin, 2018). Grounded theory was well suited for this research because it is exploratory and suitable for researching aspects where the previous research lacks depth or where new perspectives on the subject appear to be promising (Birks & Mills, 2022).

The *second step* was the selection and development of the sampling plan. According to Myers (2020), a sampling plan explains the subjects chosen to represent the target population considered for purposes of the research study. Firstly, the population of interest were the tourism city stakeholders based or working in Johannesburg, such as the senior managers at Gauteng Tourism Authority and Johannesburg Tourism Company, registered members of the Gauteng Tour Operators Association, chairpersons of registered resident's associations in Johannesburg, chairpersons of the Johannesburg Heritage Foundation and registered members with the Southern Africa Tourism Services Association. The Gauteng Tourism Authority as the marketing collaborating body provided access to such information for the researcher to choose the participants.

The research study used purposive sampling because it was believed that informed data was going to be collected from the chosen participants (Lune & Berg, 2017). Secondly, the sample size was exceedingly small because participants needed to be senior managers or chairpersons working for companies or organisations in Johannesburg, with five or more years of experience in city marketing. Furthermore, the sample size was small owing to time and money constraints (Merriam & Grenier, 2019). Hence a sample size of 24 participants was selected and justified from the identified organisations and companies as an effort to improve representativeness (see Table 6.3). Because most of the city stakeholders were thought to be knowledgeable practitioners in

destination marketing, hence they comprised the most ideal sample for the current study.

Thirdly, the two research instruments were developed based on the findings from extant literature (Chapter 2, 3 and 4). The research questions originated from extant literature addressing key topics around city branding using cultural heritage and questions were informed by and followed the outline of the suggested FBJ to achieve the aim of the empirical study, testing the suggested framework.

The *fourth step* was to conduct a pre-test of the research instrument among the two supervisors, an independent coder and another academic expert in tourism marketing. After this, three interviews were held with city stakeholders in Johannesburg during the month of February 2022. Their feedback was used to refine the research instrument.

The *fifth step* was to gather data through interviews and FGDs (FGDs) and then processed through the following process (Dos Santos Marques *et al.*, 2014). Moreover, the recordings from the interviews and FGDs were transcribed verbatim from start to finish during the *sixth step* of the primary research process. Codes were created and put to raw data as summary indicators for later analysis (Saldana, 2021).

Data analysis was conducted as the *seventh step* of the primary research process using thematic content analysis and ATLAS.ti (Saldana, 2021).

The *eighth step* of the primary research process was the presentation of the research findings. The research study resulted in nine main themes:

- assessing the current situation;
- value of cultural heritage;
- designing the branding strategy;
- implementing designed strategy;
- monitoring progress of branding strategy;
- assessing performance of branding strategy;
- views and perceptions of Johannesburg;
- awareness of city branding and its benefits; and

- the suggested framework's value and utility.

Throughout the research process, the following ethical considerations were observed, such as participants' rights, informed consent, indecorum, probable benefits, and risks associated with the research study to manage the research through scholarly probity and ethical demeanour. The College of Economic and Management Sciences (CEMS)'s ethics committee approved the ethics application before the empirical process began with the decision: Ethics Approval from 2022 to 2026 (Appendices A).

In summary, the research follows a qualitative approach using a single case study and borrowing from grounded theory. Beyond the scope of this study are the details of city branding using cultural heritage and the city stakeholders' influence on efficient and effective city branding.

1.5 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

The potential contribution and significance of this research can be discussed from theoretical, methodological and practical standpoints. Theoretically, the research promoted the discussion of city branding in the South African context since research in this regard is relatively limited, therefore, contributing to the ever-growing body of academic knowledge in this subject of tourism marketing and research including other related areas. This research is among the first to suggest and qualitatively investigate a framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination which will promote visitation to the city. It brings together the critical issues of city branding. It is important theoretically because by discussing cultural heritage tourism and resources from the city stakeholders' perspective, cultural heritage is positioned within the strategic planning, management and marketing of cities. Lastly, the framework incorporates all the significant components. Above all, qualitative data indicate that the framework promotes the general understanding of the key components (structures and processes) that should be implemented by cities during city branding. These components represent the critical factors that influence the performance of a city as a destination.

Methodologically, this study developed a trustworthy research instrument for analysing city stakeholders' opinions, feelings and views regarding the framework for branding the CoJ efficiently and effectively which can be adopted by other cities/destinations when conducting their branding projects.

The major contribution of this study, however, should be its practical importance by developing a framework for branding the CoJ possibly as a cultural heritage destination other city marketers can adopt it to develop, manage and evaluate their branding initiatives. Through the FBJ, the study should enhance the promotion of Johannesburg differently from other competing world-class cities in terms of its offerings and promoting awareness and recognition among potential visitors and create a positive image and to create a strong brand and brand identity for the CoJ. City branding promotes differentiation and, therefore, helps visitors to identify a city because of its unique characteristics, reduces risks associated with the fear that visitors might not be satisfied when they visit a certain city and promotes loyalty to the city.

In the context of this study, a customer or consumer is a potential tourist or visitor, and residents can also be visitors to tourist attractions. The terms city and destination are used interchangeably in this study as cities can be destinations to visiting tourists as they offer tourist spaces.

1.6 DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS

The following sub-sections provide definitions of key terms continuously referred to in the research.

1.6.1 Urban tourism

Urban tourism which is often referred to as city tourism by other researchers implies a plethora of tourist activities in which a city or urban space is the main destination and place of interest for tourists (Maxim & Morrison, 2022). City/urban tourism strive to describe the many products or services which are attractive to the city's prospective visitors (Henning, 2022). Morrison and Coca-Stefaniak (2021) define city tourism as a tourism system (which consists of four interconnecting parts, namely, destination, marketing, demand and travel) that exists in a city or urban area which is, however, open and is affected by external

factors. Visitors to the city are concerned about learning the city's history, art, cultural heritage, and the residents' way of life (Kruger & Viljoen, 2023). These are the crucial elements for promoting an exceptional city experience (Kruger & Viljoen, 2023).

However, cities are exposed to a variety of challenges that include high levels of crime (Malleka *et al.*, 2020), economic maladministration (Ferreira & Perks, 2016), outbreaks of pandemics such as HIV and AIDS (World Health Organisation (WHO), 2020) and also experiences challenges such as overcrowding. Other challenges include conflicts between visitors and locals, and property conflicts created by peer-to-peer platforms such as Airbnb, and congestion in busy areas just like other world cities (Maxim, 2019). This exerts pressure on all the cities in the world regarding attracting visitors to their shores as it brings in economic benefits (Sirkis *et al.*, 2022). Because more than half of the world's population is urbanised, city tourism is, therefore, important to understand to foster tourism development in the world (UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2018). As Rogerson and Rogerson (2021) assert, governments are continuously encouraging and supporting tourism growth in big cities since it contributes to economic development. Hence, DMOs focus their attention on attracting more visitors to cities through the employment of efficient and effective city marketing strategies. For purposes of this study, urban tourism implies tourism activities that take place in urban spaces which offers a wide and disparate range of experiences for leisure and business.

1.6.2 City marketing strategies

Ripoll Gonzalez and Gale (2023) define city marketing strategies as the employment of marketing techniques to promote city offerings through a shared belief among city stakeholders aimed at providing the best experiences to the visitors. It is about transforming the marketing concept to urban spaces with the intention of satisfying visitors' expectations (Richards & Duif, 2019). Moodley and Naidoo (2022) highlight the need to maintain and improve the customers' needs, in addition to keeping up the society to create sustainable marketing. In the same vein, Morrison (2023) concurs that defining city marketing goes hand in hand with the societal marketing concept since every city aims to satisfy the aspirations of

customers or tourists better than competing cities. Hence, when defining city marketing, the focus should be on the societal concept.

To sum up, the marketing concept identifies the needs and wants of the customer as crucial, while societal marketing takes note of the societal effects of the people to achieve sustainable marketing. In this way, the consumer is a crucial component of the marketing process and in city marketing (Morrison, 2023). The objective of city marketing is to attract, identify and respond to the needs of target groups (such as visitors) and satisfy their needs (Ma *et al.*, 2019). According to the same authors, city marketing promotes cities to develop focused and coherent policies to attract the groups that are valuable to the city. Boisen *et al.* (2018) argue that city marketing encompasses specific marketing tools and approaches to attract specific target groups. Therefore, cities adopt certain preferential policies to attract a certain group of people. Hence, for cities to be able to attract these groups of people, they resort to city marketing strategies, such as branding (Ma *et al.*, 2019).

Many city marketing scholars and authors reported on city branding strategies for revitalising cities. These include creative branding, experience branding, personality-related branding, developing flagships and using hallmark events (Florida, 2003; Peck, 2005; Lorentzen, 2009; Prilenska, 2012; Cudny *et al.*, 2020). According to Prilenska (2012), such strategies are crucial to cities that are viewed as having a negative image in the source markets in quest of attracting visitors to stay for long in their territories. Most implemented strategies, according to Prilenska (2012), are the endogenous (creative) or the exogenous (experience) city strategy and these were considered for purposes of this study.

1.6.3 Branding

Even though branding was mostly employed in the corporate sector, the concept is increasingly used for the marketing of destinations (Kusumawati *et al.*, 2023). Because of the high level of competition among tourist destinations, destination marketing organisations are now focusing on turning their destinations into brands (Lui & Andriano-Moore, 2022). Yu and Kim (2020) define city branding as a process where cities attempt to position their offerings differently from those of their competitors. In this regard, branding enables the

management of perceptions and cities emphasise enriching the visitors' experience of the city rather than reasoning and debating (Zhao *et al.*, 2022).

According to Hussein (2020), city branding is a process whereby cities try to create value between the city and individual visitors through building positive images based on a place's offerings. In agreement with the foregoing views, Bonakdar and Andirac (2020) view city branding as involving all the actions taken by a marketing team to differentiate a place in the eyes of prospective visitors through visuals, stories and events. In support of the foregoing views, Sokolowski *et al.* (2022) define the concept as employing branding techniques in marketing cities, regions, and countries.

For the purposes of this study, branding in a city context implies all the actions of enhancing a positive image of the city and communicating it to the visitors through the employment of competitive advantages such as cultural heritage resources. According to Ma *et al.* (2019), city branding is applied to fulfil several city development goals that include city transformation, city revitalisation and sustainability. Similarly, Zhao *et al.* concur that studies on destination/city branding have identified the employment of cultural heritage as a crucial aspect in city branding. This follows the fact that cultural heritage is unique to the city in question, and it cannot be copied in any way (Nobre & Sousa, 2022).

1.6.4 Cultural heritage (attractions)

Dai, Li, Akturk and Jiao (2022) define cultural heritage attractions as forms of culture, that is, historical sites, buildings, language, arts, music, and dance of a people. The depth and breadth of cultural heritage resources present an authentic experience and access to cities/destinations with distinctive and striking cultures (Nobre & Sousa, 2022). The availability of cultural heritage attractions at a destination not only promotes the economic prosperity of that location but also promotes its marketing. This follows that cultural heritage promises a beneficial experience to the tourists and at the same time enhancing the value of the destination (Lonardi & Unterpertinger, 2022). Cities or destinations are able to differentiate themselves from competition through the employment of cultural heritage in their branding initiatives (Lu *et al.*, 2022). This is so because cultural heritage of a destination cannot be copied easily as it is unique to that city or

destination. Freire *et al.* (2022) suggest that cities rely on locally generated competitive advantages, such as the utilisation of cultural heritage resources for efficiently and effectively carrying out branding projects. Therefore, cultural heritage attractions reinforce the city's identity and modify the city image, and actuating visitors' decision-making and destination to visit choice (Ciuculescu & Luca, 2022).

Owing to continued demand from visitors for quality experiences, it is important that cities brand themselves using locally orientated attributes such as cultural heritage (Della Lucia & Trunfio, 2018; Nobre & Sousa, 2022). This follows the fact that visitors today are more concerned about buying experiences and not merely tourism products. The aforementioned views are supported by Dai *et al.* (2022) stating that efficiently and effectively branding cities can be achieved through the context of cultural heritage for destination-brand-related benefits, especially in the case of Johannesburg (Muzeza & Van Zyl, 2018). The city plays host to a variety of cultural heritage attractions of which the Apartheid Museum, Soweto, Constitution Hill national cultural heritage site, Maboneng Precinct, Mandela House and Hector Pieterse Memorial and Museum are some of the most significant (SA-Venues, 2022).

Cultural heritage plays significant role in building city brands, as they allow a city to display its history and heritage (Ciuculescu & Luca, 2022). Hence, visitor's experience of the city offerings enables city image creation among visitors (Cassia *et al.*, 2018). Therefore, visitors opt to pay exorbitant prices in return for an exceptional city experience (Lu *et al.*, 2022). The more a city brands itself using local sources of competitive advantages (such as cultural heritage), the more rewarding its offering becomes and the more visitors it will attract which leads to more visitor spending (Dai *et al.*, 2022).

For purposes of this study, cultural heritage attractions are authentic activities and stories of a certain people, their history, food, music, clothing and artefacts that encourage visitation to such places (Cassia *et al.*, 2018; Ciuculescu & Luca, 2022). To this end, it was anticipated that the rich cultural heritage resources offered by the CoJ can potentially set the city apart from the other competing cities leading to increased visitation and tourism consumption in the city.

The layout of the chapters in the study is explained next.

1.7 THESIS STRUCTURE

This study is outlined as indicated in Figure 1.2.

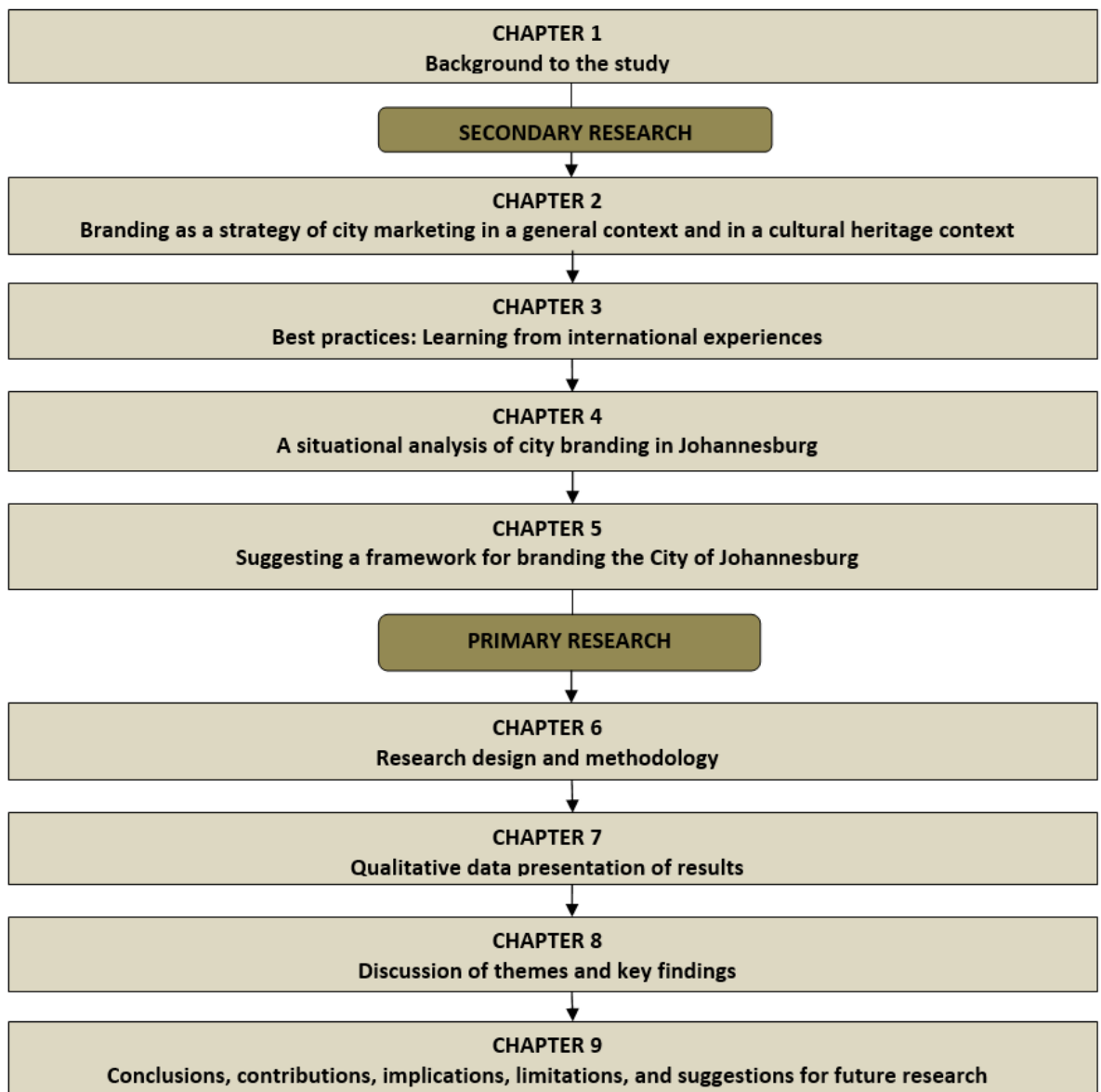


Figure 1.2: Chapter outline of the thesis

A detailed outline of the thesis is presented in the next sub-section.

Chapter 1: Background to the study

Chapter 1 discussed the background and the introduction of city tourism, city marketing strategies and branding. Since cities across the world are competing for investors, residents and visitors, many have resorted to city branding as a strategy of city marketing aimed at attracting customers (investors, residents, and visitors). Through city branding, cities can promote themselves as destinations and simultaneously promote quality life for their residents since residents share the same space with the visitors. The problem statement, aim of the study and

the study objectives were discussed. The primary and secondary research that was conducted in the thesis was also briefly discussed. Key definitions of concepts that were frequently used in the thesis were explained. These essential points of departure set the tone and context for the thesis.

Chapter 2: Branding as a strategy of city marketing in a general context and in cultural heritage context

Chapter 2 reviewed literature on branding as a strategy of city marketing in a general context and in a cultural heritage context. It also explored the theoretical foundations of the study and introduced city tourism, highlighted its context, benefits and its stakeholders and their responsibilities. City marketing was introduced and its link to city branding was explained, leading to the conceptualisation of branding as a strategy of city marketing in a general context and in a cultural heritage context outlining the branding strategies. City branding potential benefits and challenges were also explored in the chapter. Lastly, the chapter examined city branding frameworks/models which led to the evaluation of the examined models.

Chapter 3: Best practices: learning from international experiences

Chapter 3 explored best practices of city branding across the world and highlighted the lessons learnt from the international case studies on city branding (Amsterdam, New York, and Cape Town).

Chapter 4: A situational analysis of city branding in Johannesburg

Chapter 4 analysed the situation in the CoJ concerning city branding and discussed lessons taken thereof.

Chapter 5: Suggesting a framework for branding the City of Johannesburg

Chapter 5 discussed critical aspects suitable for branding the CoJ emanating from the extant literature and international case studies on city branding (Amsterdam, New York and Cape Town) and from the situational analysis of city branding in Johannesburg. The chapter proceeded with a detailed discussion of the suggested framework for branding the CoJ potentially as a cultural heritage destination.

Chapter 6: Research design and methodology

Chapter 6 introduced the study site and discussed the research philosophy, approach, and design for the study. The chapter proceeded with the discussion of the sampling plan design, the development of the research instrument for data collection and analysis, and lastly explored ethical considerations that were observed throughout the study.

Chapter 7: Qualitative data presentation of results

Chapter 7 reported and interpreted the results of the qualitative research, namely, Johannesburg city stakeholders' perceptions of the suggested FBJ, which sought to build on the key aspects emanating from chapters 2, 3, 4, and 5 to test the suggested framework.

Chapter 8: Discussion of themes and key findings

Chapter 8 focused on refining and discussing the suggested framework that emanated from the preceding chapters including findings from the qualitative study. It built and gave guidelines for developing and implementing the FBJ efficiently and effectively. The discussion and verification of the FBJ was carried out in this chapter.

Chapter 9: Conclusions, contributions, implications, limitations, and suggestions for future research

Chapter 9 explored the synthesis of the study and discussed conclusions, contributions and recommendations. The chapter concluded by outlining study limitations and giving recommendations for further studies.

CHAPTER 2:

BRANDING AS A STRATEGY OF CITY MARKETING IN A GENERAL AND IN A CULTURAL HERITAGE CONTEXT

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Branding has been identified as a crucial city marketing strategy that is key to successful city marketing in light of the high level of competition experienced by cities (Richards & Diuf, 2019; Bonakdar & Andirac, 2020; VanHoose *et al.*, 2021; Sokolowska *et al.*, 2022; Belabas, 2023). The success of city branding is, however, dependent upon the employment of efficient and effective city branding strategies such as using unique sources of competitive advantages in branding the city, namely, cultural heritage resources which cannot be copied as they are unique to the city in question (Della Lucia, 2018; Freire *et al.*, 2022). Consequently, to realise efficient and effective city branding now and in the future, it is imperative that cities employ cultural heritage in their branding projects (Fan, 2014; Zhao, 2015; Cudny, Comunian & Wolaniuk, 2020, Freire *et al.*, 2022).

Worldwide, there are more than 300 cities and all of them are competing for the same residents, investors and visitors (Zenker *et al.*, 2017). The high level of competition among cities calls for city marketers to come up with innovative ways of efficiently and effectively branding themselves (Santos *et al.*, 2017). Gilboa and Jaffe (2021) defined efficient and effective city branding as implying that the outcomes of such initiatives should be accepted and understood by the city marketers, local residents and other stakeholders. Although it is difficult to brand cities efficiently and effectively, the same authors suggested that branding the city differently from the competitors is required for prospective residents, investors and visitors to view the city differently from other competing cities (Gilboa & Jaffe, 2021). Cities can only be able to do this through the employment of their unique competitive advantages such as sport and gastronomy, and for purposes of this study cultural heritage in their branding projects (Tang, 2016; Nobre & Sousa, 2022).

To respond to the fierce competition, branding has been earmarked as “an important city marketing strategy to deal with the fierce competition among cities

and also to reverse a negative or an inappropriate image to a more desirable one in the face of prospective residents, investors and visitors” (Tasci *et al.*, 2019). Accordingly, branding can be an influential strategy towards increased visitation and improved visitor spending within the city boundaries (Kusumawati *et al.*, 2023).

The research on which this study is based investigated the development of a framework for branding the CoJ potentially as a cultural heritage destination. Chapter 2 represents *phase 1* of the methodological procedure (see Figure 1.1), which is the first part of the secondary research, namely, the literature review. Branding was explored as a city marketing strategy in a general and in cultural heritage context to achieve the first secondary objective, namely:

To conduct an in-depth literature review on branding as a strategy of city marketing in a general context and in a cultural heritage context.

The flow of secondary research given in Chapter 2 is depicted in Figure 2.1.

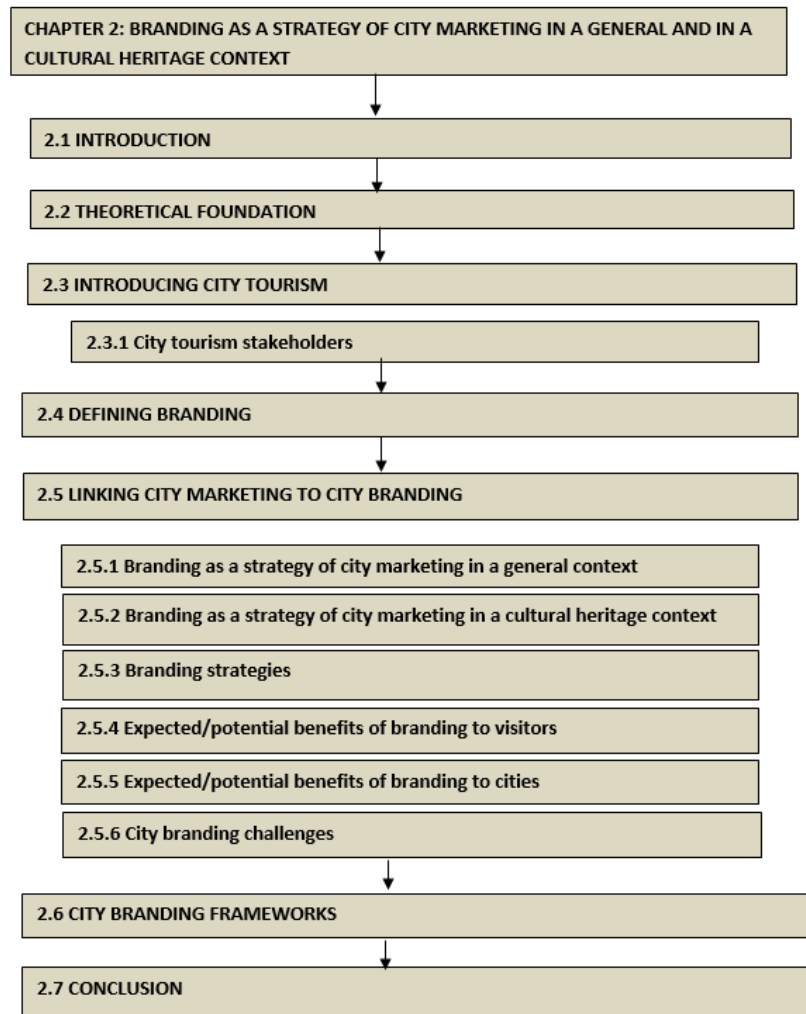


Figure 2.1: Flow diagram of Chapter 2 layout

The following section discusses the theoretical foundation of city branding.

2.2 THEORETICAL FOUNDATION OF CITY BRANDING

This study focused on the concept of city branding for revitalising urban spaces which have been introduced and broadly utilised in contemporary city branding studies, though with different meanings. Although branding was initially mostly linked to the corporate world, this study assumes the broader perspective proposed by Aaker (2010), an American brand strategist who in his book entitled *Building Strong Brands* (Aaker, 2010), developed a model known as Brand Identity Planning Model. The model aimed at helping scholars and organisations to create or develop strong brands. In his model, the author emphasised on the creation and implementation of a strong brand identity to create an image in the

customer's minds, which leads to a strong position and promotes a competitive advantage above the competitors.

Aaker's research was supported by the other six studies of Virgo and De Chernatony (2005), Merrilees, Miller and Herington (2007), Balakrishnan (2009), Ofori (2010), Hanna and Rowley (2011), and Zenker (2011). These studies were critical for the purposes of this current study because they laid a foundation for the FBJ suggested in the study. This study also borrowed literature from Prilenska (2012) because the CoJ is experiencing negative perceptions in source markets. Hence, Prilenska (2012) advocates that revitalising urban spaces is employed when a city's image is viewed negatively in the source markets and as such, a city can either employ an endogenous or exogenous approach to improve its image in the source markets and eventually increasing visitor numbers to its territory. The thesis also draws from the latest literature on city branding (Fan, 2014; Zhao, 2015) and more recently, from (Cudny *et al.*, 2020; Nobre & Sousa, 2022; Ciuculescu & Luca, 2022) who advocated for more focus on the employment of cultural heritage in city branding.

For the purposes of this study, the economic dynamics were framed within the broader perspective of the experience (exogenous) strategy, considering the importance of branding a city as an attraction and the employment of cultural heritage into the production and consumption systems in contemporary cities (Zhao, 2015). In this instance, cities play a vital role in generating income through visitors' spending because of their power as attractions (Pirnar *et al.*, 2017). In this context, it is important to note that most of the city branding studies focuses on the city as an attraction, which tends to paint a better picture on the city's image in the eyes of the prospective visitors and so promotes visitation as supported by Fan (2014); Zhao(2015); Cudny *etal.* (2020); Nobre & Sousa (2022); Ciucuescu and Luca(2022).The next section introduces city tourism.

2.3 INTRODUCING URBAN TOURISM

City tourism was recognised in the late 20th century as an economic driver in many cities across the world (Coca-Stefaniak & Morrison, 2022).Arian (2018) confirms this view and describes city tourism as a variety of tourism products and services which attract both domestic and international tourists and residents to

the city. Rogerson and Rogerson (2021) suggest that cities and towns are sources of tourists, act as tourist destinations and are gateways to other places. The authors argue that because over 50% of the world's population is urbanised, city tourism becomes important as a springboard of the world economy; hence, cities want to improve in this regard (Coca-Stefaniak & Morrison, 2020). This has led to many cities engaging into city revitalisation strategies such as branding themselves as sport, gastronomy or cultural heritage destinations where the focus is on developing city tourism (Pasquinelli & Trunfio, 2020). According to the same authors, in developed countries that include the Americas, Europe and Australia, where the emphasis was previously on production industries, countries have begun restructuring and reinventing cities as consumption centres. Benckendorff, Xiang and Sheldon (2019) highlight that increased movement and cheaper travel means between cities have promoted the number of tourists to cities, which in turn, has subsequently led to increased economic benefits. According to Donner and Fort (2018), because tourist preferences are evolving, cities are now focusing on promoting the sustainability and competitiveness of the city as a tourist destination.

Because of the aforementioned facts, Jeong and Shin (2020) maintain that many cities are now employing the notion of smart cities to enrich visitor experiences and the quality of life for their residents. According to Jovacic (2019), smart tourism destination is a knowledge-based destination, where Information Communication Technology (ICTs) are employed to provide a technological platform on which information and knowledge that relate to tourism could be easily exchanged. Buhalis, O'Connor and Leung (2023) further elaborate that these technologies can affect the tourism experience from the planning stages to even after the tour. As Zhang, Sotiriadis and Shen (2022) assert, nowadays more tourists are designing and preparing their own trips and so relies on smart technologies. This is so because tourists depend on information from social media platforms for sharing travels information, making bookings and paying for travel services and are no longer using the traditional travel brochures and books (Gelter, Fuchs & Lexhagen, 2022). Because of this, tourism companies enhance the tourist experiences when they combine ICTs with the tourists' smart phones (Aguirre, Zayas, Gomez-Carmona & Lopez Sanchez, 2023). Um and Chung

(2019) support the foregoing sentiments by finding that smart tourism technology is crucial to enhance tourism competitiveness and to promote visitor satisfaction because it enhances the visitor's experience.

However, according to Buhalis *et al.* (2023), smart cities can only be recognised if there is positive interaction between the different stakeholders in a city. Zhang *et al.* (2022) argue that this is so because cities must consider the evolving needs and expectations of their visitors, increasing the number of visitors to their shores, ensuring city development and management at the same time avoiding the deterioration of the city and being able to promote the well-being of their private and public stakeholders and their residents. To achieve this, Aguirre *et al.* (2023) indicate that city/destination marketing organisations (DMOs) must play a collaborative role to strike a balance on the economic, social and environmental sustainability of the city because residents share the same space and services with visitors.

In South Africa and especially in Johannesburg, city tourism is seen as having great potential and hence has been the focal point of many researchers recently as they recognise the importance of the phenomenon to urban spaces (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2021; Henning, 2022; Wessels & Tseane-Gumbi, 2022; Kruger & Viljoen, 2023). To achieve the success of a city as a destination, various city stakeholders must play an equally vital role (Wessels & Tseane-Gumbi, 2022). Hence the following section discusses the different stakeholders of a city as a destination and their responsibilities to achieve the aforementioned goals. This further highlight the importance of the city stakeholders chosen for the empirical enquiry of this research study. For purposes of this study, city stakeholders refer to the CoJ employee's groups, communities or entities whose rights or interests are or could possibly be affected by products, services and operations of the city and its business relations.

2.3.1 City tourism stakeholders

According to Lestari *et al.* (2020), a destination hosts diverse groups of stakeholders and city branding will be efficient and effective when all the city stakeholders seek advice through a collaborative planning process. Table 1.1 illustrates the key stakeholders in destination management and marketing

(Morrison, 2013). Zhao *et al.* (2022) postulate that the significance of understanding the responsibilities of each stakeholder to realise how successfully city tourism and creating memorable tourism experiences and improving the quality life for the residents. Responsibilities of all the crucial city stakeholders for the purposes of this study are discussed in the following sections to examine the critical role they can equally play in efficiently and effectively branding the city as a tourist destination.

2.3.1.1 Destination marketing organisations (DMOs)

According to Muluneh, Chiriko and Taye (2022), previously, academics highlighted that the first designed DMOs were merely responsible for promoting and selling destinations. However, Morrison (2023) asserts that nowadays the concept has become more complicated and professional; DMOs are now seen as “destination developers”. According to Morrison (2023), destination marketing organisations (DMOs) include local, provincial and national tourism authorities (see Figure 1.1). Muluneh *et al.* (2022) mention that some NPOs strive to generate tourist numbers and promote visitation to a specific place. In other words, they are responsible for marketing cities, areas, regions, provinces and countries to prospective visitors (Huang *et al.*, 2022). In this case, according to Lustiky and Stumpf (2021), the DMO’s role is advertising, promotion, public relations and publicity; monitoring the implementation of standards of service quality; coordinating the tourism industry and enhancing community relations. Sorokina *et al.* (2022) further elaborate that this is done through the establishment and monitoring of internal and external offices in source markets. Volgger *et al.* (2021) maintain that DMOs take care of tourist information centres and tourist boards, and the provision of tourist contact points. The UNWTO (United Nations World Tourism Organisation) suggested that the roles of the DMOs can be presented diagrammatically as depicted in Figure 2.2.

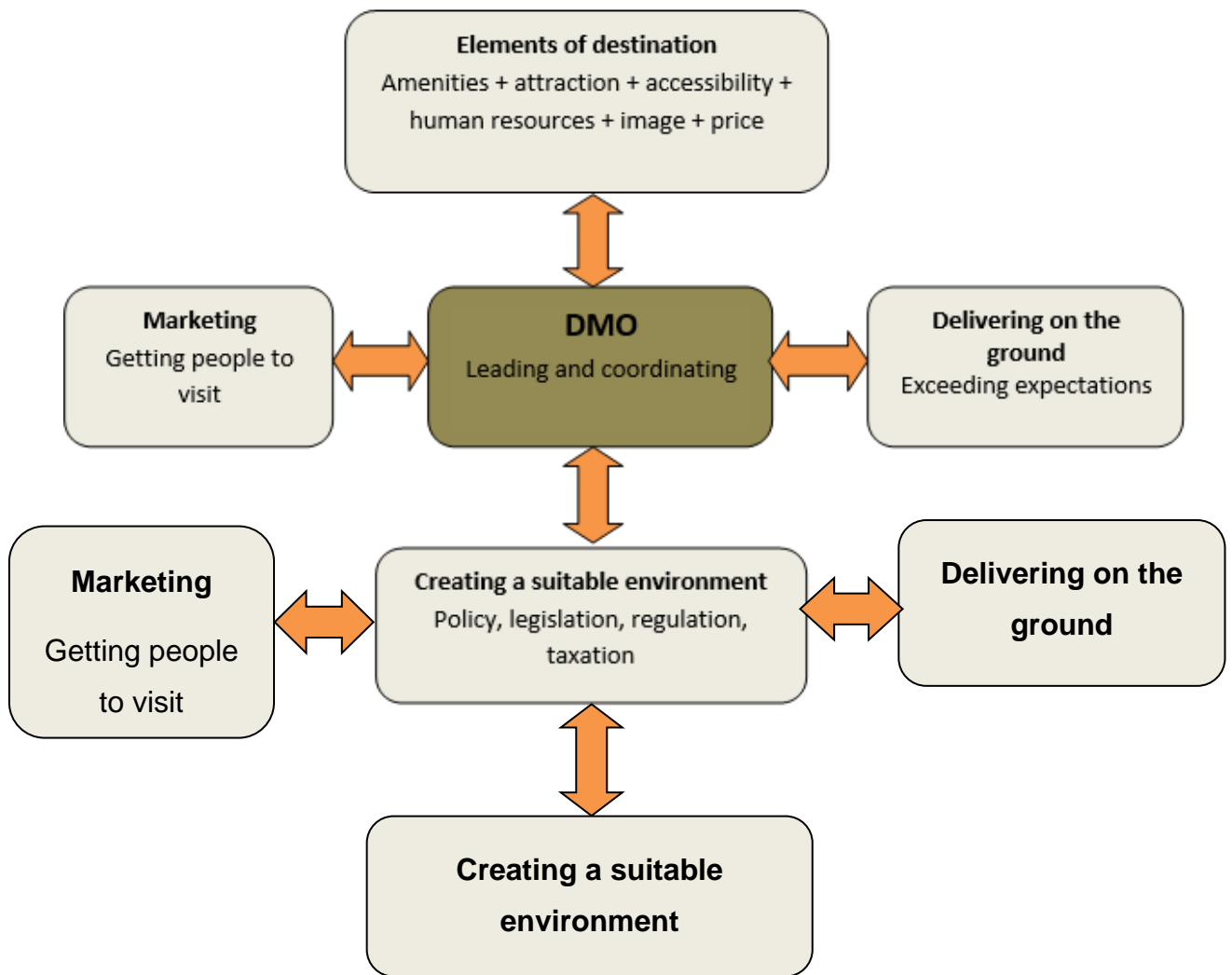


Figure 2.2: DMO roles

Source: Adapted from UNWTO (2013); Morrison (2023)

According to Huang *et al.* (2022), the DMO is perceived as being responsible for destination marketing. The same authors further elaborate that the DMO is funded by the government and coordinates many stakeholders with differing expectations, experience and interests. However, Muluneh *et al.* (2022) assert that the DMO does not interact with the tourists directly but ensures that they use the destination resources properly. The authors also highlight that DMOs perform their duties as mediators and initiators at the destination. In this way, the UNWTO (2013) suggests that the DMOs can coordinate activities, such as tourism policy implementation, strategy planning and product development. In fact, they strive to connect the supply and demand sides of the tourism industry to utilise the resources of a destination (Sorokina *et al.*, 2022).

Morrison (2023) avers that for any destination (city) to succeed, it needs better performance from its DMO. The same author further elaborates that this involves the making of decisions about products, **branding**, determination of price, market segmentation, promotion, distribution and the marketing mix processes. Following the suggestions by Morrison (2023), DMOs are an important city stakeholder that should be consulted regarding city branding for the purposes of this study. Chilembwe, Mweiwa and Mankhomwa (2019) brought up the idea that tour operators are important destination stakeholders as they host visitors at the destination. Tour operators as a critical stakeholder in the city are explored in the next section.

2.3.1.2 Tour operators

Chilembwe *et al.* (2019) assert that tour operators are a pivotal link between visitors and the city (destination) since they determine and fulfil the demand on behalf of a city. According to the same authors, there are inbound and outbound tour operators. Inbound tour operators deal with visitors coming to the city while outbound tour operators assist the local people who want to travel out of the city or country. For purposes of this study, inbound tour operators will be considered instead of outbound tour operators. Because of this reason, Sukmayadi and Effendi (2020) suggest that visitors depend on the local or inbound tour operator's influences with regards to their city to visit decisions. Page (2015) accentuates that inbound tour operators influence the well-being of cities and/or the city residents. Additionally, Chilembwe *et al.* (2019) posit that local and inbound tour operators market the local area offerings as they inform visitors of activities and attractions found within those areas. Furthermore, local tour operators provide tourism services to visitors. This promotes the quality of the tourism experiences (Page, 2015).

Page (2015) articulates that tour operators play the role of intermediaries in the distribution system of the tourism industry as they link producers (providers of services) to consumers (visitors). He further explains that details such as accommodation arrangements, ticket prices (air, bus, train), transfers, and the itinerary are all handled by tour operators. Above all, Sukmayadi and Effendi (2020) argue that local and inbound tour operators enhance the visitor's experience of the city when they arrange guiding services throughout the

destination. In this regard, local and inbound tour operators are viewed as crucial stakeholders for any destination as they assist in the marketing of the destination, hence their views regarding city branding of a city/destination is of fundamental importance because they are aware of the visitors' expectations and needs regarding the city to visit, for the purposes of this study. Residents are discussed next as the other important stakeholder of the city/destination.

2.3.1.3 Local residents

Hakala (2021) indicates that city branding is dependent on the perceptions of its target market for it to be a success. Residents as the prime customers of the city are reliable, authentic and informal sources of city marketing, and they are also active advocates of city branding (Zhao, Cui & Guo, 2022). Earlier it was mentioned by Morrison (2023) that city tourism stakeholders include public authorities, private organisations, investors, visitors and residents; hence, it is crucial to note the perceptions of the city's residents as well. Swapan *et al.* (2022) posit that most city studies pointed to the fact that they are often applied in a top-down manner which does not include residents in the planning process. However, Green *et al.* (2018) opine that city branding in this way is a process where residents can give their perceptions and opinions regarding the final city brand. According to Gilboa and Jaffe (2021), residents fulfil three main roles in city branding, that is, through their characteristics such as friendliness. When residents are closely linked to their city, they are likely to become ambassadors of that city; and residents, as citizens of a city, can promote or break the city's branding efforts as they are a critical component of the visit or tourism experience.

In support of the aforementioned views, according to Rebelo *et al.* (2020), residents are considered the 'bread and butter' of cities, that is, when they communicate among themselves and with visitors they form the social environment of the city. The authors further highlight that when the physical setting and the social environment are put together, they form the experience of a city. In the same vein, Golestaneh *et al.* (2022) concur that residents are used as a barometer for the valuation of city brands, and this is so because the perceived degree of friendliness in residents' attitudes is an important aspect in city brand evaluation.

Gilboa and Jaffe (2021) confirm the foregoing view when they argue that perceptions of residents are critical for prospective visitors as they are authentic, informal, and insider sources of information about the city. According to the same authors, cities use popular figures born in the city to promote the city in question although residents are able to communicate these reliable messages about their city individually and collectively as a community. To add to the above views, Belabas (2023) believe that residents as citizens elect their local government officials, have political power and participate in local politics. Therefore, it must be noted that city marketers must make it an obligation that residents participate and contribute to city marketing issues (Eugenio-Vela, Ginesta and Kavaratzis 2020). These city marketing issues include branding projects as well; hence residents are an essential stakeholder who should be consulted for the purposes of this study (Swapan *et al.*, 2022). Conservation associations/organisations form another important city stakeholder and these are discussed next for the purposes of this study.

2.3.1.4 Conservation associations/organisations

According to Boulhila *et al.* (2022), conservation associations/organisations are responsible for the conservation of tourism resources that includes cultural heritage in the city and are also crucial in the maintenance of these attractions. Kruger and Viljoen (2023) added that the NGOs play an important role in the development and maintenance of cultural heritage attractions. The NGOs have the following functions that promote the conservation of cultural heritage attractions:

- To develop policies and plans that govern the visitation of cultural heritage attractions, this brings together the government, local communities, and private sector.
- To assist the community groups in organising themselves, preparing them to preserve cultural heritage attractions.
- To educate, train, facilitate and reduce the knowledge gap of the community on the content of cultural heritage conservation and sustainability (Kruger & Viljoen, 2023).

Boulhila *et al.* (2022) opine that through the aforementioned functions, NGOs facilitate the development of cultural heritage attractions. The same authors maintain that conservation associations or organisations also provide training skills such as bookkeeping, management procedures and project development cycles. Hence, according to Gao, Lin and Zhang (2021), all these skills are vital for the local communities to assist in the conservation and sustainability of cultural heritage attractions; hence, cities must maintain a healthy relationship with the conservation associations to provide the best cultural heritage attractions that will bring visitors to their cities (Zhang, 2022). This indicates that conservation associations are also important city stakeholders who must be consulted regarding the branding of the city or destination. Business sector and professional/industry associations are also discussed next as important city stakeholders.

2.3.1.5 Business sector and professional/industry associations

Ripoll Gonzalez and Gale (2023) believe that the business sector or industry associations are the investors who are responsible for the provision of quality services to the visitors in the city. According to Morrison (2023), for any business to function properly, capital injection is of great importance. Morrison (2023) further explains that the private sector comes in through the provision of amenities that are required to satisfy visitors. However, according to Wessels and Tseane-Gumbi (2022), the tourism industry includes businesses that provide goods and services wholly or mainly for tourist consumption. Rogerson and Rogerson (2021) highlight the potential roles of the private sector as including the following:

- Providing funding for tourism initiatives.
- Provision of training and development of skills in guiding, accounting, management, and hospitality.
- Promoting awareness and informing visitors of the importance of tourism.
- Promoting responsible tourism practices among tourism role players.
- Donating funds towards conservation and charity.
- Provision of market knowledge.

- Development of secondary industries such as food production, arts, and crafts (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2021).

According to Rogerson and Rogerson (2021), in South Africa, there are private bodies that play an equally important role in the tourism industry such as the Southern Africa Tourism Services Association (SATSA). Stevens, Klijn and Warsen (2021) further buttress that the delivery of quality service and the provision of customer care with value for money are largely the responsibility of the private sector. In this regard, the business sector and professional or industry associations are important stakeholders that were consulted for purposes of this study.

To synthesise, the preceding section discussed that each group of city stakeholders has a different role to play which affects city branding in the long-term in one way or the other. It was also discussed that the city stakeholders play important roles in the sustainability of city tourism (including cultural heritage attractions), quality of life of the city residents and visitors' destination experience and influencing efficient and effective branding of the city. Ultimately, according to Lestari *et al.* (2020), Stevens *et al.* (2021) and Swapan *et al.* (2022), only in-depth consultation and coordination of all these stakeholders can promote the success of a city's branding initiatives. City branding as a complex exercise that consists of many place brands that represents various city stakeholders is not only apparent in the multiple facets of the cities, but rather in terms of the city stakeholders that are involved in the process. The findings from this section indicate that city branding should at least consider the views of all the city stakeholders and not only consider a single institution. For the present study, the consultation or inclusion of all city tourism stakeholders in the city branding process can contribute to efficient and effective branding of the CoJ. Hence, city stakeholders were incorporated in the components 'assessing the current situation' and 'designing the branding strategy' of the FBJ that was suggested in this study. The next section explores branding as a marketing strategy.

2.4 DEFINING BRANDING

The American Marketing Association (2022) defines branding as creating value for goods and services so that they appear differently from the competition.

According to Alperyte and Isoraite (2019), an organisation/destination cannot differentiate its offering from that of its competitors without designing its own brand because customers view a brand name as fundamental as the product itself. A brand, according to Hanna *et al.* (2020), is a competitive identity which differentiates an offering from other offerings. The author further elaborates that this identity makes a product or service memorable and enables potential customers to recognise a product or service, in our case a destination. In other words, a brand must be identifiable to customers rather than having attractive identities only (Matiza & Slabbert, 2020). Research by Sokolowska *et al.* (2022) agrees with the notion that a brand is supported by the price and quality of the product which triggers customers' emotions. In their line of thought, a brand resembles a product, which adds more value that differs in some way from that of competitors which contributes to the satisfaction of the customer.

Yu and Kim (2020) note that a brand represents the backbone of a product which should permit the linkage between the core elements of a destination. However, Liu and Andriano-Moore (2020) assert that a brand presents a story to prospective customers, who see a connection, while Hussein (2020) maintains that a brand creates a memorable experience in the market. In defining a brand, it is essential to take into consideration the demand and supply sides of the product or destination (Jesca, Kumbirai & Hurombo, 2014). In this way, Jesca *et al.* (2014) gave a more balanced approach by differentiating the supply-side and the demand-side. According to these authors, a brand should give an offering identity which should be aspired by customers and an image which must be held in the minds of the consumer (Jesca *et al.*, 2014). All these definitions prove that a brand is more than a sign or a logo which is meant not only for identification, but rather for both identification and differentiation of a company's offering from its competitors. Because branding enables both identification and differentiation of products and services, how has the concept been incorporated into city branding? The following section explores the linkage between city marketing and city branding for the purposes of this study.

2.5 LINKING CITY MARKETING TO CITY BRANDING

According to Torres-Zamudio, Gonzalez-Castro and Manzano-Duran (2020), since the 2000, city marketing researchers began to focus on city branding which led to the branding of cities or destinations. Zenker *et al.* (2017) indicate that this resulted in researchers shifting their focus to answering whether it is possible to apply branding principles to cities/or destinations. In response to the aforementioned question, Eugenio-Vela *et al.* (2020) suggest that the branding of cities can work as a blanket that embraces many stakeholders and audiences, so long as the values that are built as the key brand are put together through a vision which gives meaning and direction. Therefore, according to Sandbach (2022), a city brand becomes a collection of brands similar to product lines which can be used for city branding.

Braun *et al.* (2016) suggest that city marketing practitioners are now employing corporate branding techniques for city branding strategies. According to Henninger *et al.* (2016), this is so because city marketing practitioners are interested in the three main benefits of corporate branding, namely, offering a different product from that of competitors, transparency, where customers seek to gain access to the company behind its brands and products and cutting costs, where companies promote brands at the same time unlike promoting many brands separately. The authors further suggest that like corporate brands, city brands differ from product branding because they are faced with complications such as having many stakeholders, a variety of organisations creating the brand and less control over products. However, Kavaratzis (2011) added that it can be concluded that corporate branding offer lessons to the city marketing practitioner since the marketing mix is suitable to cities and their marketing campaigns can help with the refinement of marketing theories of cities. Hence the following subsections examine how branding has been or is being employed as a strategy of city marketing in a general context and for the purposes of this study, later in a cultural heritage context.

2.5.1 Branding as a strategy of city marketing in a general context

Ye and Bjorner (2018) view the concept as involving the design, planning and communication of the name and identity to build or manage the reputation of the

city with the aim of promoting it in a highly competitive market. Bonakdar and Andirac (2020) argue that visitors nowadays are more worried about what the city offers to them to satisfy their needs. Hence, cities should be branded in a way that will attract visitors, residents, and investors. Sokolowska *et al.* (2022) believe that this is so because city branding is an approach that conceptualises the city as a brand. However, Zenker, Petersen and Anholt (2017) assert that branding a city is a complicated process as compared to branding products or services as it begins with the discovery of the city's identity which is what city marketers want the prospective visitors to perceive it (Pike, Gentle, Kelly & Beatson, 2018). According to VanHoose *et al.* (2021), city branding does not only imply promotion but in some cases, it is used to revitalise the city image. Because city marketers are striving to create different city brands, Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2015) note that there is a need to assess what attributes will set them apart from the competition.

Scholvin (2022) believes that because of competition for visitors, residents and investors, cities should consider attributes that will improve their image during their branding process. In view of these facts, some cities are progressing while others are stagnant or are becoming dilapidated (Kasapi & Cela, 2017). According to Torres-Zamudio *et al.* (2020), city marketers need to understand the importance of branding their cities. Hussein (2020) highlights that if visitors view a city brand as unattractive, this perception devalues the image of that city and may not succeed soon. This, according to Kusumawati *et al.* (2023), can ultimately affect the number of investors coming to that city, paint a bad picture of the business environment and ultimately reduce the number of visitors travelling to that city. However, Alegro and Turnsek (2021) aver that for a city to be successful in its pursuit of city branding, the designed brand must correspond with the facts about the city; its image must communicate one positive image, meet the visitors' aspirations and be different from other competing cities.

To synthesise, from the foregoing discussion, it can be deduced that the prerogative of city branding is to attract residents, investors and visitors to enhance a city's economic well-being (Zenker *et al.*, 2017). For purposes of this study, city branding has to do with the way in which visitors perceive and visit cities/destinations. Typically, DMOs identify three levels of a city brand. The first

is the essence of the city brand, which is a single value that visitors can easily understand. This feature portrays the personality of the city brand. The second level concerns the benefit that is derived from the city brand, such as status, emotion and image that should match the needs of the visitors. The third level involves the attributes that are directly noticeable which include tangible characteristics such as colour, shape, graphics and functions (Belabas, 2023).

Considering these levels, city brands occur in two segments, that is, city brands that are a major tool for city differentiation and to represent a promise of value. However, from a visitors' point of view, a city brand is a short cut to a decision-making process on which city to visit (Yu & Kim, 2020). Although differentiation between cities is dependent on the characteristics of the city, visitors often do not take the time to compare and contrast them. Belabas (2023) laments that just like product brands, city brands evoke certain values, emotions and qualifications in the visitors' mind about the likely benefits and values of the city's offering. A comprehensive city brand entails more than the communication of positive messages to prospective visitors (Rinaldi *et al.*, 2021). It involves the maintenance of the city brand, delivery of the city offering and enticing local and international visitation which the CoJ has struggled to achieve. To mobilise local and international support, cities experiencing negative perceptions in source markets resort to employing revitalising strategies using cultural heritage resources (Dai *et al.*, 2022).

The next section discusses branding as a strategy of city marketing in a cultural heritage context with the view of informing the framework suggested in this research study.

2.5.2 Branding as a strategy of city marketing in a cultural heritage context

According to Freire *et al.* (2022), people have been travelling for cultural reasons for a long time, visiting monuments, museums, and attending cultural events (Altangerel, 2020). Collectively, the aforementioned activities form part of the broader tourism experience. Furthermore, Freire *et al.* (2022) indicate that recently people have started to enjoy cultural heritage experiences which have seen a significant growth in this type of tourism. Van der Merwe (2013) highlights

that defining the term has raised some concern in the tourism circles. However, some researchers attempted to define the concept in varying ways. The World Tourism Organisation (WTO) (2018) defines it as a form of tourism where the main purpose is to visit historical sites, buildings, study vacations, and attending to cultural events. According to Altangerel (2020), the notion involves tourists travelling to different places to learn and experience how people used to live or how they are living.

Cultural heritage is, therefore, according to Altangerel (2020), not comparable but occur at different levels, that is, locally, regionally and nationally. In other words, it is seen differently in other parts of the tourism industry. This type of tourism can be categorised into two categories, that is, tangible and intangible. Lonardi and Unterpertinger (2022) define tangible cultural and heritage tourism as referring to buildings, sites, the things that we can see, while intangible refers to a people's way of life.

Freire *et al.* (2022) argue that cultural heritage resources have been employed by destinations to create cultural, social and economic prosperity globally. The authors further elaborate that in the present-day situation, cities employ strategies to exploit their own resources, such as cultural heritage in the form of events creation and promotion. Former industrial cities such as Glasgow and Rotterdam have attempted to augment their cultural image through the Cultural Capital of Europe competition (VanHoose *et al.*, 2021). In support of the foregoing argument, Freire *et al.* (2022) attest that cultural heritage has been incorporated into city branding strategy for tourism and job opportunities and enhancing the city's image and attractiveness. The authors further maintain that many European cities have responded to job losses because of economic downturns through city branding using culture to increase tourism and job opportunities. According to Nobre and Sousa (2022), cultural image attracts visitors, a fact that has been accepted by many city marketers and authorities (Cudny *et al.*, 2020).

Freire *et al.* (2022) believe that to carry out efficient and effective city branding, destinations should use cultural heritage in their city branding projects. In the same vein, Nobre and Sousa (2022) concur that successful destinations use locally oriented sources of competitive advantages. In view of the preceding

discussion, cities that employ cultural heritage in their branding endeavours are better placed to become successful (Dai *et al.*, 2022).

According to Ciuculescu and Luca (2022), city marketers often ignore the fact that successful cities have a unique story to tell and a unique selling position that can be natural or artificial. The author further mentions examples of destinations such as Greece, Italy and Egypt which have leveraged their cultural heritage and employed it as a marketing strategy to brand themselves, therefore, setting themselves apart from other competing destinations. In this way, the aforementioned destinations can differentiate themselves since they offer authentic experiences which cannot be copied by any other destination. A visitor who may want to see the real sphinx will have to visit Egypt, as this is unique to that country (Marzouk, 2019). Hence, the cultural heritage richness of the CoJ can be considered as a unique selling point that the city marketers can employ in pursuit of efficiently and effectively branding the city.

It could be deduced that cultural heritage contributes to the differentiation of a city from the competitors as it cannot be copied in any way because it is unique to the city in question. Cities employ their unique sources of competitive advantages in the form of cultural heritage because it is easy for prospective visitors to identify them and easily decide on a city to visit. Hence, cultural heritage was incorporated in the component 'designing the branding strategy' of the FBJ suggested in the current research study. Having explored how cultural heritage has been employed and is being used in a way to differentiate a city from competition, it is apparent to explore possible branding strategies that cities can employ to change the negative perceptions in the market into positive ones. Hence the following subsection discusses branding strategies that cities experiencing a negative image in the source markets can use to change the bad perceptions into positive perceptions.

2.5.3 Branding strategies

While the knowledge of city branding orientation generated a theoretical understanding, a proper formulation of the city branding strategy requires a thorough analysis of a reference point. To do this, city branding strategies should be applied in practical situations to mediate real life situations like truthfully

branding cities or destinations. While there are several suggested reference points as indicated in the city branding literature, the current study focused specifically on city branding strategies for improving the image of the city in source markets as suggested by Prilenska (2012). This subsection, therefore, defined what endogenous strategy and exogenous strategy implies, and subsequently investigated how the two strategies contribute to the efficient and effective branding of destinations when viewed negatively in source markets. This allowed this study to clarify the different approaches city marketers have been using or can use in branding cities or destinations with a negative image in source markets.

Various authors reported on city branding strategies for revitalising cities that include creative branding, experience branding, personality-related branding, developing flagships and using hallmark events (Florida, 2003; Peck, 2005; Lorentzen, 2009; Prilenska, 2012; Cudny *et al.*, 2020). According to Prilenska (2012), such strategies are crucial to cities that are viewed as having a negative image in the source markets in the quest for attracting visitors to stay for long in their territories. To realise the aforementioned goal, Prilenska (2012) asserts that cities can choose to adopt either the endogenous (creative) or the exogenous (experience) city strategy. According to Prilenska (2012), both strategies strive to revitalise the image and the city's reputation in pursuit of fostering inward development and improving visitors' experience and the residents' quality of life, therefore, revitalising the city image. These branding strategies are applicable to the Johannesburg situation because the city is failing to retain visitors for a long time owing to its negative image as it is renowned for high crime levels, lawlessness such as xenophobia, high corruption levels (Malleka *et al.*, 2022), outbreaks of pandemics such as HIV/AIDS and most recently, COVID-19 (WHO, 2020). It is assumed that if the city marketers can employ strategies for revitalising the image of the city, visitor stats to the city will increase which promotes the socio-economic prosperity of the city. These strategies were explored for the purposes of this study in the following sub-section.

2.5.3.1 Endogenous strategy

The endogenous strategy seeks to create and develop creative centres in the city to attract skilful and innovative individuals for the development of the city

(Prilenska, 2012). The author further explained that this strategy strives to change the perceptions of the prospective residents into believing that it is now an innovative city, therefore, attracting skilful people. Florida (2003) argues that the core theoretical arguments for this approach are that today's world is more concerned with the human factor which drives the economy forward. According to Florida (2003), innovative individuals such as scientists and researchers, among others, are the dominant class in society. According to Peck (2005), such people are not motivated by financial causes but want to be associated with innovative cities, hence, city marketers' focus on promoting their cities as creative environments to attract such professionals.

The creative city is referred to as endogenous by Lorentzen (2009) because it seeks to attract innovative people who are motivated by the city's development. Prilenska (2012) opines that these cities are driven by the zeal to dominate in innovative circles, which are technology, super-power industries and so offer innovative experiences. The author further highlights that these cities focus on investing in qualitative urban environment, that is, the employment and career opportunities of their target market (talented individuals). Because of this, most of such cities create an image of a serious and dullness city; hence it is a disadvantage (Lorentzen, 2009). Peck (2005) argues that as such these cities do not attract tourists who are going to spend more time and money within their boundaries thereby promoting the social and economic prosperity of the city and its citizens but are concerned about attracting innovative individuals. Prilenska (2012) suggests that in cases where a city may want to attract tourists who are going to bring in money in the form of foreign currency, the experience/exogenous city strategy is an option and this is discussed next.

2.5.3.2 Exogenous strategy

On the contrary, Prilenska (2012) elucidates that the exogenous approach is concerned with the city-bound activities where the production and consumption of experiences are branded and co-branded as a product. This strategy, according to Lorentzen (2009), is concerned about developing the city as an attraction and cities that do not offer much potential in terms of innovation can employ this strategy. According to Prilenska (2012), such cities will enjoy benefits from the attractions they offer, that is, both artificial and natural attractions, city

products, and hosting events. Peck (2005) argues that these cities will mostly attract visitors and people that will not stay there for life, such as tourists and expats. Cudny *et al.* (2020) accentuate that this strategy promotes urban development to develop the city as an attraction. In support of the foregoing views, Kemp *et al.* (2011) note that the availability of such experiences helps to form the experience identity for the city which ultimately results in many visitors flocking to the city. Zenker (2013) indicated that city bound experiences include events, visiting art galleries, museums and sightseeing. Johannesburg as a city that is mostly bypassed by tourists for other destinations around the country can employ this strategy. In this way, the city will be able to lure tourists to its territories thereby encouraging them to stay for longer in the city. This, according to Mbhiza and Mearns (2014), is possible because the city offers a variety of cultural heritage attractions (Johannesburg benefactions are in chapters 4 and 6). This is so because cultural heritage plays an essential role in building city brands since they allow a city to display its history and heritage (Cudny *et al.*, 2020).

Above all, Prilenska (2012) adumbrates that there are three techniques for city branding alongside the experience and creative strategies, namely:

- Personality-related branding, where the branding process will be centred on an individual who is an icon, fostering city regeneration.
- Developing flagships projects is another form where architecture is the driving force.
- The use of hallmark events as unique selling points for city branding.

This subsection discussed city branding strategies, namely, the endogenous and exogenous strategies as strategies that cities experiencing a negative image in the source markets can use to change the negative perceptions into positive ones. Both city branding strategies result in a certain city form. The endogenous strategy results in a qualitative city environment that attracts skilled personnel while the exogenous strategy results into an experience of the city that attracts visitors because of the events, services and activities offered to cater for the needs of the tourists.

City branding's main objective is the image of the city. However, that image should emanate from the actual situation in the city. To put this into effect, cities

engage in redevelopment projects, provision of services, event organisation and developing the community. Such projects enable cities to create new images that will attract visitors, new residents, and investors. Consequently, cities realise socio-economic prosperity. Hence cities should take stock of what they offer competitively on the market and strive to promote their competitive advantage as their unique selling point. Zenker and Braun (2017) assert that cities can employ any of the aforementioned strategies based on their unique characteristics to realise certain potential benefits that lead to successful city branding.

For the purposes of this study, the exogenous strategy was considered for the purposes of suggesting the FBJ. Through the employment of the exogenous strategy, a city can change negative perceptions in the source markets into positive ones and can enjoy certain benefits. Hence, the following section discusses potential benefits of city branding to visitors and to the city/destination alike as the ultimate reason for branding the city or destination. This is crucial to meet the primary aim of this study, that is, developing a framework for branding the CoJ potentially as a cultural heritage destination.

2.5.4 Expected/potential benefits of branding to visitors

The preceding section examined city branding strategies to generate a theoretical understanding of this dimension. This section of this study attempts to bring about a better understanding of its practical wisdom, its good intentions and how it has been used to modify the potential negative impacts of tourism to the city, hence the possible benefits of city branding to visitors must be examined. Various authors (Kavaratzis, 2008; Boo *et al.*, 2009; Pike, 2009; Klopper & North, 2011; Hanna & Rowley, 2011; Herstein & Berger, 2014; Khoo & Badarulzaman, 2014; Antiroiko, 2015; Braun *et al.*, 2018; Alperyte & Isoraite, 2019) reported on the benefits of city branding to visitors which promote visitation to the destination and so proves the success of the city's branding efforts. Therefore, the following six themes are evident (branding promotes differentiation, simplifies decision-making and eradicates search costs, reduces risks, indicates quality, creates a relationship between the city and its visitors and resembles symbols). These benefits are further explained in the next sub-section.

A) Branding promotes differentiation and helps visitors identify the city.

According to Herstein and Berger (2014), city marketers should highlight the city's unique attributes and consolidate them into their branding strategy. Prytherch and Maiques (2009) found that a quintessential brand is difficult to replicate, that is, a visitor who wants to experience the real sphinx will have to visit Egypt and a visitor who may be interested in the post-apartheid South Africa will have to visit Johannesburg, since the fight against apartheid mostly took place around the CoJ (Van der Merwe, 2016). A unique city brand will help city visitors choose which city to visit because no other city will be able offer the same experiences (Prytherch & Maiques, 2009).

B) Branding makes it easy for visitors to make decisions and eradicate risks.

According to Boo *et al.* (2009), visitors are most likely to visit cities that are popular and where they had a memorable experience. The authors further suggest that when visitors make decisions about their prospective holiday destination, they take too much time because of the expensive nature of the tourism product. However, when a city has an established and well-known brand, visitors will always visit such cities (Boo *et al.*, 2009).

C) Branding reduces risks

Klopper and North (2011) stated that the risks can be:

- Functional risks – visitors fear that their expectations will not be satisfied when they visit a certain city.
- Physical risks – visitors might not want to visit certain cities because of elevated levels of crime or political instability as this threatens their physical well-being.
- Social risks – visitors normally choose a certain city brand to seek approval from other peer groups.
- Financial risks – visiting a certain city might not provide value for money. If visitors think that the city did not offer their money's worth, then they will not visit again.
- Psychological risks – a city brand that do not meet the aspirations of visitors might disturb their mental comfort.

- Time risk – a city brand that does not meet visitor’s needs can lead to a situation whereby visitors will spend their time looking for a suitable city that meets their needs.

According to Klopper and North (2011), cities must focus on understanding visitors’ views of the risks exposed to them. The authors went on to specify that this promotes cities to take care of visitors’ risks in line to reduce them. This emanates from the idea that visitors would visit cities that fulfil their aspirations and that are popular with them.

D) Branding is an indication of quality

Kavaratzis (2008) accentuates that visitors associate a city brand with high level quality experiences that that city can offer. The author stated that this simplifies the visitors’ purchase decisions and promotes visitation. Antiroiko (2015) noted that branded and successful destinations are always the first ones to come to the mind of a prospective visitor.

E) Branding builds a relationship between a city and its visitors

According to Kavaratzis (2008), visitors and city brands communicate with each other just like people do. Hence, powerful relationships lead to loyalty because visitors are aware that their aspirations will be satisfied based on their previous experiences.

F) A brand resembles symbols

According to Khoo and Badarulzaman (2014), visitors will always go to cities that have attributes that will fulfil their anticipations because they are of the view that city brands impact on what other people will say and think about them and give them social status. Therefore, when the image of the city is viewed as the same as the visitor’s self-image, then visitors will believe that their needs will be satisfied.

From the foregoing discussion on the brand hold by a city holds benefits to the residents and tourists alike as they share the same space in the city. This encourages visitors to continue visiting the city; hence, city marketers should always consider these benefits when carrying out their branding projects. Expected or potential benefits to the city brand are discussed next.

2.5.5 Expected/potential benefits of branding to cities

Various authors reported on the benefits of branding to cities and tourism destinations (Boo *et al.*, 2009; Gonzalez, 2011; Klopper & North, 2011; Braun, 2012; Sevin, 2014; Keller, 2015; Henninger *et al.*, 2016; Joo & Seo, 2017; Zenker & Braun, 2017; Ye & Bjorner, 2018; Tasci *et al.*, 2019) and the following five themes are evident (enables and simplifies selection of the city as a destination of choice, legal protection, offers economic returns, promote visitor loyalty, and creates a competitive edge over competition). These benefits will now be explored:

A) Branding makes it easy for a city or destination to be chosen.

Savin (2014) suggests that branded cities are easily recognised because of their established brands in the market. The author stated that this makes it easy for prospective visitors to revisit them based on the past experiences they had in those cities.

B) Branding gives a city legal protection.

Zenker and Braun (2017) opine that branding cities is becoming increasingly important because of the fierce competition among cities nowadays. These sentiments are supported by Ye and Bjorner (2018) when they indicate that cities may offer the same experiences to visitors but when they carry out the branding process in the correct way, branding may protect them from other cities imitating their offerings.

C) Branding offers economic returns.

Joo and Seo (2017) note that loyalty is brought about by strong brands, therefore, ensuring future visitation for the city. As such, the authors argue that prominent city brands may charge exorbitant prices and may not be affected by price sensitivity. Braun (2012) suggests that visitors are willing to spend more in cities or destinations that offer quality experiences. In this way, cities involved get more financially.

D) Branding promotes visitor loyalty.

Keller (2015) articulates that loyalty is the ultimate goal of branding. Gonzalez (2011) indicates that this is so because branding promotes trust among visitors,

which leads to improved visitation and recommendations to friends and relatives. Hence, Braun (2012) argues that loyalty reduces the risks and promotes visitation.

E) Branding creates a competitive edge over competition.

According to Zenker and Braun (2017), a prominent city brand ensures that a city realises competitive advantages. In terms of the real Sphinx, no other destination can compete with Egypt in that regard, while destinations such as Amsterdam and New York have established themselves as smart destinations (Prytherch & Maiques, 2009). This notion of a smart city will stick in the minds of visitors and prospective visitors for some time; hence, the cities can shrug off competition from other less known cities.

This section discussed the potential benefits of city branding to visitors and to cities alike. While the important potential benefits of city branding to both visitors and the city highlighted are not meant to be an exhaustive list, rather are examples of the benefits of city branding which was submitted to the visitors and to the city alike. A variety of city marketing scholars view city branding as not an option but an absolute requirement for city success as it brings social, economic and ecological prosperity to the city (Davidson *et al.*, 2019; Ripoll Gonzalez & Gale, 2023).

To synthesise, the main findings from the extant literature regarding city branding's potential benefits are that:

- Branding *promotes differentiation* and therefore, helps visitors to identify a city because of its unique characteristics or attractions (Kasapi & Cela, 2017). When a city is capable of creating or building a unique brand, this sets that city apart from the other competing cities and therefore, creates competitive edge for the city (Antiroiko, 2015).
- It is *easy for visitors to make informed decisions* based on which city to visit when a city has a successful brand (Alperyte & Isoraite, 2019). This reduces search costs in terms of which city to visit decisions. Choosing a destination is costly and time consuming for visitors, but when a city has an established brand, it is easy for visitors to choose the city as their preferred destination.

- Generally, branding *reduces risks* associated with the fear that visitors might not be satisfied when they visit a certain city (Antiroiko, 2015). High levels of crime and political instability in certain cities normally threatens the physical well-being of the visitors while at the destination. Rejection from peer groups which results in visitors choosing the same destination as their friends or peers is another risk, visiting certain cities is seen as offering value for money while visiting other cities is seen as not worth it. Visitors normally have the impression that certain cities do not satisfy their aspirations which lead to dissatisfaction and in cases where a city brand does not satisfy the visitor's needs, they will waste time searching for destinations that will satisfy their aspirations. If cities dwell on reducing such risks, visitor satisfaction will become a reality and city branding will be successful.
- Successful city brands are viewed as offering visitors high level *quality experiences* (Khoo & Badarulzaman, 2014). Such cities will always stay in the minds of prospective visitors and will experience repeat visits as the visitors believe that their needs will be satisfied. City branding in this way promotes visitation.
- City branding *promotes loyalty* to the city in question. This is because visitors are always communicating with the successful city brands in a continuous basis (Zenker & Braun, 2017). When visitors' aspirations are met during their first visit to the city in question, they will always want to visit such cities since they believe and trust that their needs will be met.
- A successful city brand is a *symbol of prosperity* (Braun *et al.*, 2018). Such cities will always be likely to be the first choice of consideration because visitors want to maintain that social status of being associated with successful cities.
- In terms of the destination, branding puts the destination in question in the limelight, which allows more simplification of the city or destination to visit. That way it allows effective communication to reach prospective visitors (Keller, 2015). This is so because if the visitors had an unforgettable experience at the destination, they will always be willing to visit that city over again.

- Branding *gives a city legal protection* because brands are legal entities and copying is unlawful (Henninger *et al.*, 2016). Although cities may offer the same experiences to visitors, it is accomplished through the employment of a city or a destination's unique features such as its cultural heritage it is not easy to replicate.
- Branding *brings economic prosperity* to the destination in question as it promotes visitation which leads to the inflow of foreign currency through visitor spending (Kasapi & Cela, 2017). A popular city can charge exorbitant prices but because visitors' aspirations are met, these prices will not turn away visitors.
- Branding *promotes visitor loyalty* which is the goal of any destination (Zenker & Braun, 2017). This becomes a reality because when visitors' aspirations are met, they develop a sense of trust in the destination. When there is loyalty, there are repeat visits and positive recommendations to friends and relatives. Risks are also reduced because visitors believe that their aspirations will always be met at that destination.
- Branding *creates competitive advantages* above the other competing destinations (Tasci *et al.*, 2019). Cities that meet visitors' aspirations will be the first to be recalled in the memory of the visitors owing to their unforgettable experiences. In this way, such destinations will have an edge over their competitors.

Besides the potential benefits of branding to both the visitors and the city/destination, city branding is an overly complex task that comes with a variety of challenges (Maxim, 2019). Some cities are progressing while others are stagnant or are becoming dilapidated (Kasapi & Cela, 2017). Hence, city marketers should be aware of these challenges to avoid or minimise them in the brand building process. The following section discusses the city branding challenges as highlighted by researchers. For the purposes of this study, these are crucial as they guided the researcher in the development of the suggested framework for branding the CoJ potentially as a cultural heritage destination.

2.5.6 City branding challenges

According to Belabas (2023), cities across the world are competing for investors, residents and visitors. Reynolds (2023) argues that considering the number of cities in the world, it is difficult for every city to attract investors, residents and visitors. Kasapi and Cela (2017) assert that each year comes with the introduction of new cities while some are disappearing just like that. In confirming this view, VanHoose *et al.* (2021) states that this comes because of cities failing to successfully promote themselves continuously. Skinner (2021) highlights that this failure emanates from the fact that branding a city is challenging and different from branding products and services; hence it comes with a variety of challenges. According to Reynolds (2023), building a differentiated identity for a city that has a competitive advantage is a complex task and challenges are inherent to the city in question. Maxim (2019) highlights that because of increased competition as a result of globalisation, city branding has become more strategic, and challenges differ from city to city. Several challenges are constantly faced by city marketers in their quest to successfully brand their cities as highlighted by various city marketing researchers. These include participation of a variety of stakeholders; many stakeholders do not understand branding; lack of political support; lack of sufficient funding; rampant delays in the branding process; lack of clear leadership; unclear operational brand management; strategy formulation complications; insufficient monitoring; poor situational awareness and overcrowding, congestion and conflicts between visitors and residents). These are explored further in the next sub-section:

A) Participation and involvement of a variety of stakeholders

According to Almeyda-Ibanez and George (2017), the city branding process requires the participation of many stakeholders representing public sector organisations, firms and non-profit organisations (NPOs) who have different goals. However, Hakala (2021) avers that different stakeholders have varying interests and activities; hence because of the variety of stakeholders it becomes extremely complicated to involve all other stakeholder's interests and views. The author further explains that this presents greater challenges regarding city branding because all other stakeholders and organisations involved have their own interests and preferences.

B) Many stakeholders do not understand branding

Lestari *et al.* (2020) allude that the public sector is not familiar with marketing and branding. Hence, many stakeholders and individuals will reject it since they assume it to be too commercial. The authors further elaborate that many of these organisations view the process of branding as a merely logo developing process. In this way, they do not value their contribution to the city branding process. Skinner (2021) asserts that this situation contributes to the ambiguity and disagreements with regards to the success of the city branding projects.

C) Lack of political support

According to Kerr and Balakrishnan (2012), attaining sufficient political support from the public sector is another stumbling block. In the same vein, Vanolo (2018) contends that although the private sector stakeholders understand and are more familiar with the concept of city branding, mobilising public sector organisations to participate in the city branding projects and make them take responsibility for the city branding project is a major challenge. According to Eshuis *et al.* (2013), although residents are involved in the branding of the city, it remains difficult to get them involved in the brand management process which complicates the whole process.

D) Lack of sufficient funding

The other challenge of city branding, according to Eshuis *et al.* (2013), is securing enough funding for the city branding projects. Additionally, the authors maintain that the major problem is to attain funding from the private sector stakeholders since they might have different interests. Vanolo (2018) adumbrates that this is so because it is exceedingly difficult to cut off essential activities and make financial commitments since branding involves many stakeholders. Eshuis *et al.* (2013) concur that to a lesser extent, attracting funding from private sector stakeholders is also problematic as they might have different interests.

E) Rampant delays in the branding process

Moilanen (2015) refers to the fact that major delays are synonymous with city branding processes because many stakeholders involved automatically delay the process of internal communication and decision-making leading to further delays in the preceding stages of the brand-building process. The author concurs that in terms of the public sector, delays in decision-making regarding funding are also common owing to the bureaucratic nature of the public sector. However, as Vanolo (2018) implies, in comparison, the private sector stakeholders are generally faster as compared to public sector stakeholders who promote frustrations among the stakeholders, ultimately resulting in frustrations on one side and hastiness on the other.

F) Lack of clear leadership

Organisational issues are another challenge that is common during the city branding process (Medway, Swanson, Neirotti, Pasquinelli & Zenker, 2015). The authors explain that this involves differing perceptions of key stakeholders together with the lack of clear leadership. This is so because there are unclear decision-making structures, non-existence of coordination between stakeholders, the fear of losing power when participating in a collaborated branding process and the difficulty of creating an effective system for internal communication within an organisation with a very loose structured network (Medway *et al.*, 2015). Moilanen (2015) further highlight that lack of coordination is the main concern regarding finding organisations or individuals who can take charge of the branding process.

G) Unclear operational brand management

According to Zhang and Zhao (2009), another challenge of city branding is operational brand management. The authors explain that this challenge is in two parts, that is, day-to-day management issues of the external marketing communication campaign. Combining the activities of individual stakeholders and that of the city is very difficult. In this regard, incompetency in terms of city marketing, difficulties of stakeholders in using the city brand, different interests and activities and different messages being sent to visitors by the city and all the city stakeholders (Zhang & Zhao, 2009). Additionally, Moilanen (2015)

accentuates that the other part involves making the experience of visitors becoming a reality when they use city offerings. In this way, moving from words to action is a problem experienced by many cities.

H) Strategy formulation complications

Saez *et al.* (2013) assert that strategy formulation for the city brand is another constraint. The process involves problems when it comes to compiling the marketing message to different market segments, creating a unique selling point, dwelling on wrong competing cities, defining the city brand, identifying the relationships between the brand and the provincial brand or national brand, and incompetency in terms of strategic thinking (Saez *et al.*, 2013).

I) Insufficient monitoring and poor situational awareness

Moilanen (2015) concurs that monitoring and poor situational awareness is another issue of great concern. According to the author, city marketers face a widespread problem of using fewer effective measures for assessing brand success, using wrong measures and using uncomplicated monitoring tools. Vanolo (2018) articulates that together, these issues lead to poor situational analysis and market understanding, inefficient use of resources and failure to justify actions and budget requirements to decision makers.

J) Overcrowding, congestion and conflicts

Lastly, according to Maxim (2019), cities nowadays are faced with challenges such as overcrowding as citizens migrate from rural areas to urban areas and from other countries in search of greener pastures such as conflicts between visitors and locals as they share the scarce resources in the cities, property conflicts created by peer-to-peer platforms such as Airbnb and congestion in busy areas such as central business districts (CBDs). All these challenges disturb city branding projects.

Because of these challenges, it is of paramount importance that strategic city branding is carefully conducted when aiming to establish a successful city brand (Moilanen, 2015). According to Zhang and Zhao (2009), there is a need for cities to identify their competitive advantages to distinguish them from other competing cities. It is a reality that some cities are failing while others are succeeding in their

branding endeavours (Kasapi & Cela, 2017). To synthesise, the main findings from the extant literature regarding city branding constraints are as follows:

- City branding is affected by the *variety of stakeholders* that represents public sector organisations, firms and NPOs who have different interests which complicates the whole branding process since all these differing interests need to be considered and the different stakeholders need also to accept the proposed city brand (Almeyda-Ibanez & George, 2017). Considering the interests of all the stakeholders, it is difficult and creating a brand that is embraced by all the city stakeholders is also a difficult task.
- Furthermore, many stakeholders *do not understand the process of city branding* (Moilanen, 2015). Many stakeholders view the whole process of city branding as being too commercial, that is, as concerning logo development only. In this way, stakeholders do not take city branding seriously and this leads to disagreements among city stakeholders and contribute to city branding failure.
- Also attaining *sufficient political support* from the public sector is also a big problem because the stakeholders from the public sector do not understand the essence of the city branding process unlike the private sector (Kerr & Balakrishnan, 2012). The stakeholders from the private sector understand and are quite familiar with the process of city branding and they are more willing to embrace the whole process. Although residents may be willing to engage in the initial branding process taking them on board in terms of managing, the process becomes difficult.
- Securing *enough funding* for the city branding process is a big problem especially from the private sector stakeholders because of the different interests and activities (Eshuis *et al.*, 2013). This is difficult because cutting off essential activities and making financial commitments to other different interests and activities is difficult.
- Generally, *major delays* are common in the city branding process because there are many stakeholders (Moilanen, 2015). This automatically delays the whole process of internal communication and decision-making which further

delays other stages of the city branding process. The bureaucratic nature of the public sector further contributes to delays.

- *Differing perceptions and views* of different stakeholders and lack of clear leadership forms a major problem (Medway *et al.*, 2015). This emanates from the fact that there are unclear decision-making structures, non-existence of coordination between stakeholders and the fear of losing power when participating in a collaborated branding process well as the difficulty of creating an effective system for internal communication within an organisation with very loose structured network.
- There is *unclear operational brand management* concerning the day-to-day management issues of the external marketing communicating campaign (Zhang & Zhao, 2009). Combining the activities of the stakeholders and the city is a problem. The problem of incompetency in terms of city marketing is that it will be difficult for stakeholders to incorporate the city brand.
- *Strategy formulation* for the city brand is another problem such as compiling the marketing message to different market segments, creating a unique selling point, concentrating on wrong competing cities, defining the city brand, identifying the relationships between the brand and the provincial brand or national brand, and incompetency in terms of strategic thinking (Saez *et al.*, 2013).
- *Insufficient monitoring and poor situational awareness* is another problem because cities are employing fewer effective measures for assessing their city brand and they also use wrong measures and uncomplicated monitoring tools (Moilanen, 2015). When there is poor situational analysis and market understanding, using inefficient use of resources and being unable to justify actions and budget requirements to decision makers, city branding will not be successful.
- Nowadays, *overcrowding, congestion and conflicts* in the cities are also a cause for concern as people migrate from rural areas to cities and from other cities and countries in search of better opportunities, conflicts arise between tourists and residents as they share the same space in the city and is created by peer-to-peer platforms such as the Airbnb (Maxim, 2019).

The foregoing subsection discussed challenges that DMOs should be mindful of when carrying out the city branding projects. When city marketers are aware of these challenges and work towards overcoming them, city branding will most probably be successful. But how are these challenges mitigated to an extent? Various city branding scholars developed a variety of models in an attempt to mitigate city branding challenges through the development of guidelines to city branding. The following section examines six city branding frameworks/models proposed by Virgo and De Chernatony (2005), Merrilees *et al.* (2007), Balakrishnan (2009), Ofori (2010), Hanna and Rowley (2011), and Zenker (2011) with the intention of informing the FBJ for the purposes of this study.

2.6 CITY BRANDING FRAMEWORKS

Scholars in the field of city branding developed frameworks to determine components associated with and central to carrying out efficient and effective city branding (Virgo & De Chernatony, 2005; Merrilees *et al.*, 2007; Balakrishnan, 2009; Ofori, 2010; Hanna & Rowley, 2011; Zenker, 2011). In principle, these components will lead to result or influence efficient and effective city branding? The frameworks were explored to assist with the development of the FBJ for this current study, linking to the fourth secondary objective:

To capitalise on extant literature, elaborate on and suggest a framework for branding the CoJ.

In the academic sphere, studies are convincing and often better understood if they are shaped based on theoretical models. Frameworks or models help researchers by pointing out the direction to be followed in the study giving a picture of the content to be covered. To build upon the theory on city branding, this study was shaped by the models/frameworks discussed in the next subsection. The distinctions between them helped the researcher to critique the nature of the parameters of theoretical city branding frameworks when used or applied to cities and the current study.

2.6.1 Virgo and De Chernatony (2005) – Delphic brand vision buy-in model

Virgo and De Chernatony (2005) developed the Delphic brand vision buy-in model which discussed the importance of including many stakeholders when

developing a unified brand vision for creating a competitive city brand. In their study, they applied traditional corporate branding to city branding. As Virgo and De Chernatony (2005) imply, this is a daunting task as the city marketers strive to create multiple stakeholder buy-in to create a single brand vision. The authors developed a model that promotes the creation of a strong and tenacious brand. Although the model was developed for designing product and service brands, the authors thought of employing it to city branding because the phenomenon covers similar concepts as regular branding processes. This implies that models designed for product and service branding can be employed to city branding as well. The model is illustrated in Figure 2.3.

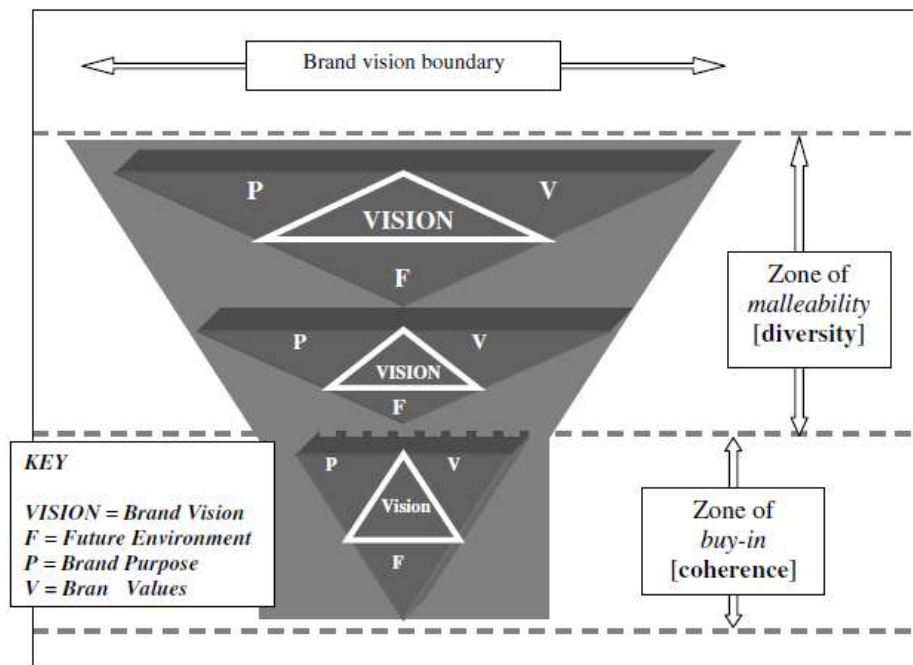


Figure 2.3: Delphic brand vision buy-in model

Source: Virgo & De Chernatony (2005)

According to Virgo and De Chernatony (2005), varying opinions and perceptions concerning the city's brand vision employing future environment, brand purpose and brand values are reflected on the top of the model. The Delphic technique illustrates that the gamut of comments regarding the brand vision (zone of malleability) should be repeated several times up to a point where all the stirrers agree on a single all-pervading vision (buy-in zone). However, for this study, only

top-level managers were interviewed and other important stakeholders such as city residents were left out.

The inclusion of city residents would have influenced the values of the city and the validity of this research. This model is, however, valuable for city branding as it involves many stakeholders. The findings of this model suggest that it is useful during the process of putting together brand vision from various stakeholders into one final city vision.

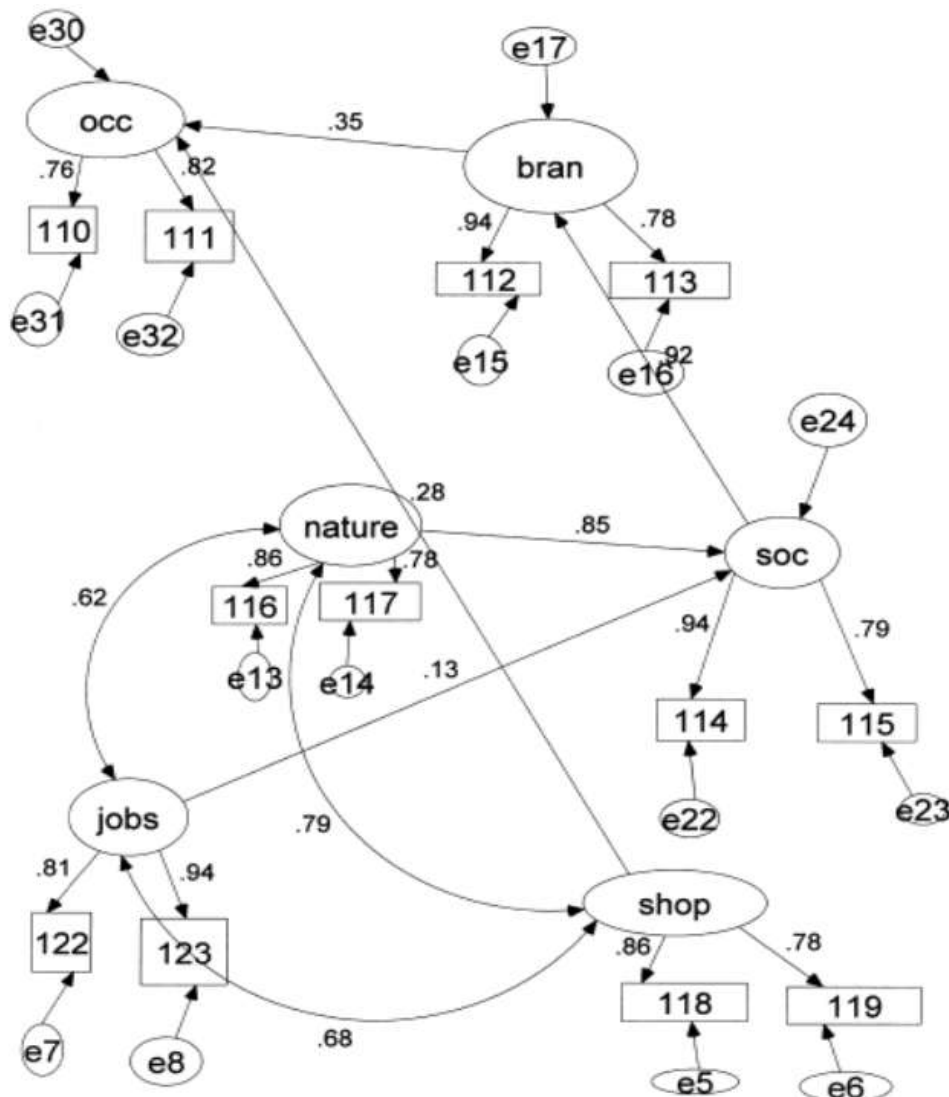
The advantage of this framework is that it provides a mechanism that helps to create multiple stakeholder buy-in to a single brand vision and consequently a strong cohesive brand is created. However, the disadvantages of the framework are that in their study, the researchers only interviewed top-level managers leaving out other critical stakeholders such as city residents which could have further validated the framework. The framework also does not consider the evaluation of the city brand as it is a development framework.

In support of the foregoing views, Belabas (2023) recommends that DMOs should partner with other city stakeholders including citizens/local residents to establish and define the identity which enables the determination of the city vision that reflects the actual identity. Stakeholders must view the city brand the way the city wants it to be viewed. If the opposite happens, then the city brand is bound to fail. This happens because a successful city brand promotes visitation and attracts other target groups such as residents and investors (Hussein, 2020). Yu and Kim (2020) further elaborate that this is true because a city's vision must be shared by all city stakeholders and prospective customers and that should be clearly shown in the core values of the city brand during the launch of the brand. Emphasis should be given to the relevance of the city brand to the tourism customer and how it fares against competition (Kusumawati *et al.*, 2023). Merrilees *et al.*'s (2007) structural model of city branding is discussed next.

2.6.2 Merrilees *et al.* (2007) – Structural model of city branding

Merrilees *et al.* (2007) developed the 'structural model of city branding'. In their model, Merrilees *et al.* (2007) emphasise that city residents are an important city stakeholder who should be consulted for city branding purposes as they have been overlooked for too long. They developed the structural model of city

branding to fill this gap. The focus of the model was on the brand attitudes of residents and the behaviour consequences of the residents' attitudes. Merrilees *et al.*'s (2007) model is made up of three equations as illustrated in Figure 2.4.



Occasional tourism intentions (OTI) = (Brand; Shopping)

Brand = (Social)

social = (Nature; Vibrancy; Recreation)

Figure 2.4: Structural model of city branding

Source: Merrilees *et al.* (2007)

The authors describe a city brand as brand attitudes of residents; social relates to interpersonal relationships; nature refers to the natural landscape; vibrancy portrays business vibrancy (employment creation); and recreation relates to activities or facilities for enjoyment. These variables, according to Merrilees *et al.*

(2007), should be considered as community variables and brand attitudes show particular features. The model was tested on Cairns' residents in Queensland in Australia, and it was found that social capital influences city brand attitudes and that nature mainly influences social capital, residents' satisfaction and visitors' activity. The authors suggested that the model presents city marketers with the opportunity to design city brands that reflect present-day society and creates a fresh image and evolves together with the changing needs of city visitors.

The city can do this through consultation workshops with all the city stakeholders and through interviews with key city stakeholders, including residents (Stylidis, 2020). In this way, the city marketers are able to identify the dimensions that they can promote so as to attract customers (residents, investors and visitors) (Rebelo *et al.*, 2020).

The advantage of the model is that it discusses key city attributes that influence city brand attitudes of residents which promote efficient and effective city branding. However, its drawback is that it did not include other city stakeholders such as city marketing experts who could have further validated the model. The framework did not consider evaluation of the city as well which proves that it is simply a descriptive model.

Balakrishnan's (2009) branding strategy for a destination is discussed next.

2.6.3 Balakrishnan (2009) – Branding strategy for a destination

Balakrishnan (2009) developed a framework for strategic branding of destinations after reviewing literature on corporate branding, product, service, destination marketing, place marketing and case studies of destinations to establish critical factors in strategic branding of destinations. Figure 2.5 presents this framework.

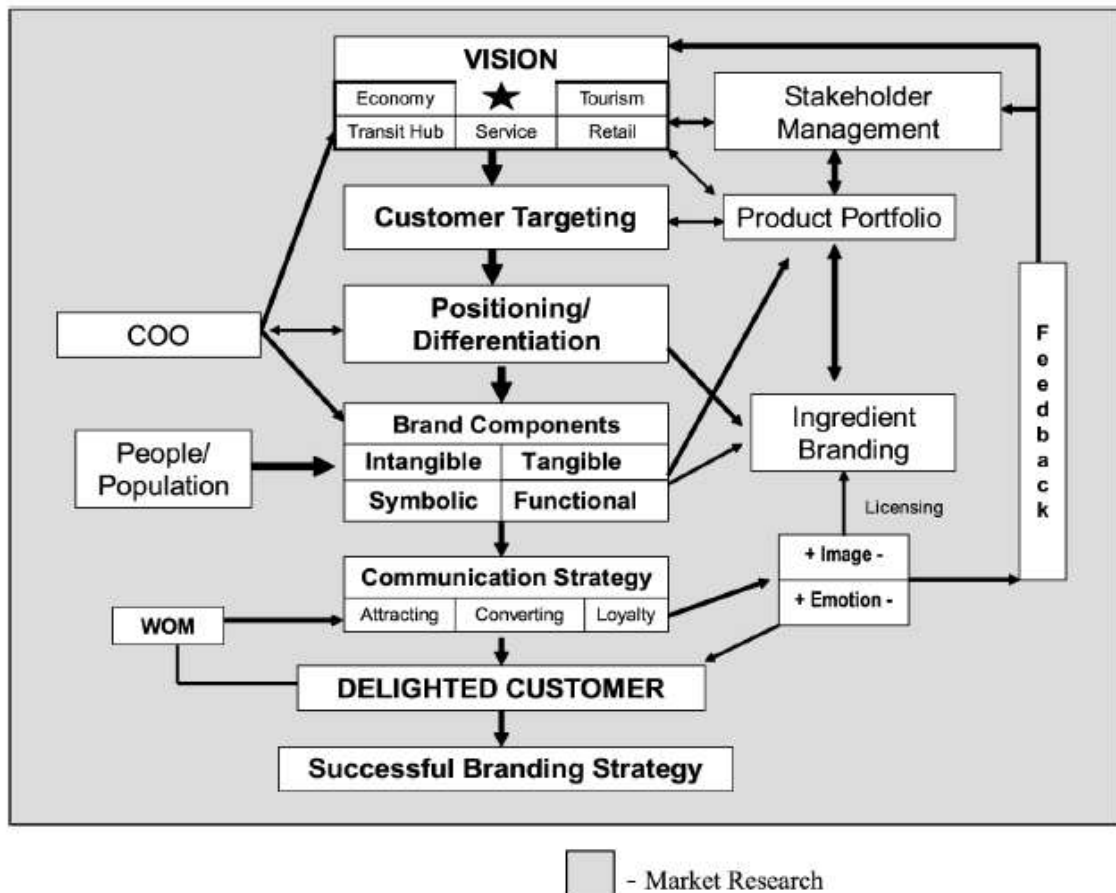


Figure 2.5: Branding strategy for a destination

Source: Balakrishnan (2009)

Balakrishnan (2009) identified five stages suitable for strategic destination branding:

- Vision and stakeholder management.
- Target customer and product portfolio matching.
- Positioning and differentiation strategies using branding components.
- Communication strategies.
- Feedback and response management strategies.

The author explains that the point of departure for the framework and branding strategy is vision where the focus should be on services, economic, retail, trade, tourism and transit hub. The author further elaborated that relationships with the target customers, city offering and differentiation, consistency in communication

and positioning and components of the brand that attract visitors contribute to the success of the branding strategy.

The advantages of this model, according to Balakrishnan (2009), is that the proposed framework is suitable for planning and projecting destination branding strategies because it serves as a guideline which is different from conventional branding which focuses on brand elements. The model also recognises the importance of residents and target customers in the brand building processes. However, its disadvantage is that it did not analyse evaluation thoroughly or provide measures of evaluation.

The city identity communication framework by Ofori (2010) is discussed next.

2.6.4 Ofori (2010) – City identity communication framework

When the city has designed the verbal and visual cues it then brings to life the city brand by communicating its attributes to the “prospective visitors” (Hanna & Rowley, 2015). This entails informing the visitors of what the city has to offer as a tourist destination (Morrison, 2019). In the same vein, Kotler and Armstrong (2019) concur that this involves using marketing communication tools to reach out to the prospective visitors. According to Moodley and Naidoo (2022), marketing communication tools are responsible for transferring messages to intended customers. Ofori (2010) developed the ‘city identity communication framework’. According to Ofori (2010), promotion and communication of the brand implies how the city brand is presented to the target market through the employment of marketing communicating tools. The same author developed the ‘city identity communication framework. Figure 2.6 guides marketers on how a city can successfully communicate perceived identity in the market.

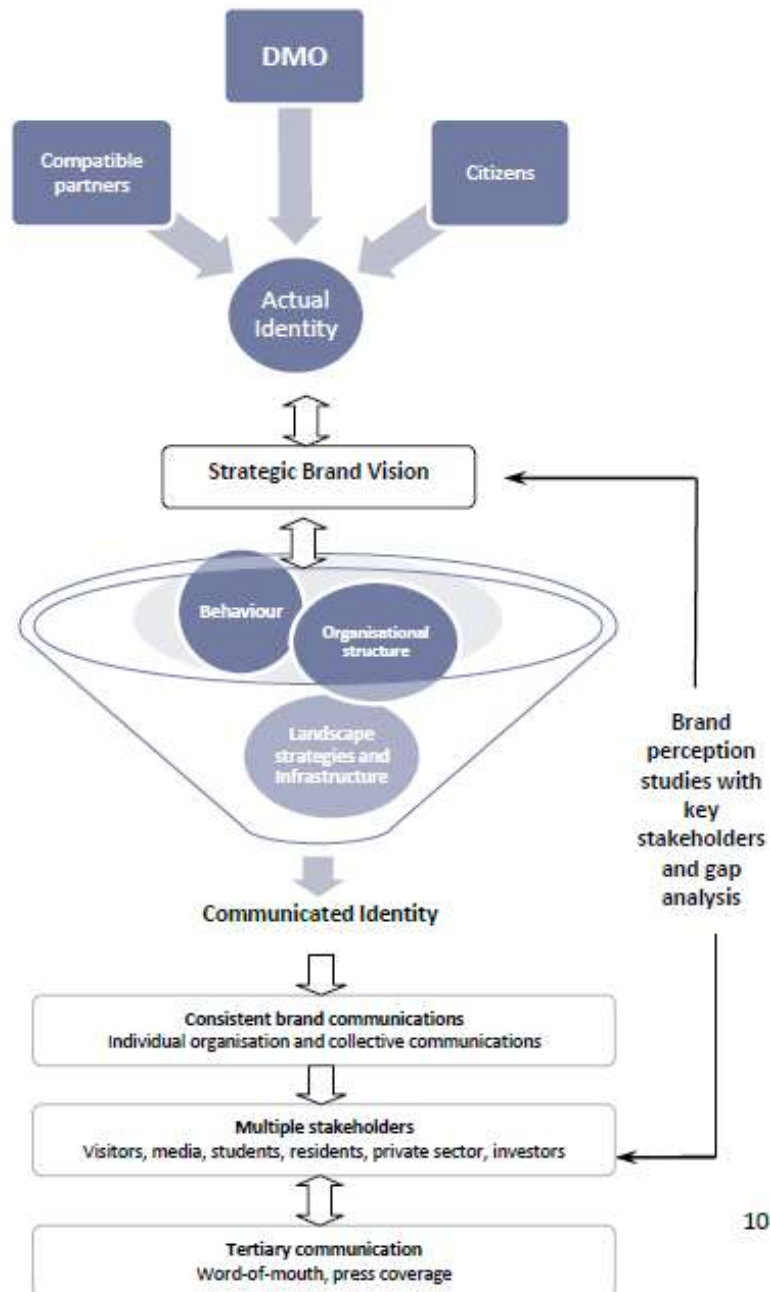


Figure 2.6: City identity communication framework

Source: Ofori (2010)

According to Ofori (2010), city marketers should consult city stakeholders such as city council, development agencies and residents to determine an identity which will lead to strategic vision that reflects the true identity of the city. The model analysed the City of Manchester's brand identity communication and found that communicated identity matched the actual and conceived image and communicated conceived identities. The author further recommends that city

branding scholars should conduct brand perception studies and communication gap analysis.

The advantage of the model is that it allows DMOs to work in partnership with other city stakeholders to create the identity of the city. Inter sector coordination and collaboration is key to successful city branding (Lestari *et al.*, 2020). However, its disadvantage is that it does not analyse the evaluation of the city brand in detail.

Additionally, Prilenska (2012) articulates that the city should decide on the most effective ways of communicating with its target market. Traditionally, organisations employed the marketing mix, which is a set of manageable, tactical tools that are chosen to accomplish the exchange between the organisation and the customer (Kotler *et al.*, 2019). The authors further explain that the marketing mix is the marketing tools used by organisations to create the desired response in the target market and is a method of transforming the marketing planning into practice.

Recently, the use of social media platforms has become an important tool in the dissemination of information and regular updates are required (Tran & Rudolf, 2022). This view is supported by Fokkema (2016) when she articulates that visitors depend on the information they obtain from social media platforms for sharing travel information, for making bookings and for paying travel services because travel brochures and books are now outdated. Similarly, Benedek (2018) added that social media is viewed as an effective destination marketing tool through Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram. Nowadays, according to Tran and Rudolf (2022), social media platforms such as Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, Online forums, Telegrams, Travel blogs, WeChat, YouTube, E-newsletter and Trip Advisor are commonly employed platforms for communicating with customers.

Yavuz *et al.* (2018) accentuates that city branding is also supported by the employment of smart destination applications as they enrich visitor experiences and also the quality of life for city residents. According to Jovicic (2019), smart destination applications provide a technological platform on which information and knowledge concerning tourism can be easily exchanged. Additionally, Allam

(2017) opines that the non-availability or availability of these technologies can affect the city experience from the initial planning stages to even after the holiday. This follows the fact that visitors nowadays, according to Molinillo, Anaya-Sanchez, Morrison & Coca-Stefaniak (2019), make use of their smart devices to design and plan their trips. The authors further stated that when a city combines ICTs with the visitors' smart devices, they are enhancing the visitors' experience of that specific city. In this way, Iglesias-Sanchez *et al.* (2020) suggest that smart destination applications enhance the city's competitiveness and promote visitor satisfaction thereby promoting tourism in the city.

The strategic place brand-management model by Hanna and Rowley (2011) is discussed next.

2.6.5 Hanna and Rowley (2011) – Strategic place brand-management model

After analysing city branding frameworks and models and their components, Hanna and Rowley (2011) compared their findings highlighting gaps and suggested the “Strategic place brand-management model” which featured ten components (Figure 2.7). The model depicts the city branding process and strives to help DMOs understand crucial steps involved in the city branding process.

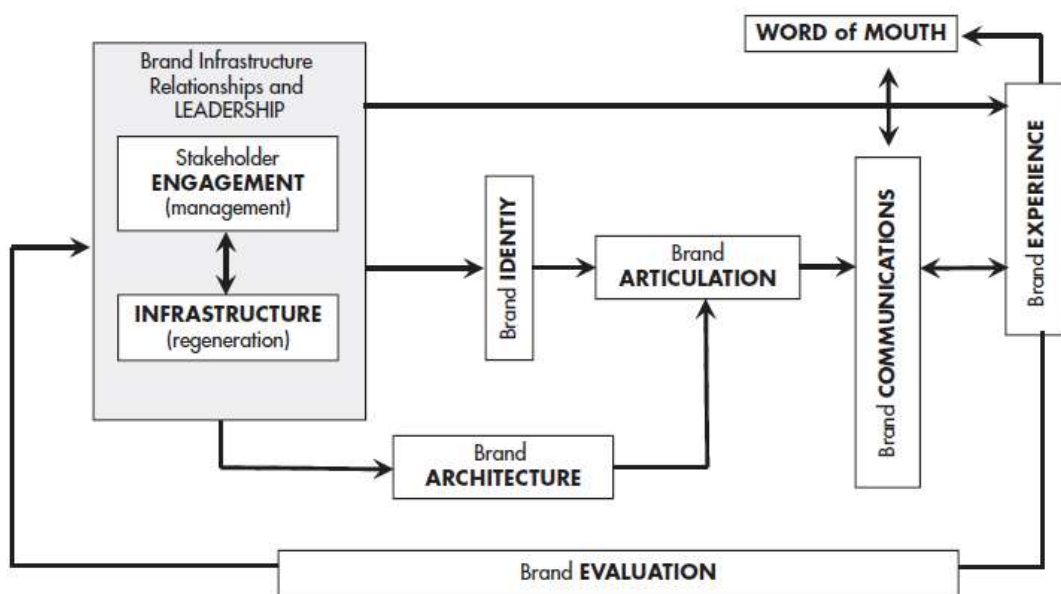


Figure 2.7: Strategic place brand-management model

Source: Hanna & Rowley (2011)

The authors emphasise that the result of the city branding process is a brand experience and not the city image. Hanna and Rowley (2011) further found that this interaction of the visitors with the city is visitor engagement with the city brand, therefore, creating city brand perceptions. The authors maintain that brand infrastructure and stakeholder consultation helps to differentiate place branding from product, services and corporate branding frameworks. From the framework, evaluation consists of the feedback on brand experience and therefore, affects brand identity (Hanna & Rowley, 2011). According to the authors, brand identity represents the desired image and brand articulation represents the connection between identity and communication and consists of brand attributes such as logos, slogans etc.

Hanna and Rowley (2011) posit that city brand communication affects city brand experience, communication and city experience create word-of-mouth and the two-headed arrows represent the communication between the framework components. The framework's relevance was tested among different professionals and confirmed a variety of factors of the suggested framework.

The advantage of the framework is that it considers a variety of city stakeholders which is critical to successful city branding. However, the model's disadvantage is that it did not analyse city brand evaluation in detail or even suggest measures that can be used for evaluation of the city brand.

The model of place brand perception and dimensions of brand evaluation by Zenker (2011) is discussed next.

2.6.6 Zenker (2011) – The model of place brand perception and dimensions of brand evaluation

The model of place brand perception and dimensions of brand evaluation that was developed by Zenker (2011) served the purpose of measuring the success of city branding, which is a continuous process. The model is presented in Figure 2.8.

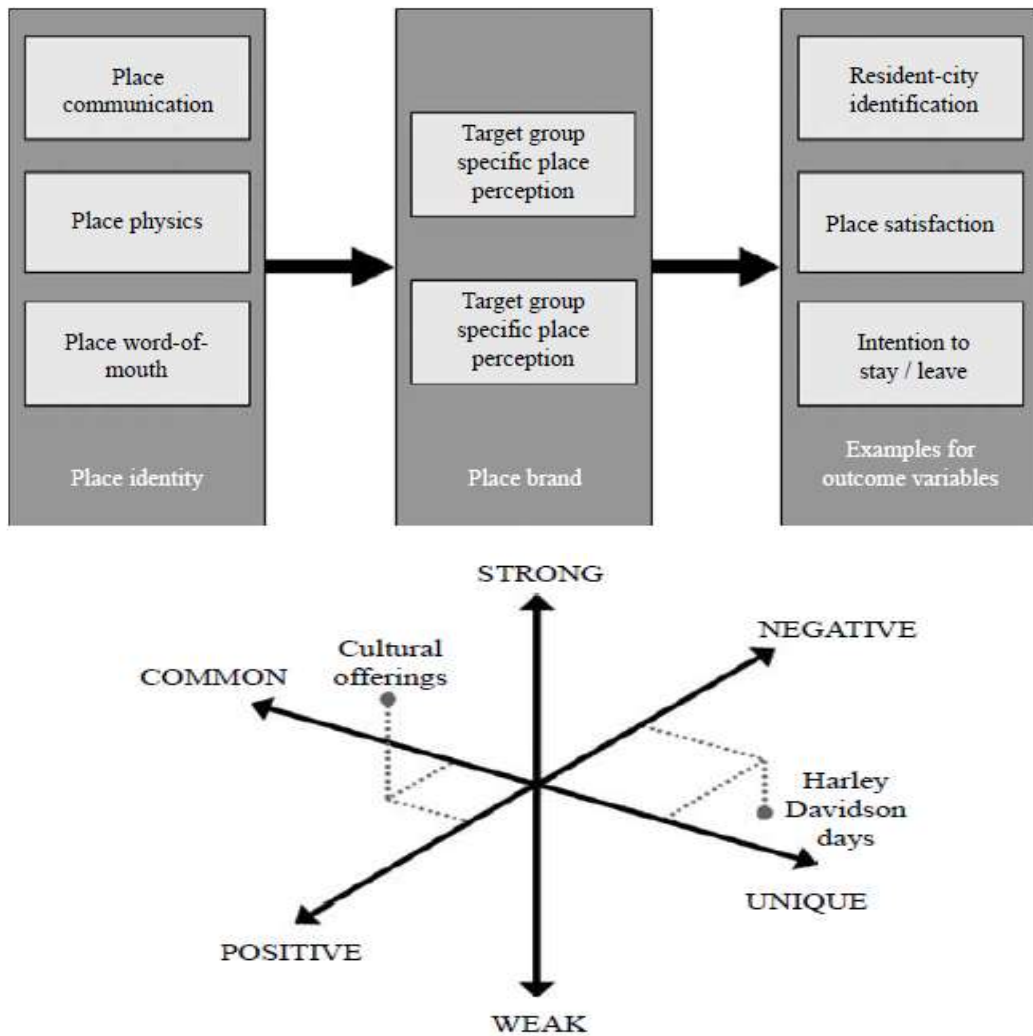


Figure 2.8: The model of place brand perception and dimensions of brand evaluation

Source: Zenker(2011)

Zenker (2011) developed “the model of place brand perception” and found out the need for measuring the progress of the city branding strategy; hence he developed a three-dimensional model for evaluating city brands. The model was informed by an in-depth literature review on place brand measurement. Zenker (2011) suggests that city elements can be expressed as positive or negative, weak or strong, unique or common as dimensions of the brand evaluation model. However, Zenker (2011) did not test the model on a specific city but acknowledged intricacy, sloppiness and accuracy issues when measuring factors of the city brand; neither did he present a list of components for the city brand measurement. However, he did an analysis and summary of the categories, that is, components that should be considered.

The advantages of the framework are that it can be applied soon after the creation of a new city brand or can be employed as a consultation tool in preparation for the design of a new brand. It is useful because it has the ability to assess the perceptions of many customers regarding their age, gender and their status in the city. However, the model has drawbacks since it does not include the component vision and it also provides insufficient agreement on what components should be included when evaluating city brands.

However, most recent literature on city brand measurement and evaluation recommends the evaluation of city branding has become more essential because of the public, political and social character of the city branding process (Uskokovic, 2020). This, according to Uskokovic (2020), has led to the development of a variety of models and metrics in an attempt to classify and measure various brand components. Herezniak, Florek and Austyn (2018) stress that this is so because the measurement of city brand performance is mostly ignored by DMOs and city authorities. Following these assumptions, it is noteworthy that tools for measuring city brand performance are normally specific to the city and integrated into the city brand measurement system although on a continuous basis as new models are introduced (Uskokovic, 2020). According to Zenker (2014), the city brand measurement system is important because it connects city brand management and city brand performance which is also a crucial strategic management tool for continuous improvement rather than a once-off activity of the city brand performance. There are different approaches cities employ to monitor city brand performance and these include KPIs and Brand Metrics (Uskokovic, 2020).

Uskokovic (2020) describes brand metrics as efficient and effective tools that are used for measuring visitor perceptions about a city brand at a specific time which affords a city to measure the effectiveness of city branding projects. Zenker (2014) explains that brand metrics consist of perception metrics which focuses on the range of functional, emotional and latent connections that combine to form an opinion of a city brand, which include awareness, familiarity, relevance, consideration, and preference; all put together. These attributes of perception metrics, according to Shafranskaya and Potapov (2014), assist in measuring the efficiency of many city branding activities at points of interaction with the visitor.

Through the measurement of all these performance metrics, Zenker (2014) implied that a city can tell whether it has managed to build an efficient and effective city brand.

According to Herezniak *et al.* (2018), Key Performance Indicators (KPIs) are another approach that cities can employ since they dwell on managing an organisation to deliver useful solutions. The authors define KPIs as the selected indicators considered crucial for monitoring the performance of a city's strategic objectives, outcomes or key result areas to the success and growth of the city. More importantly, KPIs help provide to decision makers in the city measurable indicators for judging the city performance and for measuring the achievements of the city's objectives. KPIs are common among cities; hence, they assume city marketers as a tool for benchmarking with other cities to improve their own performance. Herezniak *et al.* (2018) argue that KPIs can be applied flexibly according to a city's requirements. Nevertheless, the obvious shortfall of this approach is that identifying a variety of KPIs that comply with SMARRTT (specified, measurable, achievable, realistic, relevant, targeted, and timed) criteria is difficult.

Arnaboldi, Lapsley and Steccolin (2015) aver that management-based performance measurement tools that were traditionally used such as benchmarking, budgetary control and balanced scorecard are effective though they have some limitations as well. According to Arnaboldi *et al.* (2015), a simple approach to measuring city brand performance is budgetary control where the effectiveness of the city brand is only understood from a monetary perspective. The authors further elaborate that in terms of city branding, this method is not exhaustive for city brands.

However, according to Riva and Pilotti (2021), the benchmarking approach compares different cities/destinations across different criteria, and this approach is, therefore, effective and suitable for cities/destinations but must be applied continuously owing to the nature of destinations. The authors suggest that cities employ benchmarking in their quest to identify new ideas and innovations. This approach is useful because visitors' needs are changing and cities must respond to this change (Warnecke *et al.*, 2019). According to Yigitcanlar (2014), because budgets are limited, cities strive to make present-day changes. However,

Yigitcanlar (2014) notes that globalisation has brought about new technologies and approaches that are driving efficiency and effectiveness at the service level, and therefore, cities must participate in it. However, Riva and Pilotti (2021) propose that the disadvantage of benchmarking is the likelihood that managing organisations or political authorities might manipulate the system to achieve favourable results for the city brand which leads to incorrect results. Warnecke *et al.* (2019) also highlight another limitation which is inconsistent benchmarking tools or surveys because only a few cities have resources, capacity and time to conduct large, global benchmarking review.

The other performance monitoring tool is the balanced scorecard, which, according to Uskokovic (2020), offers a more balanced and broader focus other than finance because it also encompasses customers and learning. Uskokovic further explains that this approach is effective because it connects financial planning to strategies employed by the city. Similarly, Qin, Atkins and Yu (2013) allude that the balanced scorecard involves the use of agreed set of measures that provides cities with a complete, but timely, view of the city brand performance. The measures are closely and visibly linked to the crucial strategies and priorities for the city. Uskokovic (2020) elucidates that the approach begins with the city vision and strategic plan, that is, what the city aspires to meet in future and ensuring key strategic action that the city will need to achieve these goals are highlighted and plans are set. The author further explained that after this, the method ensures that cities develop a complete view of city brand performance taking into consideration these plans through identifying measures across four inter-related perspectives. These include of the visitor (it is crucial that the city offers services that satisfy the needs of its visitors, residents hence it must have clear strategies to meet them); of the internal business processes (in order for the city to provide quality and cost-effective services to its customers, the city must identify the key business processes it requires to be good at and then measure its performance undertaking these processes); of continuous improvement (for the city to achieve continuous improvement it must measure its ability to learn, cope with changes and to improve through its citizens, its systems and its infrastructure); and of financial performance (every city needs to

continuously measure its financial performance which must be directly linked to its overall goals).

Mostly, Herezniak *et al.* (2018) believe the employment of efficient and effective indicators by cities is not sufficient. In most cases, the approaches employed are usually fragmented and irrelevant to the objectives enunciated in the city strategies (Herezniak *et al.*, 2018). Hence, Herezniak *et al.* (2018) articulate that cities must apply a systematic approach to the measurement of city brand strategy effectiveness. In this way, the CoJ should also take note of this suggestion and employ an individualised approach in a systematic manner to encompass multiple perspectives on city branding outcomes and impacts.

According to extant literature, cities normally conduct city brand evaluations to assess their success on the market (Ruzinskaite, 2015). This, according to Prilenska (2012), implies how the target market associates them with the city brand after using the city's offering. Furthermore, Ngan and Chinh (2020) suggest that if visitors had an exceptional experience of the city offering, they will recommend friends and relatives to visit the same city. They can also do this through the various social media platforms where they will comment on their city experiences (Ngan & Chinh, 2020). Fokkemma (2016) argues that cities such as Amsterdam have Instagram accounts where they promote unknown places around the city and where visitors can comment about their city experiences. Benedek (2018) believes that through these platforms, the city is able to improve where it is lacking and simultaneously sustain exceptional services or offerings. It is, therefore, suggested that cities must conduct this city brand performance measurement continuously so as to assess their performance on the market.

To synthesise, the six city branding frameworks discussed in Section 2.6 were analysed to determine key components that might reveal the appropriate structures and processes crucial for efficient and effective city branding. The analysis of these frameworks was conducted to assist with the development of the FBJ for the current study (Phase 2 of the methodological procedure in Figure 1.2), and therefore, laid the foundation from which the FBJ was built. Following is a summary of the importance and relevance of each framework for the purposes of this study.

1. For the present study, the Delphic brand vision buy-in model provided evidence that the brand's vision should be an output of many stakeholders in the city though they only interviewed top level managers. Although the model did not describe components of the city brand in much detail, the present study incorporated the element of vision as an output of all city stakeholders in the components 'assessing the current situation' and 'designing the branding strategy' of the FBJ (see Figure 5.2).
2. The structural model of city branding by Merrilees *et al.*(2007) provided evidence that residents should be consulted for city branding purposes. Although the authors did not involve visitors in their study as they analysed city branding from the perspective of occasional tourism which reduced the phantasm of the model, the model is still valuable as it outlays understanding of what makes a city liveable. For that reason, the present study, therefore, incorporated residents as an important stakeholder in the FBJ through the component 'designing the branding strategy' and throughout the branding project (see Figure 5.2).
3. Although the model by Balakrishnan (2009) serves as a guideline for destination branding and because it recognises people's role in brand development as important (stakeholders and target customers), it does not describe brand elements of design. However, the model incorporated five stages for city branding, namely, stakeholder management and vision, target customer and product portfolio matching, differentiation and positioning strategies using branding components, communication strategies, and feedback and response management strategies. The present study incorporated all the stages of the 'branding strategy for a destination' in the FBJ (see Figure 5.2). Vision and stakeholder management, target customer and product portfolio, and positioning and differentiation strategies using branding components were all incorporated in the component 'designing the branding strategy' of the FBJ (see Figure 5.2). The stage 'communication strategies' of the 'branding strategy for a destination' was incorporated in the component 'implementing the designed strategy' of the FBJ. The stage 'feedback and response management strategies' of the 'branding strategy for a destination model' was incorporated in the component 'assessing the performance of the branding strategy' of the FBJ.

4. The city identity communication framework by Ofori (2010) emphasises that DMOs should work in partnership with city stakeholders such as city authorities, development organisations and residents in identifying the city identity which leads to strategic brand vision that reflects the actual identity of the city. Ofori (2010) emphasises on measuring views and opinions of all the critical city stakeholders (both external and internal). The present study incorporated all the components of the 'city identity communication framework' into the FBJ, especially in the component 'assessing the performance of the branding strategy' (see Figure 5.2).

5. Hanna and Rowley's (2011) 'strategic place brand-management model' depicts the whole city branding process and incorporates stakeholder engagement, infrastructure regeneration, brand architecture and articulation, brand communications, brand experience and brand evaluation (see Figure 2.5). However, assessing the current situation, vision, managing and directing the implemented strategy, and monitoring the progress of the branding strategy seem to be missing in their model. In their suggestions, the authors mentioned the idea that further research was important, especially on place brand evaluation measures. The current research study incorporates all the components of the model as follows: components 'stakeholder engagement, 'infrastructure regeneration and 'brand architecture and articulation' are incorporated in the component 'designing the branding strategy' of the FBJ. The component 'brand communications' of the 'strategic place brand-management model' is incorporated in the component 'implementing the designed strategy' of the FBJ, while the component 'brand experience and brand evaluation' of the model is incorporated in the component 'assessing the performance of the branding strategy' of the FBJ.

6. Zenker's (2011) model of place brand perception and dimensions of brand evaluation' serve the purpose of measuring the success of city branding as a continuous process. The model has three dimensional models for brand evaluation, namely, identity of the place, brand/place perceptions and place elements which can be described as positive or negative, strong, or weak, common, or unique. All these components were incorporated in the FBJ for the current study especially in the component 'assessing the performance of the

branding strategy.’ However, the author did not apply the model practically. The author also did not consider assessing the current situation and vision in his model as the current study did.

2.7 CONCLUSION

The objective of this chapter was to conduct an in-depth literature review on city branding as a strategy of city marketing in a general context and a cultural heritage context. This objective was achieved in this chapter as the consensus in the literature is that if city branding is conducted efficiently and effectively, cities will be able to attract visitors to spend more time and money in their respective boundaries. To realise efficient and effective city branding, cities should employ their unique sources of competitive advantages in their branding initiatives. These unique sources of competitive advantages include the employment of cultural heritage in the branding project for the city. Through the employment of cultural heritage resources, a city is able to reverse a negative or an inappropriate image to a more desirable one in source markets thereby attracting visitors to spend more time and money in the city. Through the employment of cultural heritage, a city can offer something different from what its competitors are offering because it is difficult to copy cultural heritage since it is unique to that city.

City branding frameworks/models were examined in this chapter thereby determining city branding components that might lead to efficient and effective city branding projects. From the literature review of the city branding frameworks/models, it was found that city vision is important as it determines the direction which the city wants to follow. The city branding frameworks/models also emphasised that city stakeholders, including residents, should all be consulted throughout the branding project. Consideration of the target customer needs and wants, product portfolio that satisfies the needs and wants of the visitors, positioning and differentiation were all discussed as important component elements in city branding projects.

Deliberation of efficient and effective communication tools in presenting the city brand to the target market was emphasised as it allows the city to present the brand to the customers. Lastly, evaluating brand experience and brand evaluation was identified as an important component in the brand building

process because it determines whether customers are happy or not with the city brand. The findings from the literature review in this chapter were critical for the development of the FBJ suggested in this research study.

The following chapter builds on the findings from this chapter and discusses international case studies on city branding mainly focusing on the City of Amsterdam, New York City, and the City of Cape Town and then outline the lessons taken from the case studies which also assisted the researcher in the development of the suggested FBJ for this study.

CHAPTER 3:

BEST PRACTICES: LEARNING FROM INTERNATIONAL EXPERIENCES

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 discussed literature on branding as a city marketing strategy in a general context and in a cultural heritage context. Potential benefits of city branding were highlighted and constraints thereof as well as city branding frameworks/models to inform the FBJ suggested in this research study. The aim of this chapter, therefore, is to examine and evaluate best practices in Amsterdam, New York and Cape Town regarding their branding initiatives based on how they managed to change the negative perceptions regarding their city brands into positive ones. The objectives of the chapter are, therefore, to discuss the methods used by these cities in diversifying their markets during challenging circumstances and how these strategies were used in responding to negative publicity, analyse the strategies used by city marketers in rebranding a city and learn some lessons from various cities that have applied branding strategies to mitigate the impact of negative publicity.

This chapter, therefore, analyses the chosen case studies from the cities (Amsterdam, New York and Cape Town) that resemble today's attractive and most progressive destinations across the world. These cities have experienced drawbacks but managed to bounce back because of carrying out city branding efficiently and effectively by Amsterdam Partners, Association for a better New York and the City of Cape Town. The cities are repeatedly mentioned as successful city brands that were able to utilise cultural heritage resources and other non-tourism features to change their negative brand images and position themselves as competitive city brands globally. Following their successes in achieving the recognition as renowned global cities, the case studies are reviewed in terms of how they conducted their branding projects and the factors that are viewed as important within the field of this research. Based on the successes of these case studies' respective competitive city brands, it is essential for this particular study to use these case studies as international comparable examples in relation to suggesting the FBJ.

Figure 3.1 presents the flow diagram of Chapter 3 layout.

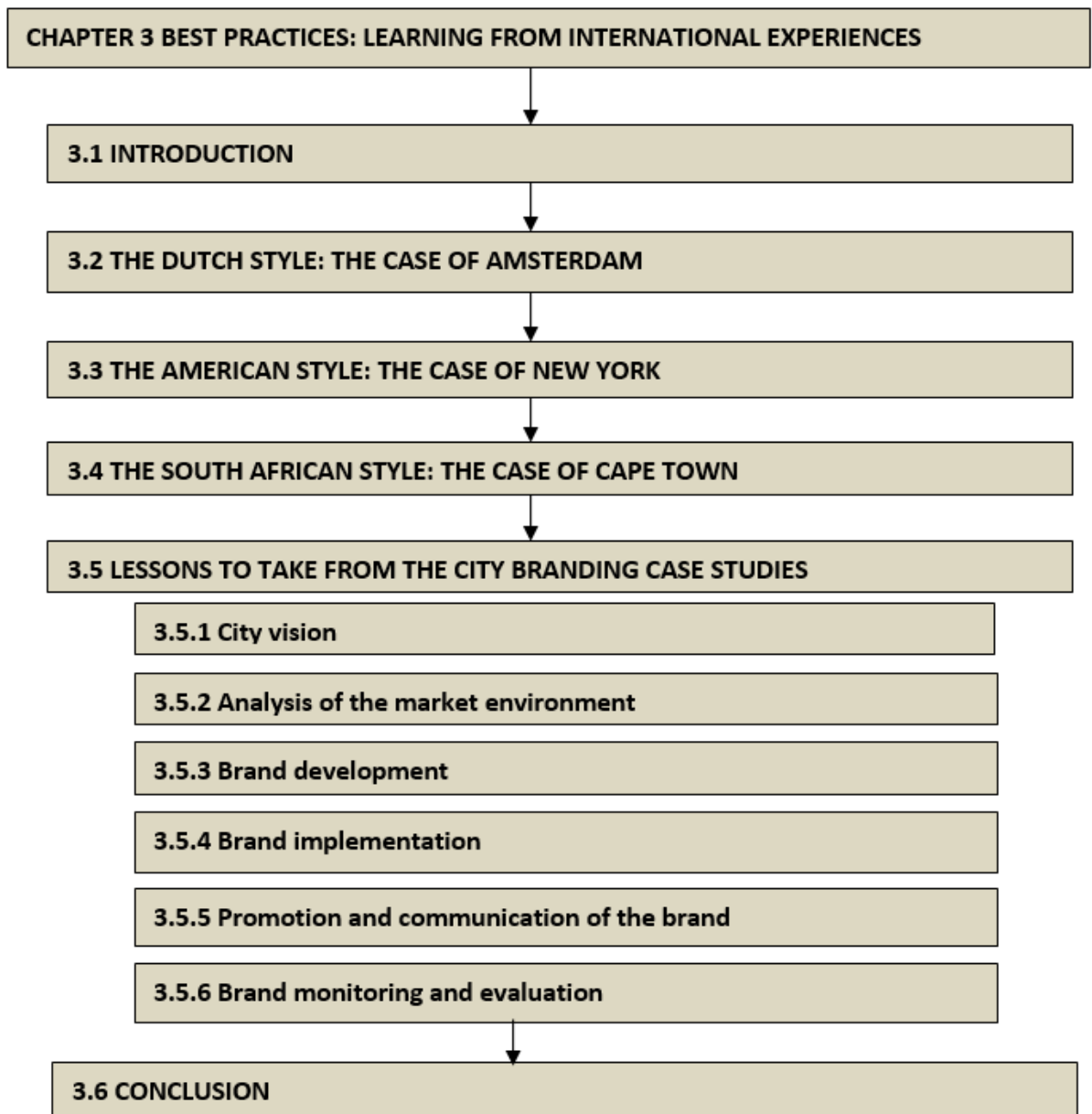


Figure 3.1: Flow diagram of Chapter 3 layout

Each of the three case studies, namely, Amsterdam, New York and Cape Town are introduced next. The case studies are discussed starting with a general introduction of the city, drawbacks experienced by the city, actions taken by the city marketers to try and change the image of the city, and lastly, the results of the branding initiative.

3.2 THE DUTCH STYLE: THE CASE OF AMSTERDAM

In Europe, Amsterdam is considered as the fastest growing municipality in terms of its demographic status (Yavuz, Cavusoglu & Corbaci, 2018). Besides the city's long tradition and powerful reputation as a city of culture and innovation, Amsterdam was disturbed by the growth of competition from cities within the Netherlands and those from outside, whose reputation was dented by alcohol consumption and illegal substances in the 1970s (Popescu & Corbos, 2010:184). Since then, the city focused on strengthening the creative industries as its policies primarily aimed at giving new momentum to the city as a destination of international standing that attracts highly skilled professionals and visitors (Mravcak, 2014).

In response to this great deal of competition, the city engaged itself in strategic marketing where it involved all its stakeholders, goals and competitive positioning (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2015). Within this strategy, the city aimed at improving its attractiveness to the local people and international visitors and to revitalise its image. The city was motivated to take this stance because of three factors, namely, improving the city's position on world-city rankings emanating from the high levels of competition among cities worldwide, the need to revitalise the city image tainted by the prevalence of high levels of drug use and prostitution as this paints a bad picture of the city, and lastly, the need for the city to benefit from well-informed city marketing as it is seen as a powerful tool that can promote city development in totality (Fokkema, 2016). This, according to Popescu and Corbos (2010), is seen as a proactive strategy which also prevents crisis unlike being employed as an imminent solution to problems.

To implement the aforementioned strategy, the city conducted an extensive and elaborate research process. City marketing literature suggests that research and auditing should be the *first step* of the marketing process (Morrison, 2019). This involved assessing existing demand, images and associations and the constraints which the city marketing had intended to nip out. The city compared its city marketing practice with that of Barcelona, Berlin, Dublin and Rotterdam (Kavaratzis, 2008). The decision was made based on the fact that the four were close competitors to the city. From this assessment, the city concluded that it

needed to put more effort into its marketing endeavours. Emanating from the assessment was the fact that the city did not know its competitive advantages the way its competitors did and was not communicating well with its prospective visitors from other cities across the world. The exercise also highlighted the lack of responsibility for the Amsterdam brand as compared to what other city brands were doing.

In the second step, a consultancy was created to come up with methods, goals and processes that will be employed in the city marketing campaign (Lombarts, 2011). The main tasks of the consultancy were brand building, positioning and sales promotion, support and advice regarding marketing festivals and events, enhancement of favourable business environment, relations to the national and international media, hospitality, research, and monitoring (City of Amsterdam, 2004). Key stakeholders with experts in city marketing were identified to highlight specific elements of the city to create core values on which to base their branding efforts. These core values were put together with the other resources in the city, that is, travel guides, policy documents and important literature on city marketing. From that analysis, the city marketing team selected 16 dimensions of the city which were thought to communicate the diversity of the city and its meaning to its target audiences (Kavaratzis, 2008). The city included the residents as important stakeholders of its initiative as well using a survey study with the 16 dimensions. In the survey, residents were supposed to identify the most effective dimensions in terms of marketing the city. Through this evaluation the city was able to identify and prioritise its opportunities for the present city image in the form of a spider's web.

The *third step* involved the deliberation of a vision that would simultaneously present the city's main marketing goals. Through that exercise, the city went on to prioritise six dimensions from the original 16 dimensions (city of culture, city of canals, city of meetings, city of knowledge, business city and residential city). The first three were regarded as the strongest dimensions while the remaining three were regarded as weak dimensions by residents. The marketing effort was to sustain the city's strong position in the strongest dimensions and strengthening the weak dimensions. The city chose to combine the three core values that would determine the city brand, which are: creativity, innovation and entrepreneurship

(Kavaratzis, 2008). These core values have helped the city's prosperity over the years.

The *fourth step* taken by the city was organisation and coordination of the marketing initiative. The coordinating organisation was Amsterdam Partners, which is introduced in the following Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Partners in Amsterdam Partners

Seven departments of the municipality: For example, Department of Communication, Department of Economic Affairs, and so forth.
Amsterdam area: Eight neighbouring municipalities and the Province of North Holland.
The business community: The regional Chamber of Commerce and several private companies from large multinationals to small local companies.
Government partners: Eight organisations that were already involved in marketing the city and have an active role in supporting and advising on strategies and practical issues.

Source: Adapted from Kavaratzis & Ashworth (2015)

The coordination efforts are important considering the number of organisations involved in city branding (Hanna & Rowley, 2015). Successful city marketing depends on the integration of different ideas from different stakeholders so as to promote inter-organisational cooperation (Morrison, 2019). The city then embarked on the main marketing projects through Amsterdam Partners and decided on six main marketing projects, that is: the hospitality project, cultural events, the new Internet portal, the ‘pearl’ projects, new international press policy and a rebranding campaign. For the purposes of this study, ‘A new branding campaign’ is the most important project. Previously, Amsterdam had many brand mottos, like ‘IAMsterdam Has It,’ ‘Small City, Big Business’ and ‘Cool City’. Hence, the city needed a tangible slogan that would speak to the city’s values. The city’s new slogan then was ‘IAMsterdam,’ which was thought to be straightforward, precise and powerful (City of Amsterdam, 2004).

“IAMsterdam” is a brand employed to promote the city of Amsterdam as a brand throughout the world (IAMsterdam, 2019). The brand illustrates the diversity, interrelatedness and individuality of all the residents of the city. The brand is registered and as such, it is protected. The Municipality of Amsterdam and Amsterdam & Partners are the owners of the licence for the registered brand. It permits people to express their pride, self-confidence and, simultaneously, to express support and love for their city (IAMsterdam, 2019). The slogan can be used in various ways, but it must always originate from people: people living here, people working here and people visiting the city (Brand manual, 2014).

Each of the branding stages that were undertaken by the city is discussed next.

3.2.1 The city and its partners

The DMO (Amsterdam & Partners) is responsible for the city of Amsterdam and guides residents, national and international visitors, companies, and organisations in the country (Amsterdam Marketing, 2014). The DMO besides its marketing roles, is equally concerned about the creation of a smart city by creating a balance between a quality life for its residents, work and offering recreation facilities. In this regard, the city through the brand, 'IAMsterdam,' markets the city as an economic, scientific knowledge and cultural centre (IAMsterdam, 2019). This is in line with their aspiration of promoting creativity, innovation and entrepreneurship.

3.2.2 Core values

The DMO emphasises its core values of creativity, innovation and entrepreneurship. These core values promote the uniqueness of the city. This includes what happens in the city, its people, its symbol, stories and events, the brand is described. The city boasts of its history that encompasses the establishment of the first stock market in the world, stock invention and hosting iconic painters such as Van Gogh and Rembrandt (Amsterdam Marketing, 2014). To date, Amsterdam is known as an attractive tourist destination and features the following attractions: theatres (96), museums (81), concert venues, restaurants and heritage sites.

3.2.3 The label

The label is unique and flexible as it can be employed differently. This enables it to connect easily with any industry or sector in the city. IAMsterdam was promoted through billboards, posters and on big screens in the city and its surroundings. Physical versions of the brand also took the form of red and white 2-metre-long letters, and these were successful as they appeared in about 8000 photos on the day they were installed in 2005 (Mravcak, 2014). An example of these physical versions is illustrated on Figure 3.2. The 'IAMsterdam' exhibition, which was entitled 'The Portray of the City and its People,' was also opened at

the Rijksmuseum, the national museum of Netherlands. Since its inception in 2005, the exhibition has travelled around the world.



Figure 3.2: Amsterdam logo

Source: Amsterdam Marketing (2014)

3.2.4 Colours used

The DMO used the colours black and white (IAMsterdam motto) on the red label while the grey label is used for black and white advertisements (IAMsterdam, 2019).



I amsterdam®

Figure 3.3: Amsterdam logo colour codes

Source: Amsterdam Marketing (2014)

3.2.5 Label placement on advertisements

Flexibility was crucial to the creation of the brand as the slogan can be used flexibly in three distinctive positions that is: left, right or at the top of an advertisement (I AMsterdam, 2019).

One can easily read the motto on the left and the right side and from top to bottom. When placed at the top, it can be read from left to the right side. The DMO does not place the label at the bottom of the page or in the corner of advertisements.

This is illustrated on Figure 3.6.



Figure 3.4: Advertisements featuring IAmsterdam slogan

Source: Amsterdam Marketing (2014)

Benedek (2018) and Iglesias-Sanchez, Correia, Jambrino-Maldonado and de las Heras-Pedrosa (2020) highlight the significance of social media as an effective destination marketing tool. In this regard, Amsterdam opened an Instagram account for marketing purposes which attracted more popularity over a short period of time (Fokkema, 2016). The Instagram account @iamsterdam is managed by three employees. The account is used to brand the city to attract tourists and create a positive image (Fokkema, 2016). It features photos with people in it, with architecture and unknown places around the centre and region, and creates conversations with prospective visitors which promote the city successfully (Fokkema, 2016; Iglesias-Sanchez *et al.*, 2020).

To complement its marketing efforts the City of Amsterdam employs a variety of smart city applications to enable the delivery of city branding functions that is promoting quality life for its residents and communicating with its prospective visitors (Yavuz *et al.*, 2018). These applications are presented in Table 3.2, where applications that are related to tourism are marked (T), those that are related to city branding are marked (B) and those that relates to both city branding and tourism are marked (T&B).

Table 3.2: Smart city applications used by the City of Amsterdam

Governance	Mobility	Quality of public space	Sustainable environment and resources
<p>(B) Digital public administration (Monitoring stream of data about the city).</p>	<p>(T&B) Smart traffic (congestion) monitoring systems.</p> <p>(T&B) Real-time traffic and route management by means of social media.</p> <p>(T&B) Smart traffic lights (optimised green light usage).</p> <p>(B) Smart EV charging station for cars.</p> <p>(T) Transport information or journey planning.</p> <p>(T&B) Transport/Ride/City Bike-sharing programs.</p> <p>(T&B) Smart parking (e.g. Streetline, ParkMe).</p>	<p>(T&B) Real-time information, news.</p> <p>(T&B) Wi-Fi spot on bus stop.</p> <p>(T&B) Improving the urban experience for local residents and travellers.</p> <p>(T) Smart Museums and Parks.</p> <p>(B) Shared Decision-Making-Collaboration.</p> <p>(T) Security for people (such as Powow, Drive Carefully).</p> <p>(T) Security for Things (FindMyBicycle).</p> <p>(T) Smart Neighbourhood Safety.</p> <p>(T) Real-time suggestions.</p>	<p>(B) Stand-by Energy Saving.</p> <p>(B) Smart distribution grids.</p> <p>(T) Smart street lighting.</p> <p>(B) Smart electric metering.</p> <p>(T) Charging Bench/Station (such as Solar Road, Steroa).</p> <p>(B) Smart water demand management.</p> <p>(B) Smart water metering.</p> <p>(B) Electronic water payment systems.</p> <p>(B) Smart waste management.</p> <p>(B) Solid waste decomposition and recycling.</p> <p>(B) Smart irrigation for city landscaping.</p> <p>(B) Pollution measuring.</p> <p>(T&B) Climate monitoring (such as Everimpact for greenhouse emission).</p> <p>(B) Connected facility management.</p>

			(T) Smart home (T&B) Smart and green construction.
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Source: Adapted from Yavuz *et al.* (2018:66-67).

All these marketing efforts successfully positioned Amsterdam as one of the most appealing smart destinations in the world for visitors, investors and residents (Yavuz *et al.*, 2018). Because Johannesburg has been exposed to extreme competition locally and internationally and is renowned for the prevalence of crime, outbreaks of pandemics (such as HIV/AIDS and most recently COVID-19), lawlessness such as xenophobia, there are lessons can be learnt from the case of Amsterdam to revitalise the image of the city through city branding. The lessons learnt from this case study are outlined at the end of this chapter. However, another well-documented case study, New York City, is discussed next.

3.3 THE AMERICAN STYLE: THE CASE OF NEW YORK

D’Cruz (2016) postulates that during the early 1970s, Americans suffered waves of astounding news which included the effects of a recession, political crimes, the resignations of the country’s presidency, an economic downturn and an oil-driven war proscription. This pushed the unemployment rate to 8.9%. According to Greenberg (2008), this contributed to a far more negative image for New York City because of poorly managed city finances and unscrupulous spending by the municipality. Streets were heavily littered as a result of poor service delivery. New York City was perceived as a crime-ridden, unfriendly destination (D’Cruz, 2016). Hence New York residents needed a reminder to be proud of their city and prospective tourists needed to be welcomed to the city (Greenberg, 2008).

According to Bendel (2011), the State of New York then decided to promote tourism to offset a recession. The Association for a Better New York (ABNY) realised how serious the negative perceptions were on the image of the city and decided to launch the ‘Big Apple’ campaign (Bendel, 2011). This campaign acknowledged the city’s many resources, and was targeted at residents, businesses and visitors (Greenberg, 2008). During this campaign, there was a

proliferation of 'Big Apple' pins, posters, stickers, and many different products were made to aid media and marketing partners (Stubbs, 2009). Figure 3.5 illustrates the 'Big Apple' logo.



Figure 3.5: Big Apple logo

Greenberg (2008) avers that the 'Big Apple' campaign laid a strong foundation for an even more successful project: 'I Love New York'. The New York State Department of Commerce (DOC) through its Commissioner John Dyson realised the importance of tourism to change the negative perceptions about the city into positive ones (Greenberg, 2008). According to the author, the Department then recruited one of the top marketers of that time, William S. Doyle, to oversee the economic development and tourism marketing to boast visitor numbers and simultaneously improve the image of the city as a business, meetings and conventions destination. The DOC decided to increase its marketing budget as it required world-class research. The research results showed that New York had the following resources:

- Broadway theatre, a variety of shops, upmarket restaurants and museums which all appealed to visitors from the country, region and international circles.
- Outdoor activities, mountains, lakes, and a variety of spectacular scenery which attracted families from all over the world.

The results were presented to the Legislature which was convinced into providing substantial funding for the project. The next task was then to find a suitable agency that was going to create attractive messages that would convince visitors to travel to New York City. Wells, Rich and Green's pitch won the contract (Eshuis *et al.*, 2014). Through the brainstorming sessions for finding the right slogan, the 'I Love New York' emerged. Milton Glaser, a renowned graphic artist and designer, then created the graphic identity while Steve Karmen created the catchy commercial tunes for the 'I Love New York' theme music (Bendel, 2011). These were played and are still played today on radio and television. However, the agency realised that the logo was missing from the commercials. This led to Glaser finally creating the famous logo with the heart symbol for the slogan 'I Love New York' (Stubbs, 2009). This logo is depicted in Figure 3.6.



Figure 3.6: I Love New York logo

Source: Bendel (2011)

The New York logo was then trademarked and distributed freely to all tourism-related entities in the city to communicate with the prospective visitors beyond the reach of the DOC's budget (Greenberg, 2008). This saw collateral products such as pins, bumper stickers and T-shirts being mass produced. Steven Kerman's theme music was promoted and produced commercially and was a hit worldwide. This resulted in increases in requests for information about the city,

ticket sales increased remarkably for theatre shows and hotel occupancy (D'Cruz, 2016). Exhibitions and convention centres were built which resulted in more convention attendees and exhibitors. The initiative put New York on the world map and in the minds of travellers who when asked about how they feel about the brand New York have readymade answers which show how the city has managed to rebrand the city efficiently and effectively (Ripoll Gonzalez & Gale, 2023).

The logo 'I Love New York' presented an image that was friendly and changed the negative perceptions that had affected the city and resulted in the lack of pride that was common among city residents (D'Cruz, 2016). Many residents had lost their affection for New York; hence the logo portrayed happiness, and love for the city (Greenberg, 2008). The logo tells prospective visitors that they are welcome, and that the city is friendly and that its residents like it there (Johnston, Nicholas & Parzen, 2013). In response, the following years saw an increase in visitor numbers and today the city is known as one of the top destinations in the world (Johnston *et al.*, 2013).

However, despite all the drawbacks that the city encountered, New York City brand represents not only its cultural diversity, but its financial icons and Wall Street, including the presence of the world's biggest financial companies. The latter include the World Bank, American Express, Deutsche Bank, United Bank of Switzerland (UBS), Royal Bank of Canada (RBC), Wachovia, Citigroup, J.P Morgan/Chase, Janas and investment companies such as Morgan Stanley, Goldman Sachs, Bear Sterns and Merrill Lynch (Ripoll *et al.*, 2023). This is testimony to efficient and effective city branding undertaken by the city.

In an African context, the case of Cape Town is discussed next.

3.4 THE SOUTH AFRICAN STYLE: THE CASE OF CAPE TOWN

The City of Cape Town was founded in 1652, and it has been referred to as "The Mother City" because it is South Africa's oldest city (Holzschuch & Teppo, 2009). According to Stephanus (2013), the city's landscape and its diverse cultures have been able to attract visitors and investors from all over the world. According to the 2022 South African census, Cape Town emerged as South Africa's largest city with a population of 3, 4 million inhabitants (Stats SA, 2022). Like

Johannesburg and other cities in South Africa, the City of Cape Town resembles a multi-cultural city with coloured, white and Xhosa speaking Black people dominating the city's population (City of Cape Town, 2022). In terms of economic activity and population, the city comes second after Johannesburg (City of Cape Town, 2022).

In the early 1930s, city branding was introduced in Cape Town when it was branded as 'beautiful' following the availability of panoramic views, beaches, mountains and forests. According to Scholvin (2022), the city offers breath-taking scenery and the natural attractions such as Table Mountain, the Cape Peninsula and architecture that features the Mutual Building, Castle of Good Hope and Company's garden is testimony to it being referred to as 'beautiful'. In this way, the city authorities were able to employ the city's sources of natural competitive advantages in their branding project which were instrumental in establishing the city as an international tourist destination. Towards 1994, the city embarked on a project for the creation of an open market, St George Street pedestrianisation, measures put in place for heritage conservation, the construction of an underground shops linked to the railway station and retail shops, and the Victoria and Alfred (V&A) Waterfront that is adjacent to the CBD. Through these projects, the city was able to develop infrastructure and new attractions for visitors which enhanced the city's branding initiatives.

After the attainment of democracy, the city introduced the initiative that aspired to make the city a world class tourist destination and became competitive on the international stage. This resulted in the iconic architecture, the V&A Waterfront being bought by an international real estate consortium in 2006. At one point, the V&A Waterfront was thought to be an 'African Riviera' as it comprised a fancy shopping centre, museums and zoos such as the Two Oceans Aquarium, luxury hotels and a yacht port. According to Scholvin (2022), the V&A Waterfront resembles Disneyland because multinational companies, domestic and international creative companies have offices there.

The CBD in the city experienced reconfiguration as massive private investment took place, new buildings and public space were built and this resulted in the city being established as an area of service provision and consumption which saw tremendous increases in office and retail rents. Historic buildings were taken over

by film and media companies, advertising firms and interior or designing companies. Even the computer-related software and hardware service companies also moved to the CBD of the city. According to Turok, Visagie and Scheba (2021), all these developments contributed to the attainment of the city's goal of making Cape Town a conducive city to live or work as well as an investment destination.

According to Scholvin (2022), Cape Town outcompetes Johannesburg because it is beautiful and inspiring. Besides, the city strives to brand itself as 'inclusive, integrated and vibrant'. It aspires to position itself as a city of opportunities that offers safety and security to all the city visitors. The City of Cape Town (2020) articulated that the city translates into creating an enabling environment for economic prosperity through investment and creation of employment. According to the city's present Five-year Integrated Development Plan, there are five strategic focus areas that include:

Firstly - positioning the city as a progressive and global competitive business city (City of Cape Town, 2017). Through this strategic focus, the city strives to open a variety of industries and create new small to medium enterprises. Creating a conducive environment for new investors, developing infrastructure that includes digital resources and upgrading the old ones (City of Cape Town, 2020).

Secondly - the city's Integrated Development Plan influenced a changed city branding strategy, that is, from the one that focused on service delivery excellence to one of 'collaboration, partnership and active citizenship.' The new strategy strives to promote the city on a global stage as a city of opportunities through a shared sense of responsibility between government and citizens (City of Cape Town, 2022).

Thirdly - the creative industries promoted the city as a destination of opportunities which resulted in a variety of special purpose organisations being formed such as Cape Town Film Commission, Cape Craft and Design Institute and Cape Town Fashion Council during the early 2000s. The city won the title of World Design Capital and was successful in hosting signature events in 2014. Through these events, the city was able to position itself as a creative city globally. Booyens (2012) argues that beyond the CBD and the V&A Waterfront, the areas close to

the inner city such as Woodstock and Observatory turned into creative hubs. The author further explained that creative hubs attract the knowledge elite because they are associated with creative industries (Scholvin, 2022).

Fourthly - Cape Town positioned itself as a city of investment for a variety of industries and to achieve this goal, it offers digital connectivity and the ease of doing business (City of Cape Town, 2020). Invest Cape Town, a government economic programme in Cape Town, focuses on outsourcing business, digital and green-tech industries as well as film and media. Invest Cape Town maintains that the city's natural sources that give it a competitive advantage, such as its natural beauty which promotes a better working environment and its lifestyle attracts skilled personnel.

Fifthly - the city communicates a variety of creative events that include film festivals, exhibitions such as the Mining Indaba and the Africa Travel Week, hosting festivals such as Tweede Nuwejaar, Cape Town Carnival, sports events (such as the Two Oceans Marathon and the Cape Town Cycle). All these events are critical in the promotion of the city (Hemmonsbey *et al.*, 2018). The city and country were able to replace negative perceptions associated with the city and the country such as crime, poverty and disorganisation with positive ones through the hosting of the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup. The world was convinced that the city and the country were capable of hosting mega-events safely, which is an enticing factor for the international business community (Knott *et al.*, 2015).

The foregoing section investigated the international city branding case studies highlighting how the City of Amsterdam, New York and Cape Town responded to their respective drawbacks regarding their branding projects. From these case studies, lessons were taken that informed the development of the suggested framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination and these are discussed in the following section.

3.5 LESSONS TO TAKE FROM CITY BRANDING CASE STUDIES

It could be deduced from the three case studies on city branding examined in this chapter that they determined city branding components that might lead to efficient and effective city branding projects. The components are discussed as a variety of lessons learnt from the case studies in the preceding review of approaches to

city branding internationally. These lessons can be applied to a city like Johannesburg when carrying out its branding process to brand itself efficiently and effectively.

The elements are discussed next as lessons taken from the case studies.

3.5.1 City vision

Ruzinskaite (2015) posits that a clear vision is fundamental for the prosperity of any city in terms of its branding project. Stakeholders in the City of Amsterdam managed to formulate the city's vision having considered the interests of all stakeholders in the city. This was instrumental for the city to determine the direction in which it wanted to go; therefore, cities should decide on which direction they want to follow before deliberating on the way forward through stakeholder consultations. The vision was incorporated into the component 'designing the branding strategy' for the FBJ (see Figure 5.2).

3.5.2 Analysis of the market environment

From the case studies, it can be noted that it is important to carry out marketing research and environmental analysis (micro and macro) (Morrison, 2023). This includes conducting marketing research and environmental analysis, competitor analysis (strengths and weaknesses) and resource analysis to identify what the city can offer to residents, investors and visitors which is different from the competition (Sotiriadis, 2021).

The recovery process of a city brand requires a sincere analysis of the situation to market the right experiences to the respective target market. The city must be marketed truthfully, and in instances where this is done the image of the city will clearly represent the situation on the ground. In cases where the opposite takes place, the ultimate truth will soon be exposed, and it will negatively affect the city's image. Truthful branding of the city is crucial for successful city branding since failure to tell the truth could affect the integrity of the city brand. In future, the truth will eventually be exposed and lead to the city being viewed either negatively or positively because of the projected image.

The City of Amsterdam assessed its existing demand, image, associations and constraints to ascertain who its customers are and what they anticipate from the

city (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2015). Through this exercise, the city was able to highlight the associations that exist between itself and its customers (investors, residents and visitors) and some constraints with regards to its marketing strategies.

The assessment revealed that Amsterdam was popular as a city with a high rate of drug use and prostitution, was not aware of its competitive advantages against its rivals and was not communicating effectively with its target market. The city took an extensive research process comparing its marketing practice to that of Barcelona, Berlin, Dublin and Rotterdam. The city decided that it was supposed to put more effort into its marketing endeavours to communicate effectively with its audiences. Because the city had a negative image in the eyes of its prospective customers, it deliberated on strengthening its creative industries to improve its attractiveness to the local people, and visitors and revitalising its image because it wanted to deal with competition, improve its image and benefit from well-informed marketing (which is a proactive strategy) which prevents crisis.

Through its study, the City of Amsterdam introspectively admitted that it was popular as a city with illegal drug abuse and prostitution. This did not represent or speak to the intended image by the city marketers hence the city through its consultancy focused its attention on improving its image in this regard. Prilenska (2012) highlights that communication is vital for the city brand to be successful; hence, the city embarked on revitalising its image in the source markets through branding itself as a creative, innovative and entrepreneurship city (Kavaratzis, 2008). Analysis of the market environment was incorporated into the component 'assessing the current situation' for the FBJ (see Figure 5.2).

3.5.3 Brand development

The recovery of the image of a city or destination is dependent mostly on the efforts made by the city concerned to develop the destination. The process should involve all the city stakeholders as highlighted in case studies of Amsterdam, New York and Cape Town where the cities chose strategies that promote collaboration, partnership, sustainability, resilience, and active citizenship. The process of recovery should comprise elements such as the refurbishment of

infrastructure, the development of new attractions including the provision of sufficient funds for branding purposes.

For purposes of this study, cities should also prioritise the employment of an experience branding strategy based on cultural heritage as this will improve visitation and consumption in the city. New York City also promoted its tourism industry together with the real estate and finance industries. The other two cities Amsterdam and Cape Town also promoted their tourism industries respectively as they focused on improving visitation to the cities. If the city has a negative image in source markets, it can improve its image in the source markets thereby increasing the number of visitors coming to the city.

The employment of a city's natural competitive advantage in city branding has been proven to be effective as this cannot be replicated in any form. Amsterdam is home to a plethora of cultural heritage attractions that includes museums, restaurants and canals. In contrast, Cape Town is known for its natural beauty and the sea while New York is popular for its business districts, night life, resilience, sustainability, and equitable policies regarding its branding projects. All these characteristics are crucial for drawing visitors to these cities.

Amsterdam's motto (IAMsterdam) is incredibly unique and flexible as it can be employed differently and can enable it to connect easily with any industry or sector in the city. IAMsterdam is used to promote the city through billboards, posters and on big screens in the city and its surroundings. Physical versions of the brand took the form of red and white 2-metre-long letters and the 'IAMsterdam' exhibition was opened at the Amsterdam museum of photography (FOAM) and since its inception, it has travelled around the world. The slogan (IAMsterdam) can be incorporated by any organisation in Amsterdam because of its flexibility; hence the CoJ must acknowledge all these unique features in branding the city.

Cities also need to create unique and flexible mottos that can easily connect with any industry or sector in the city. This promotes the success of the city brand as all stakeholders' interests can easily align with the city motto or slogan. The slogan 'I Love New York' is a good example as it was supported by a catchy commercial tune that was a hit across the world and there was a surge in visitor numbers.

Yavuz et al. (2018) added that the employment of smart destination applications complemented the branding of the City of Amsterdam, New York and Cape Town, as visitors nowadays are technologically advanced and their city to visit decisions are based on the availability of these smart applications in their prospective destinations.

The notion of a smart destination enhances the experiences of visitors and the quality of life of residents at the same time as they share the same space in the city. This actually reduces the likelihood of conflicts between residents and visitors. In this way, both interact with one another in harmony which leads to positive word-of-mouth or recommendations to friends and relatives and repeat visits. The present study incorporated 'brand development' into the component of 'designing the branding strategy' of the FBJ (see Figure 5.2).

3.5.4 Brand implementation

Aggressive marketing of the city both locally and internationally is a crucial component of the implementation element. The City of Amsterdam found out that it was not communicating effectively with its target audience both locally and internationally but after aggressively marketing itself locally and internationally it successfully positioned itself on the world map (Amsterdam Marketing, 2014). The city is now known as a world-class tourist destination (Yavuz *et al.*, 2018).

Proactive marketing is suggested to be conducted during the recovery process. Gani and Singh (2019) assert that apart from the assessment of the city's micro and macro environment, competitor analysis and resource analysis, the cities should employ a proactive marketing strategy instead of waiting to respond to a crisis. The City of Amsterdam did just that in a way that prevented a crisis (Amsterdam Marketing, 2014). Gani and Singh (2019) maintain that it is better to have a counter strategy in place, instead of thinking of a solution to a problem when you are faced with one. Brand implementation was incorporated into the component 'implementing the designed strategy' of the FBJ for the current study (see Figure 5.2).

3.5.5 Promotion and communication of the brand

The City of Amsterdam found out that it was not communicating effectively with its target market and deliberated on using different communication tools such as

online platforms, physical versions of its motto and stakeholders inserting the city motto in their advertisements. The city was also advertised through posters and billboards around the city. From the above facts, the city did not only dwell on the traditional marketing communication tools but instead the city was innovative in a way through the use of its physical versions of its motto to complement its communication with its target market. Promotion and communication were incorporated into the component 'implementing the designed strategy' of the FBJ for the current study (see Figure 5.2).

3.5.6 Brand monitoring and evaluation

According to Amsterdam Marketing (2014), because branding is an ongoing and continuous managerial task, there is a greater need for an office that deals specifically with the branding project in the city. As revealed in the extant literature, there are a variety of challenges that city marketers face (such as lack of clear leadership, rampant delays in the branding process and unclear operational brand management) because of not having an office that deals specifically with the branding of the city (Moilanen, 2015). When there is an office that deals with the branding project, all these problems are minimised because there are officials that are working specifically with that project. An office that is responsible specifically for the branding project is important to avoid some of the notable challenges that are faced by city marketers when branding their cities (Amsterdam Marketing, 2014). The present study incorporated 'brand monitoring and evaluation' into the components 'managing and monitoring the progress of the implemented strategy' and 'assessing the progress of the designed strategy' of the FBJ (see Figure 5.2).

From the case studies, it is clear that the plans put in place were specific to the conditions of the City of Amsterdam, New York City and City of Cape Town, respectively. Amsterdam experienced high levels of alcohol, drug abuse and prostitution. Similarly, New York also experienced high levels of crime and drug addiction and natural disasters and terrorism while Cape Town experienced high levels of crime and a decrease in visitor numbers. This, therefore, calls for sensitivity to contextual relevance rather than a one size fits all approach (Zenker & Braun, 2017). Every city has its own characteristics that the city can employ as

its competitive advantage against its competitors. Hence, city marketers should take note of this when carrying out their own branding projects.

3.6 CONCLUSION

The objective of this chapter was to evaluate international best practices in city branding. This objective was met in this chapter as the cities discussed have each an interesting history where change, progress and diversity were embraced in response to negative perceptions and economic downturns. All the cities focused on the positive attributes of the city during their respective rebranding projects. A good relationship also existed between the city and the residents. This was instrumental to the cities' successes regarding branding because city residents are walking-talking adverts and their belief and support of the city brand contributed to their success.

The cities were branded in ways their stakeholders found believable which reinforced the city brand as truthful. This was witnessed through word-of-mouth, advertising and public relations and through the design of graphics and physical versions of the slogans. Through these positive attributes, the city brands were reinforced. The cities had functionality and added value just like any other strong brands. Their unique sources of competitive advantages were based on the function of their geographic location for trade, employment, industry and economy. Furthermore, their added value contributed to their distinctiveness as brands which were outlined in their culture, attractions and people. The cities were able to honour their past and managed to merge it with their future plans so as to adjust to globalisation.

The cities were able to embrace new political climates, events and changes in attitudes and strived to cooperate to find consensus with their stakeholders. Through adapting to and embracing diverse cultures, stakeholders and ideas, they evolved into strong city brands. The cities had clear identities and projected city brands that were consistently portrayed. There is no confusion among city stakeholders about the city brands or what city brands stand for, and the cities have something that is not available anywhere else. Through their brands, it is clear what the city brand is all about and what kinds of added value and attractions the city offers. This is real value and not perceived value. Because the

cities were and are open to change, evolution and inclusion, they will continue to attract many visitors to spend more time and money in their boundaries. Hence, the lessons from these cities informed the FBJ suggested in this study which can be useful to a city like Johannesburg in carrying out efficient and effective city branding projects.

From the preceding facts, Amsterdam, New York and Cape Town did not begin and end all their marketing efforts with an advertising campaign but assessed their current situation first and their action afterwards was dependent on the results of the assessment conducted. In this regard, it is crucial that the CoJ should assess its current situation to ascertain its associations with its customers and deliberate on its way forward.

In Chapter 4, a situational analysis of city branding in Johannesburg was conducted with the aim of identifying the city's strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats (SWOT) in terms of city branding to inform the framework for branding the CoJ potentially as a cultural heritage destination.

CHAPTER 4: A SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS OF CITY BRANDING IN JOHANNESBURG

4.1 INTRODUCTION

City branding in some cities such as Johannesburg remains a mere conceptual issue. As such, Johannesburg is failing to realise efficient and effective city branding strategies to promote themselves as attractive and successful tourist destination (Kasapi & Cela, 2017). Other cities such as New York and Amsterdam are progressing while others are deteriorating because of inefficient and ineffective city branding strategies. City branding should involve government, tourism industry and regional, national and international organisations (Morrison, 2023). All these mentioned stakeholders should contribute to the branding of the city. This was proven in Chapter 3 where international case studies on city branding were reviewed.

The aim of this chapter is to examine Johannesburg's experiences with respect to city branding and to execute a situational analysis regarding the implications

of city branding strategies. It focused on probing secondary research objective 3, that is:

To analyse the current situation in Johannesburg regarding city branding

The objectives of the chapter are, therefore, to:

- Execute a situational analysis of Johannesburg regarding the branding of the city as a tourist destination.
- Explain the role of the tourism industry in city branding in Johannesburg.
- Evaluate the processes conducted and the structures followed by the city in branding the destination.
- Discuss factors that affect the city brand and how these factors have contributed to a negative image and poor publicity.
- Examine factors that could affect the city's future branding initiatives.

The chapter began with a brief background of the city as a tourist destination, a discussion of city branding in Johannesburg followed, a SWOT (Strength, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats) analysis for the city brand was conducted followed by matters that could affect future branding projects were examined and lastly lessons taken from the situational analysis were discussed. Figure 4.1 presents the flow diagram of Chapter 4 layout.

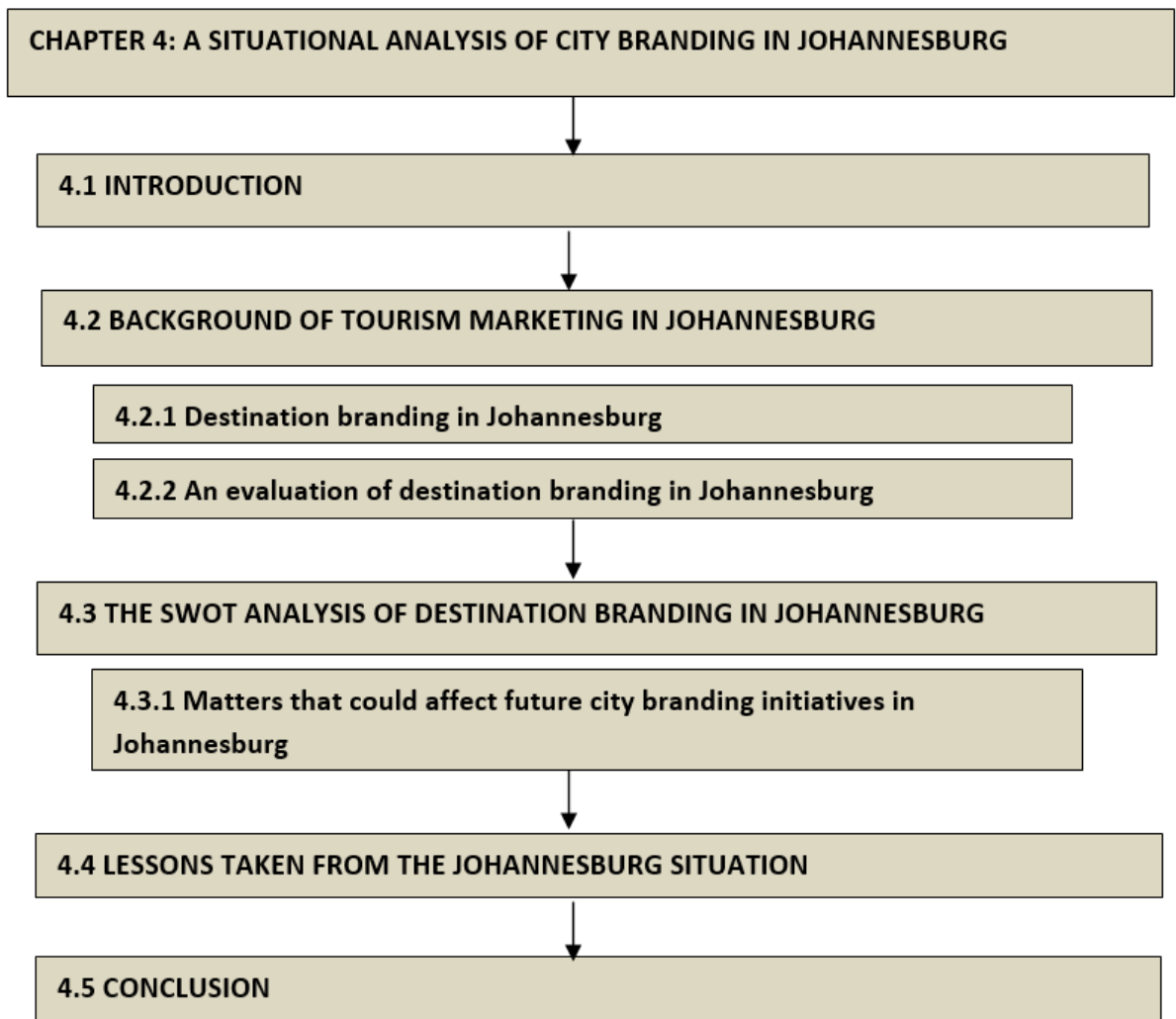


Figure 4.1: Flow diagram of Chapter 4 layout

The chapter will be discussed according to the flow diagram commencing with the background of tourism marketing in Johannesburg, followed by a SWOT analysis of destination branding in Johannesburg and lastly, lessons taken from the Johannesburg situation were analysed to inform the FBJ suggested in the study.

4.2 BACKGROUND OF TOURISM MARKETING IN JOHANNESBURG

Johannesburg, which is also known as the City of Gold, Jo'burg or Jozi because gold was discovered there, is South Africa's largest city, is number two in Africa and is Gauteng Province's capital (CoJ, 2022). Johannesburg is also known as one of the largest 50 urban agglomerations worldwide and the world's largest city that is not located on a lake, river or coast (Dladla, 2019). The city was founded

in the 19th century as a gold-mining settlement in 1886 following the discovery of gold on the Witwatersrand (CoJ, 2022).

Between the 1940s and early 1950s, major developments took place in Hillbrow and the early 1960s witnessed the construction of many townships which were later known as South Western Townships (Soweto) and new roads better known as freeways (CoJ, 2022). Because of these developments, many people started to migrate into the city. However, the early 1980s and 1990s saw a slight decline of the city's central area as property developers began building shopping malls, decentralised office parks and entertainment centres (Dladla, 2019). Johannesburg has both a beautiful and notorious history and an image of a crime-riddled city in the world because of high levels of violent crime (Opferman, 2020). However, the city continues to be the economic leader in South Africa and Africa at large as it attracts people from other provinces and other countries in search for better opportunities (Matiza, 2020). The city has stark contrasts; it is home to the poor and rich, high and those who earn low income, high density and low-density suburbs and high density formal and informal settlement, and also hosts both formal and informal traders, and is known as the world's largest artificial forest (Johannesburg Tourism, 2022).

The International Marketing Council (IMC) was formed in August 2000 after the government had realised that it was crucial to promote an enticing and engrossing image of South Africa (Johnston, 2008). To transform its image from a precursor whose governance was characterised by social injustice, it was imperative to change the perception of the world about the country to encourage trading with other nations, development of tourism, investment and participation in international politics. The key responsibilities of the IMC were to build a positive image of the country, which would encourage investors to come to South Africa, encourage trade between South Africa and other nations and improving political relations (Johnston, 2008). The IMC was then transformed into Brand South Africa which had intentional, well-coordinated and resourced, evidence-based and nation branding strategy driven by the stakeholders (Brand South Africa & De Kock, 2013; Johnston, 2008). To fulfil this mandate, the provincial level has a variety of public entities that are responsible for investment promotion such as the Gauteng Tourism Authority (GTA) which is a collaborative marketing

organisation responsible for marketing Gauteng Province as a tourist destination. The GTA works closely with public organisations such as Johannesburg Tourism Company which is a local destination marketing organisation responsible for marketing the CoJ as a tourist destination. The next section discusses destination branding in Johannesburg.

4.2.1 Destination branding in Johannesburg

After the attainment of independence in 1994, South Africa opened its doors to the international community, moving away from negative past experiences such as apartheid, sanctions and the social ills that had negatively affected its image (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2017). The first step was to sell the country as a tourist destination which enabled the formation of agencies such as the GTA to promote Gauteng Province as a global tourism destination. The formation of Johannesburg Tourism Company, a local destination marketing organisation responsible for marketing the city as a tourist destination, followed (CoJ, 2022). The city has been carrying out branding projects since 1990. During the 19th century, Johannesburg was being marketed as a mining city and business centre of the sub-Saharan Africa (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2017). In the 20th century, the city was compared to world cities such as New York while some were referring to it as a centre for business and transport for Southern Africa (Scholvin, 2020). The 21st century referred to it as a competitive city in the world (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2017). These slogans played an instrumental role in branding the city since the use of visual cues and events has been widely employed by cities in the quest for differentiation (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2015).

Most recently, the CoJ has been marketed as a 'World Class African City' and the Johannesburg brand has been competing on an international stage (CoJ, 2022). To achieve its objectives, the city carried out projects such as the Greater Ellis Park Development Programme (GEPD) which abandoned the needs of the poor (Mlangeni, 2008). According to Bethlehem (2013), the GEPD resulted in forced evictions with no alternative accommodation which led to an increase in the number of destitute in the city. Benit-Gbaffon (2009) further highlighted that the GEPD's public participation was between property owners, investors and local government while leaving out residents from the decision-making process. This is an indication that city branding in Johannesburg applies a pro-rich

development method and therefore the city's brand is not in line with actual realities of the city image (Bethlehem, 2013).

This has resulted in the city losing much of its business as the visitors tend to bypass the city for the safaris and other cities such as Cape Town. Many visitors view the CoJ as a transit and business destination (Matiza, 2020). To support the foregoing facts, South African Tourism (SAT) in 2005 conducted a study to prove that many visitors wanted to spend their time at cultural heritage attractions as compared to visiting the safaris. However, the study found out that only a few of these visitors have been to cultural heritage attractions during their stay in the country instead (South African Tourism, 2005). Internationally, cities are using cultural heritage tourism to differentiate their cities from competition (Herstein & Berger, 2014). Hence, promoting cultural heritage attractions is common in cities experiencing a decline in economic growth. Alternatively, if the CoJ can implement appropriate structures and processes for city branding, it can be possible to attract visitors to stay longer in the city. This follows the fact that branding of destinations should be specific to the destination in question and not be generic in nature as all destinations have their own unique set of attributes (Zenker & Braun, 2017). Furthermore, a framework for branding the city efficiently and effectively is needed in this regard. An evaluation of destination branding in Johannesburg is presented next.

4.2.2 Evaluation of city branding in Johannesburg

According to Morrison (2023), efficient and effective city branding can be achieved if city marketers are able to implement appropriate structures and processes during city branding. This follows the fact that a city is a complex and unique process with many stakeholders (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2015). Hence proper structures and processes should be implemented as guidelines for city branding. The geographical location and the physical attributes of the CoJ enable it to be promoted in terms of its cultural heritage offerings (Muzeza & Van Zyl, 2018). However, the city has been branded as a business and entertainment destination ignoring the rich cultural heritage resources in the city (Mbhiza & Mearns, 2014).

According to Morrison (2023), a city must be branded according to its socio-cultural characteristics. In support of the foregoing views, Yuand Kim (2020) highlight that a destination image depends on the views of the visitors. All this can be ascertained through following proper branding processes and structures. The latter include assessing markets, assessing the city's appeal to its visitors, developing suitable strategic objectives and operational marketing, carrying out the objectives and evaluating the results (Bonakdar & Andirac, 2020). These are discussed in the next sub-sections with respect to the Johannesburg situation.

4.2.2.1 Assessment of Johannesburg's tourism markets

The CoJ is the economic heart and financial powerhouse of South Africa and is a major attraction for business tourists (Matiza, 2020). The author further explains that business tourism contributes an estimated US\$7.4 billion to the South African economy. To support this tourism market, the city has world class hotels in places like Sandton and Rosebank (Rogerson, 2020). However, a large proportion of visitors to Johannesburg are shoppers from other Southern African countries such as Zimbabwe, Mozambique, Swaziland, Lesotho and Botswana (Stats SA, 2022). Hence, there is a need to encourage visitors to spend more time and money in the city (Malleka *et al.*, 2020). According to Opfermann (2020), tourism offerings in and around Johannesburg include bicycle tours, events, major art exhibitions and inner-city walking tours. This implies that the city is also popular with cultural heritage tourists (Muzeza & Van Zyl, 2018). Besides these offerings, visitors bypass the city for other destinations such as Cape Town, Durban and Tshwane and go on safaris in Botswana, Zimbabwe and elsewhere (Ntsibande, 2018). The city has failed to entice its visitors into spending more time and money in its territories. This is linked with the fact that the city is being branded in a way that does not correctly communicate its image to the prospective visitors; hence, the city is promoting its business attributes instead of its cultural heritage attributes. Kasapi and Cela (2017) accentuate that when visitors view a city differently from how it is branded, the result is that visitors will opt to visit and spend more time and money in other destinations that offer what they are looking for. Hence the CoJ should promote the attributes that best describes its value propositions.

4.2.2.2 Analysing Johannesburg's ability to attract its tourism target markets

All along, the CoJ has been branded as a business and entertainment destination (Matiza, 2020). However, this approach was/is affected by the socioeconomic ills such as corruption, crime, lawlessness and misinforming the visitors of what the city offers and by outbreaks of pandemics such as HIV/AIDS and most recently COVID-19 (WHO, 2020). Even though the CoJ offers a remarkable number of cultural heritage attractions, they are mainly bypassed by many visitors for other destinations in the country and continent at large. To support this assumption, Table 4.1 indicates the distribution of foreign arrivals, departures and transits by air and place of arrival or departure in 2022.

Table 4.1: Distribution of foreign arrivals, departures and transits by air and place of arrival or departure, 2022

Place of arrival, departure, or transit	Arrivals	Departures	Transits
Cape Town International Airport (Cape Town)	295 518	349 631	36
King Shaka International Airport (Durban)	61 293	72 994	1
O.R. Tambo International Airport (Johannesburg)	1 202 076	1 290 363	4 094

Source: Adapted from Stats SA (2022)

Table 4.1 indicates that the CoJ is mainly being visited as a transit city by visitors to other destinations in the country and the continent at large (Stats SA, 2022). This is evident enough as 4 094 of the international arrivals immediately head to some other destination when they touch down at OR Tambo International Airport as compared to King Shaka International Airport which had only 1 and Cape Town International Airport which had 36 transits out of its arrivals (Stats SA, 2022). This shows that Johannesburg is not able to host its visitors for long as compared to its competitors.

In the international arena, the name Johannesburg brings back images of elevated levels of crime (Opferman, 2020), corruption, HIV and AIDS, and most recently, COVID-19 (WHO, 2020), lawlessness and general chaos such as

xenophobia and protests. South Africa as a country is renowned as a crime-riddled country, rated number 125 out of 163 countries with regards to crime levels (The Institute for Economics and Peace, 2018). This has detrimental effects to tourism as was experienced in September 1997 when Cape Town failed to host the 2004 Olympic Games at the hands of Athens. At that point in time, crime affected Cape Town's chances of hosting the 2004 edition of the Olympic Games (Why Cape Town did not win Olympic bid, 1997:25). This has been worsened by the land expropriation that has been proposed recently (South African Tourism, 2019). The controversy around land expropriation has plunged the tourism industry and the economy of South Africa's neighbour, Zimbabwe to its worst (Ndlovu, 2009). Visitors from other countries are misinformed of the situation in Johannesburg and South Africa as a whole, hence, the city must be promoted in all these countries. By following this strategy and also highlighting the cultural heritage activities available in the city will help to draw visitors to the city.

4.2.2.3 Johannesburg's tourism operational marketing strategy

Tourism is growing immensely throughout the world (Kusumawati *et al.*, 2023). The decline in tourist spending in Johannesburg can affect the progress of the industry in general. However, it must be noted that despite this drawback in Johannesburg, other cities are enjoying increased visitor spending (Stats SA, 2022). This is so because there are negative perceptions about the CoJ in many countries. Hence, the city must come up with a plan to counteract this negative publicity (GTA, 2017/18).

In response to this, the GTA conceptualised a plan in 2017/18 where it embarked on destination promotion activities that included among other things: promoting destination Gauteng (Johannesburg encompassed) using various communication channels in marketing the destination to both domestic and international markets (Gauteng Tourism Authority, 2017/18:23-24). The city is promoted through social media platforms such as Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram, among others. However, the city does not have a slogan that speaks to its values nor does it have physical versions of such a slogan to place on billboards in the streets as suggested by the City of Amsterdam (Amsterdam Marketing, 2014). The city must create a slogan that speaks to its values together

with physical versions of the slogan that different companies can use in marketing their products. Hence, the city should employ traditional marketing communication tools, social media and physical versions of slogans and graphics.

4.2.2.4 Implementing Johannesburg's tourism marketing objectives

In order for the CoJ to realise efficient and effective branding, it must embrace other stakeholders' perspectives (Mtetwa, 2020). The GTA has done a remarkable job of putting the city and the province on the world map in terms of tourism. However, these efforts must be ongoing because the world is revolving as time passes. At present, the CoJ does have a logo. However, the logo seems not to embrace the tourism industry. The city's slogan has no link with the tourist attractions that the city offers, and there appears to be a conflict between the GTA, CoJ and other stakeholders at large in this regard.

The creation of a city's logo is dependent on the input from all the stakeholders operating within the CoJ (Ruzinskaite, 2015). The branding process is a project for all the stakeholders, not that of the city or GTA alone (Stylidis, 2020). According to its functions, the GTA must live up to those responsibilities, that is, leading and promoting cooperation among all the stakeholders. When this is done, the city will be able to attract visitors to stay for long in the city.

4.2.2.5 Johannesburg's tourism branding strategies implementation and evaluation

The CoJ should capitalise on the cultural heritage attractions it offers to the tourists (Muzeza & Van Zyl, 2018). However, if the city marketers fail to do so, attracting visitors to spend more can be a problem. Sotiriadis (2021) suggests that for any destination to be successful, the city must make use of efficient various communication channels available. For this to be effective, the city must always assess all its strategies every time (GTA, 2017/18). At present there are limited academic articles focusing on Johannesburg's branding (Scholvin, 2022; Mbinza, 2024) as compared to the City of Cape Town which has a sizeable number of articles regarding its branding (Hemmonsbeey & Knott, 2016; Hemmonsbeey *et al.*, 2018). More research is required to assess the success of the city from visitors' views.

The following section presents the SWOT analysis of destination branding in Johannesburg in efforts to highlight the city's SWOT to suggest the FBJ for purposes of this study.

4.3 SWOT ANALYSIS OF DESTINATION BRANDING IN JOHANNESBURG

Tables 4.2 and 4.3 present a comprehensive analysis of the CoJ's branding. The result outlays the SWOT that Johannesburg encounters taking into consideration information from different sources. SWOT analysis is known as one of the oldest tools for strategic planning through identifying and examining the existing resources worldwide first reported by Robert Franklin Stewart (Puyt, Lie & Wilderom, 2023). For these reasons, it was thought that it could be useful in deliberating Johannesburg's future city branding strategies.

Table 4.2: Results of the assessment of city branding in Johannesburg

Component mix	Strengths	Weaknesses
City branding initiatives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ The community is aware of city branding benefits. ▪ Information and signs available. ▪ Well-known brand name. ▪ Clear objectives and operational plans 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Poor brand image. ▪ Less consumers goodwill. ▪ Segments not properly targeted. ▪ Inappropriate positioning statement. ▪ Weak brand promise. ▪ Negative image in source markets. ▪ Prospective visitors view the city offering negatively.
Enabling environment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Well-defined government legislation. ▪ Foreign currency is available in abundance. ▪ Availability of financial resources to fund promising strategic initiatives. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Lawlessness. ▪ Elevated levels of crime. ▪ Elevated levels of corruption in government departments. ▪ High infection rates of HIV/AIDS. ▪ High fuel prices. ▪ Electricity power cuts

Component mix	Strengths	Weaknesses
City image and positioning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Unique offering. ▪ Many cultural heritage attractions. ▪ Abundant activities. ▪ World-class auxiliary services. ▪ An organised tourism industry. ▪ Organisational structure of the tourism industry is well-defined. ▪ Clear strategic direction. ▪ Availability of major international airlines. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Lack of collaboration among stakeholders in the city. ▪ GTA and various stakeholders do not share the same vision. ▪ Inefficient local public airline.

Table 4.3: Results of the assessment of city branding in Johannesburg

Component mix	Threats	Opportunities
City branding initiatives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Expectations of visitors not met by the brand promise. ▪ Loss of market share. ▪ Biased coverage of Johannesburg in the international media. ▪ The brand provokes images of crime, lawlessness (xenophobia), and outbreaks of pandemics such as HIV/AIDS. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Exploit new market segments. ▪ Re-brand and reposition the city. ▪ Research on visitors' needs and expectations, not numbers and figures. ▪ Undertake visitor feedback programmes. ▪ Carry out familiarisation trips for travel writers. ▪ Always brand the city truthfully. ▪ The city should design a slogan that speaks to the values of the city. ▪ Invite international writers to the city to have first-hand experience. ▪ Offer counter strategies to correct any negative

Component mix	Threats	Opportunities
		<p>publicity and unforeseen occurrences.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪
City image and positioning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ General increase of cities offering the same product line. ▪ Stereotyping and labelling Johannesburg as a crime-riddled city. ▪ High inflation rates. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ All city stakeholders should be consulted when implementing the chosen strategy. ▪ The city should influence all stakeholders to be innovative in a way that support the chosen strategy.
Enabling environment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Increase in xenophobic attacks on foreign nationals. ▪ Globalisation which promotes competition among cities for visitors. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Ensuring maximum safety and security in the city. ▪ Continuous employment of smart city technologies to enhance visitors' experience.

Source: Gauteng Tourism Authority (2017/18); Muzeza & Van Zyl (2018); Mtetwa (2020); Opferman (2020); Stats SA (2022)

In terms of Johannesburg's strengths, the SWOT analysis revealed that the city boasts a well-known brand name locally and internationally, and residents are aware of the benefits associated with city branding which can lead to their cooperation during the branding process. As an economic hub for the province, country and continent, the city has financial resources needed for campaigns such as branding. The city also boasts a clear strategic direction with clear objectives and operational plans in place to become an international destination of choice. The city hosts cultural heritage attractions in abundance and these are supported by world-class auxiliary services such as banks and car hires companies among others. The availability of major international airlines makes it possible and easy to access Johannesburg from source cities and countries respectively. This is so because Johannesburg hosts OR Tambo International Airport which is the gateway to South African cities and Africa at large.

Regarding Johannesburg's weaknesses, the SWOT analysis has revealed a poor enabling environment that encompasses lawlessness, corruption in government departments and outbreaks of pandemics. Moreover, city branding projects have

been launched only by the city authorities, without involvement of the other city stakeholders such as local residents, and a lack of efficient communication strategies which results in a poor image and positioning of the Johannesburg city brand. The city should work on these weaknesses to brand the city successfully on the market.

In terms of opportunities, the city should research on visitors' needs and expectations, consult with all the city stakeholders and carry out rebranding projects with focus mainly on exploring new markets such as targeting cultural heritage visitors. The city should also design a slogan that speaks to the value of the city and strive to ensuring maximum safety and security in and around the city. There is evidence of increased awareness in promoting advancements in the technological and the economic circles. The city has since embarked on implementing a smart city project which enriches residents' quality of life and visitors' experience of the city. In quest of branding the city efficiently, the city should take advantage of its strengths and opportunities. This can be achieved through carrying out a re-branding project for the city where the focus should be on the employment of cultural heritage potentially as the key value proposition.

Regarding threats; globalisation which promotes competition from other cities that have successfully conducted city branding campaigns, such as Amsterdam, New York and in South Africa, Cape Town, are increasingly intensive. Cities are competing for the world's finite resources such as residents, investors and visitors, and failing to attract these resources means missing out on resources and opportunities, which affects the city's potential to carry out efficient and effective branding projects (Kasapi & Cela, 2017). Expectations of visitors are not met by the brand promise which has contributed to the loss of the market share by the city. The Johannesburg city brand provokes images of crime, lawlessness and outbreaks of diseases which also affect visitor numbers to the city (Opferman, 2020). The city also experiences problems of stereotyping and labelling from the media coupled with high inflation rates which lead to an undesirable and expensive destination, respectively. However, there are other factors other than tourism that can affect the CoJ's branding strategies now and in the future. These are discussed in the following section.

4.3.1 Matters that could affect future city branding initiatives in Johannesburg

Bonakdar and Andirac (2020) argue that public authorities such as political organisations, pressure groups and government who have an interest in the city may influence the city's activities; hence, they must be analysed. The following sub-sections explore factors other than that of tourism that could affect the success of city branding in Johannesburg now and in the future. Cities should always consider these factors when drafting their city branding strategies.

4.3.1.1 Political issues in the city

Moilanen (2015) and Lucarelli (2018) opine that political issues pose threats to the branding processes in many destinations. Chirisa *et al.* (2017) found that this affects the confidence levels of investors and tourists thereby impacting on the tourist numbers visiting the country/destination. The authors found out that branding the City of Harare was not possible because of the harsh political and economic conditions in the country. According to Moilanen (2015), political interference disturbs the success of many branding projects. In South Africa, examples can be visa regulations that are restrictive towards certain citizens, that is, others do not require visas, while others should apply for visa prior to travelling (South African Tourism, 2022). Unabridged birth certificates (UBCs) in South Africa continue to prove a problem in tourism's side, making the country increasingly less attractive. This scenario is a major concern considering the fact that there are other cities from other countries which are competitors to Johannesburg (South African Tourism, 2022). Such countries offer visa exemptions to citizens from their target markets. Therefore, South Africa should also introduce visa exemptions to citizens from such countries so that more visitors will choose the country or city as their preferred destination. Hence, when carrying out a branding project for any city such issues must be taken into consideration. Visitors need to be assured of their safety while in the city, that is, the political stability and situation in the country must be considered when branding any city.

4.3.1.2 Economic situation

According to Chirisa *et al.* (2017), despite the fact that cities are the economic hub of countries and that they host multinational companies, they face high levels of corruption cases in government departments which reduces the confidence levels of investors and that of tourists. Retrenchments and elevated levels of unemployment have put great pressure on the economy of South Africa, for instance. The rising petrol prices have also contributed to destinations being expensive to the domestic tourists thereby affecting the domestic tourist numbers visiting cities. Most recently, the South African economy was downgraded into junk status by various rating agencies. This poses a great threat to the image of the city as a whole because very few or no investors will be willing to operate in such a country (Chirisa *et al.*, 2017). As such, this leads to a situation where the level of service delivery in the country is compromised (Wessels & Tseane-Gumbi, 2022). Hence, no visitors would want to be associated with a country or city where the quality of tourism services is compromised.

When branding a city, the economic situation is very essential in terms of attracting visitors to the city. The economic climate will always play a key role in determining whether the branding campaigns will be successful or not. Unemployment leads to criminal activities while rising prices of petrol and basic goods leads to an expensive destination (Wessels & Tseane-Gumbi, 2022). In this way, prospective visitors will end up choosing to visit fairly cheaper destinations. The electricity crisis in South Africa, for instance, used to disturb businesses and movement of people from one point to the other. However, loadshedding has since been resolved. Hence, the economic climate in the country affects the visitation of a city and the country as a whole.

4.3.1.3 Social situation

Ripoll Gonzalez and Gale (2020) assert that city branding is a complex process because it involves many stakeholders; hence, stakeholder collaboration is essential for efficient and effective branding (Bjorner & Aronsson, 2022). The stakeholder theory, according to Lestari *et al.* (2020), describes how important stakeholders are and their ability to influence or threaten an organisation. Zhao *et al.* (2022) highlight the need for evaluating stakeholder views so as to promote efficient and effective branding projects. The effective collaboration of

stakeholders reduces potential conflicts of interests (Stylidis, 2020). Many scholars' advocates for a stakeholder engagement approach as initially proposed in business management studies where it is highlighted that an organisation cannot make it in the market without the support and buy-in from stakeholders (Virgo & De Chernatony, 2005; Stylidis, 2020; Zhao *et al.*, 2022). According to Stylidis (2020), this approach is also of significant importance in city branding as the engagement of city stakeholders can be incentives for the branding of the city in question. The author maintains that stakeholders who become involved in the branding projects of their city should be motivated to recommend the city to the visitors if it makes sense to them and to meet their needs. Moreover, according to Stylidis (2020), stakeholders are motivated by contributing to the common good of their city because city branding adopts a community approach that takes relevant city stakeholders on board.

According to Mason (2016), social environment includes the general population of the city and its characteristics. Cities are overpopulated from their own citizens migrating from other provinces and other foreign nationals coming to the country in search of greener pastures (CoJ, 2020). CoJ (2020) reiterates that overpopulation in a city or country compromises the quality of service delivery in the city or country. Malovha and Adinolfi (2018) also allude that cities face problems of crime and lawlessness which affect their images in general. The cases of Amsterdam and New York also conceded that prostitution and drug use were responsible for the bad image of the cities in their source markets; hence, the city embarked on a project aimed at changing these perceptions in the source markets (Amsterdam Marketing, 2014). This calls for urgent strategies to reduce crime and instil a sense of safety and security in tourists visiting the destinations (GTA, 2017/18). The continual increases in HIV and AIDS infections are a cause for concern as this also affect the city negatively in terms of tourist inflows in several international destinations (UNAIDS, 2013), and most recently, COVID-19, which resulted in worldwide restrictions on travelling from country to country and within the country (World Health Organisation (WHO), 2020).

It was highlighted earlier in the study that residents are an integral part of a destination as they are its ambassadors, its citizens and its promoters (Fain *et al.*, 2022). In a situation where residents are xenophobic against foreign nationals

and view visitors as easy targets in terms of robbing them, the image of the city is painted negatively in source markets (Opferman, 2020). This, according to Malleka *et al.* (2022), leads to fewer visitors coming, and also reducing the time spent by visitors in the city. Stylidis (2020) highlights the importance of including residence in city branding projects as it helps them to understand the importance of city branding and its benefits to the quality of their life. In this regard, residents need to be educated on the importance of visitors to the city so that city branding is successful. Hence, the CoJ should promote a participatory approach in its branding initiatives taking into consideration the city's social situation to successfully brand the city.

4.3.1.4 Information and Communication Technology in the city

Allam (2017) asserts that across the globe, countries have taken greater strides in advancing information and communication technology (ICT). According to the author, visitors may want to visit far away destinations and these distances contribute to difficulties with respect to tourist distribution. Destinations are located far away from their potential visitors since their target markets are from overseas. Hence, Dabeedooal *et al.* (2019) concur that the availability of ICT in a destination enables cities to communicate effectively with potential visitors to the city thereby promoting efficient and effective city branding. Jovicic (2019) asserts that massive developments of ICT projects have been evident in many cities. This follows the fact that the development of ICT has paved way for globalisation. Therefore, the cities should continue to develop their ICT infrastructure which promotes visitation. However, Zhang *et al.* (2022) recommend that cities should also employ smart city technologies to complement their branding efforts, as many cities across the world are now working towards the implementation of the notion of smart destinations. Therefore, failure to develop the ICT infrastructure will ultimately lead to city branding failure (Yavuz *et al.*, 2018).

Cities such as Amsterdam and New York are renowned as smart destinations because they have implemented the notion successfully (Yavuz *et al.*, 2018). This improves the lives of their residents and enhances the visitors' experiences in the city as residents and visitors share the same space. Visitors nowadays are technologically advanced and want to be associated with smart destinations

(Zhang *et al.*, 2022). Hence, the notion of smart destinations is a critical feature in terms of branding cities these days. Following these assumptions, the cities must implement the notion of smart destinations to complement the visitors' experiences and improving the residents' lives. City marketers must include smart destination implementation as a key element in branding their cities. The CoJ has since embarked on smart city projects that will enrich the visitors' experiences and residents' lives. The city should aim at continuously implementing such initiatives to achieve efficient and effective city branding.

4.3.1.5 Ecological situation

According to Romao *et al.* (2017), in any destination, the destination marketing organisation should ensure that tourism activities do not compromise the ecological environment of the destination. Romao *et al.* (2017) maintain that city marketers must make it a point that 'host-guest' conflict is avoided as this will affect the number of visitors coming to the city. Residents share the same space with visitors; hence city marketers must include them in their branding projects so that they understand and accept visitors (Fain *et al.*, 2022). This is one of the smart city elements as it also promotes the quality of life for residents and that of visitors (Dabeedooal *et al.*, 2019; Jovicic, 2019; Um & Chung, 2019).

Stylidis (2020) argues that the city must always strike a balance between the provisions for tourism development and the development of the city as a residential area. Romao *et al.* (2017) maintain that failure to enforce this leads to a situation where residents feel inferior to visitors, which leads to bad relations between the two. Similarly, Stylidis (2020) avers that residents need to host visitors as they are the ambassadors and promoters of the city. The opposite will lead to hostile receptions, robberies, and this, ultimately, will reduce the number of visitors to the city and reduced length of stay (Malovha & Adinolfi, 2018). Hence, when carrying out branding projects, the city marketers should consider the ecological situation in the city and strive to strike a balance in this regard. Johannesburg has experienced xenophobic violence against foreign nationals of late, and this has led to people leaving the city and country. The situation paints the city negatively, especially in source markets as prospective visitors might feel afraid of visiting the city. Hence, the city should remind residents about the importance of city branding and include them in the city branding process.

4.3.1.6 General situation in the city

Chaturuka *et al.* (2020) indicate that in Africa, the general economic meltdown, unemployment, pandemic diseases, sporadic xenophobic violence, farm killings, crime and lawlessness erode the confidence that the prospective visitors have had in certain destinations. This was supported by Chirisa *et al.* (2017) who concur that a variety of factors in Africa have led to the negative perceptions about certain cities, and these include corruption, economic mismanagement and lawlessness and the AIDS pandemic (UNAIDS, 2013). Similarly, Opfermann (2020) blame crime and lawlessness as factors resulting in cities losing their ability to attract visitors to stay for long in their territories. Consequently, the outbreak of pandemics such as HIV and AIDS and most recently COVID-19 has a direct negative impact in the numbers of visitors coming to the city (WHO, 2020). Spates of xenophobic violence against foreign nationals have created a state of lawlessness in South Africa, for instance.

Malovha and Adinolfi (2018) found that besides the city's competitiveness, attractions, activities and advertising campaigns that could attract visitors to the city, the prior image that visitors have of the place determines whether the visitors will stay for longer periods. This follows the fact that tourists are now resorting to recommendations from friends and relatives and on social media to decide on their destination of choice (Chi *et al.*, 2020; Ngan & Chinh, 2020). The CoJ should take note of the general situation in the city when carrying out its branding projects.

4.3.1.7 Financial and human resources

Ndlovu and Heath (2011) believe that to brand the city successfully, the DMOs must be well funded and international tour operators must be well informed about the situation in the city. The author further elaborates on the matter that the following are the key drawbacks in respect of the ability to carry out city branding efficiently and effectively: limited funds for the DMO's operations; limited resources and misinformation on the part of international tour operators about the cities as tourist destinations (Ndlovu & Heath, 2011).

Disturbances of public air transport operations are common in many African countries (GTA, 2017/18). This erodes the confidence that the visitors have of

the airline and eventually reduce the number of visitors to the city. However, DMOs should capitalise on the availability of a variety of accommodation, road transport and activities found in the cities and cultural heritage attractions so as to entice visitors to stay longer.

From the foregoing discussion, it was noted that there are other factors, other than those related to tourism that can affect the branding of the city. As a result, cities need to work on avoiding or limiting the effects of such factors so that their branding efforts will be successful. The following section highlights the lessons learnt from the CoJ's situation. The lessons further assisted the researcher in achieving the primary objective of this study, that is, developing a framework for branding the CoJ potentially as a cultural heritage destination in Chapter 5.

4.4 LESSONS TO TAKE FROM THE JOHANNESBURG SITUATION

It could be deduced that the Johannesburg situation regarding city branding conducted in this chapter also determined the city branding components that might result in efficient and effective city branding projects in the city. Following the assessment of the CoJ's branding strategies (as a business and entertainment destination) (Matiza, 2020), it is apparent that they are not yielding the expected results. In response to these realities:

- The city should carry out SWOT analysis before they can deliberate on the way forward. SWOT analyses enable cities to explore their strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats (Puyt *et al.*, 2023). The city will only be able to deliberate on the way forward after carrying out a SWOT analysis. In their study on rebranding Zimbabwe as a tourist destination, Ndlovu and Heath (2011) conducted a SWOT analysis of the country regarding its branding and managed to identify critical issues that were affecting its success. Hence, carrying out a SWOT analysis was incorporated into the component 'assessing the current situation' of the FBJ suggested for the current study (see Figure 5.2).
- The city should consult with all the city stakeholders to come up with the most efficient and effective branding strategies that will attract visitors to stay for longer. Because tourists today are more educated and want to buy experiences not just the tourism product, there is a greater need to consider

their needs when designing such strategies as well. The present study incorporated consultation of all the city stakeholders especially into the components 'assessing the current situation' and 'designing the branding strategy' of the FBJ (see Figure 5.2).

- Word of mouth reports are the most influencing factors towards the image of any destination (Yu & Kim, 2020). The name Johannesburg evokes images of crime, pandemics such as HIV/AIDS, lawlessness, and xenophobia; hence, it is apparent for the CoJ to embark on a rebranding project to change the negative perceptions in the market. The present study incorporated the idea of considering visitors' perceptions in the component 'assessing the performance of the branding strategy' of the FBJ suggested in the current study (see Figure 5.2).
- Developing the city's infrastructure is another key issue in the city as the city's infrastructure is in a dire state (Kusumawati *et al.*, 2023). Any branding initiative is dependent on good infrastructure that supports and enhances tourist experiences in the city. The development of the city's infrastructure was incorporated into the component 'designing the branding strategy' of the FBJ for the current study (see Figure 5.2).
- A highly and truthfully branded destination is most likely to attract many visitors. The CoJ could take advantage of the variety of cultural heritage in the city and brand itself efficiently and effectively using such attractions (Masilo & van der Merwe, 2016; Viljoen & Henama, 2017; Muzeza & Van Zyl, 2018). To do so, the city should brand itself truthfully in the eyes of the city stakeholders instead of employing factors that do not speak to the city's values. Cultural heritage resources were incorporated into the component 'designing the branding strategy' of the FBJ for the current study (see Figure 5.2).
- The city should also design a slogan or a logo that resembles the values of the city and at the same time, being flexible in terms of being used by any industry in the city. Designing a slogan or logo was incorporated into the component 'designing the branding strategy' of the FBJ (see Figure 5.2).
- The city should use both social media platforms and design physical versions of the city logo or slogan which can be placed in public places such as

billboards to promote the city to prospective visitors. Those people with limited access to the internet can learn more about the city through these billboards. Promoting the city on social media platforms and billboards was incorporated into the component 'implementing the designed strategy' of the FBJ for the current study (see Figure 5.2).

The situational analysis of city branding in Johannesburg thereby examined the city's SWOT. Therefore, the CoJ with its unique challenges, as discussed in this chapter, may require its own unique city branding framework, which was suggested in Chapter Five.

4.5 CONCLUSION

The objective of this chapter was to analyse the current situation in Johannesburg regarding city branding. This objective was achieved in this chapter as it can be concluded that in the face of a decline in its tourism performance, Johannesburg should take stock of what has been taking place, what is taking place and what should happen in future, and implement appropriate structures and processes to realise efficient and effective city branding. The city brand has lost its gleam owing to a nimiety of challenges that include crime, pandemics, corruption, deteriorating attractions and infrastructure, congestion in the CBD, and overpopulation. The city should develop a unique selling point based on its unique competitive attributes that could urge visitors to select the city as their destination of choice instead of its competitors. To achieve this goal, Johannesburg should choose from a number of strategies to enhance visitation and visitor spending. City branding strategies usually transform cities and destinations into creative and experience cities and both strategies can be employed to create a hybrid city.

Considering the SWOT analysis conducted in the chapter, Johannesburg should rethink and redesign the city brand through an inclusive and collaborative re-branding process. There is a need to incorporate city stakeholders' opinions and perceptions regarding branding the city which will assist the city in carrying out efficient and effective city branding projects. The city should also market itself truthfully using cultural heritage and ensure consistency in addressing the needs and wants of the visitors in source markets. The city should also prioritise visitors' safety and security as it experiences high levels of violent crimes. General

maintenance of the attractions and infrastructure in the city should be prioritised and the development of new attractions so as to enhance visitation to the city. It is upon the merging of these opinions and perceptions and the unique sources of competitive advantages that Johannesburg should be able to retain its competitive advantage above other cities locally, regionally and internationally.

The FBJ developed for the purposes of this study (Phase 2 of the methodological procedure in Figure 1.2) is suggested and discussed in the next chapter, informed by the extant literature examined in Chapters 2, 3, and 4.

CHAPTER 5: SUGGESTING A FRAMEWORK FOR BRANDING THE CITY OF JOHANNESBURG

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapters 2, 3 and 4 addressed phase 1 of the methodological procedure, consisting of the first part of secondary research, that is, literature review. This chapter builds on the extensive literature review that was presented in Chapter 2, 3 and 4. At phase 2, based on the literature review performed in the first stage, a summary of the crucial aspects for developing a framework for branding the CoJ was introduced and discussed in this chapter. It focused on probing secondary research objective 4, that is:

To capitalise on extant literature, elaborate on and suggest a framework for branding the CoJ.

The objective of this chapter is to suggest a framework for branding the CoJ potentially as a cultural heritage destination.

Figure 5.1 illustrates the flow diagram of Chapter 5 layout.

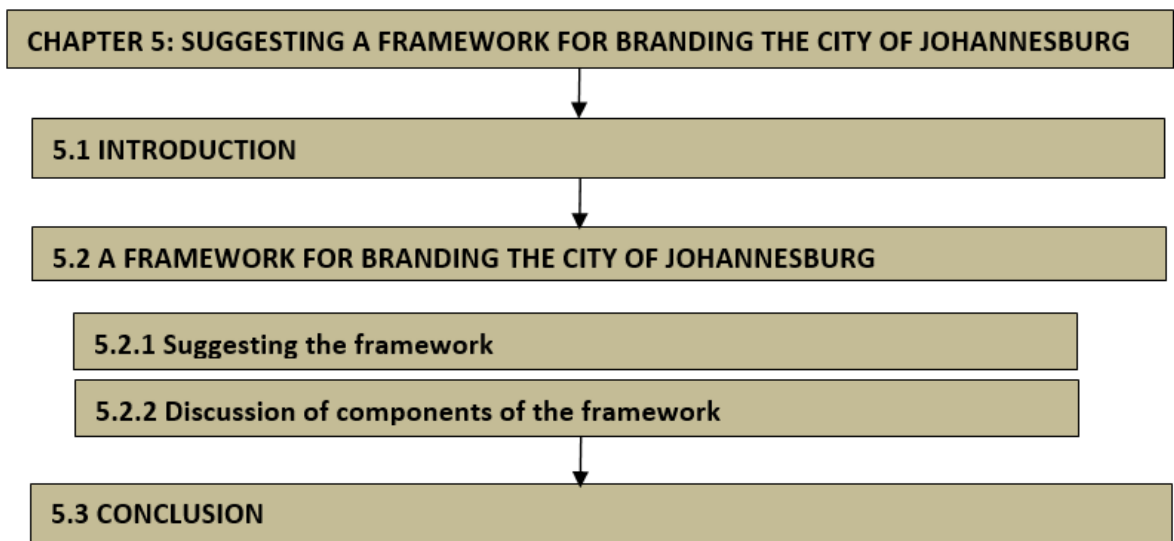


Figure 5.1: Flow diagram of Chapter 5 layout

The next section discusses the suggested framework for branding the CoJ.

5.2 FRAMEWORK FOR BRANDING THE CITY OF JOHANNESBURG

From the literature review in Chapters 2, 3 and 4, the elements crucial for developing the framework for branding the CoJ potentially as a cultural heritage destination were revealed. The key aspects, supporting studies and guiding theoretical models/frameworks were discussed guided by the theoretical background outlined in chapter 2 which are illustrated in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Main issues, key aspects, supporting studies, and guiding theoretical models/frameworks relevant to the branding of the City of Johannesburg

Main issue	Key aspects	Supporting studies	Guiding theoretical models/frameworks
City vision	Highlighting where the city is coming from and where it is going.	Ruzinskaite (2015), Morrison (2019), Kavartzis (2008).	Delphic brand vision model by Virgo and De Chernatony (2005), The need for an evaluative framework by Ruzinskaite (2015).
Analysis of the market environment	Assessing the advantages and disadvantages of the city brand against competition. Assessing the key competitors of the city, and resource analysis and the factors that might affect the branding project.	Anholt (2006), Ndlovu and Heath (2011) Kavartzis (2008), Trost <i>et al.</i> (2012), Hanna and Rowley (2015), Keller (2015), Hemmonsbey and Knott (2015), Hemmonsbey <i>et al.</i> (2018), Lucarelli (2018).	Branding framework for designing successful destination strategies by Balakrishnan (2009), Strategic place brand management model by Hanna and Rowley (2011).
Brand development	Review of tourism, the creation of a city brand that is different from competing brands.	Anholt (2006), Ndlovu and Heath (2011), Prilenska (2012), Konecnik (2012), Saez <i>et al.</i> (2013), Trost <i>et al.</i> (2012) Keller (2015), Hemmonsbey and Knott (2015),	Structural model of city branding by Merrilees <i>et al.</i> (2007), A model of destination brand, destination image and ramifications and interrelationships between them by

Main issue	Key aspects	Supporting studies	Guiding theoretical models/frameworks
		Hemmonsbe <i>etal.</i> (2018).	Tasci and Kozak (2006).
Brand implementation	Development of the marketing plan, employment of operational marketing.	Anholt (2006), Ndlovu and Heath (2011), Prilenska (2012), Trost <i>et al.</i> (2012), Keller (2015), Hanna and Rowley (2015), Hemmonsbey and Knott (2015), Hemmonsbey <i>et al.</i> (2018). Boo <i>et al.</i> (2009), Ndlovu and Heath (2011), Fuchs and Diamantopoulos (2010), Ruzinskaite (2015).	City identity communication framework by Ofori (2010), Branding framework for designing successful destination strategies by Balakrishnan (2009).
Promotion and communication of the brand	Review of city marketing communication tools' effectiveness in the market to deliberate on the most effective marketing tools.	Balakrishnan (2009), Ofori (2010), Trost <i>et al.</i> (2012),	City identity communication framework by Ofori (2010)
Brand monitoring and evaluation	Evaluation and comparison of the city brand against competition.	Anholt (2006), Boo <i>et al.</i> (2009), Ndlovu and Heath (2011), Fuchs and Diamantopoulos (2010), Trost <i>et al.</i> (2012), Ruzinskaite (2015).	A model of customer-based brand equity and its application to multiple destinations (Boo <i>et al.</i> , 2009), The model of place brand perception and dimensions of brand evaluation by Zenker (2011).

Source: Author's own compilation

From the table, it is deduced that the identified elements are crucial for branding a city and are guided by the strategic marketing planning process as revealed in the extant literature. These are *city vision, analysis of the market environment,*

brand development, brand implementation, promotion and communication of the brand, and monitoring and evaluating the brand. The main objective of the study was to develop a framework for branding the CoJ; hence these elements are explored owing to the emphasis put in the extant literature, in the case studies and in the situational analysis of city branding in Johannesburg. The elements are applicable to city branding as they are in the marketing paradigm; hence, they are considered when suggesting the framework for branding the CoJ.

The aforementioned elements were informed by Aaker's (2010) Brand Identity Planning Model which guides scholars or organisations to create or develop strong brands, supported by studies on brand building and brand management studies (Virgo & De Chernatony, 2005; Tasci & Kozak, 2006; Merrilees *et al.*, 2007; Balakrishnan, 2009; Boo *et al.*, 2009; Ofori, 2010; Hanna & Rowley, 2011; Zenker, 2011). These studies highlighted the steps to be followed when branding destinations, and Prilenska's (2012) study on revitalising cities through endogenous or exogenous strategies.

Table 5.2 provides a synopsis of the cardinal elements crucial for branding a destination in a city context emanating from the extant literature, the city branding case studies and the situational analysis of city branding in Johannesburg. This was suggested as a framework for branding the CoJ in this chapter.

Table 5.2: Synopsis of the cardinal elements crucial for branding a destination in a city context

Assessing the current situation
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Marketing research; ▪ Environmental analysis; ▪ Analysis of the competitor's strengths and weaknesses; ▪ Resource analysis is done to identify what the city can offer competitively; ▪ Consideration of the situation in the city or country (political, economic, social, technological, ecological, and availability of financial resources) is done; and ▪ The city's strengths, weaknesses, threats, and opportunities are outlined (SWOT analysis).
Designing the branding strategy
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Formation of a committee to suggest methods, goals, and processes; ▪ Identification of key stakeholders with expertise in city branding; ▪ Inclusion of all stakeholders to promote a comprehensive representation; ▪ Inclusion of residents as they share the same space with visitors;

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Review of tourism is done so as to come out with the best ideas; ▪ Identification of core values that gives the city competitive advantages as an input of all stakeholders; ▪ A formation of a vision for the city is conducted that fulfil its objectives; ▪ The city's goals and objectives are deliberated on; ▪ Drafting of a branding strategy is conducted; ▪ Selection of a city revitalising strategy (endogenous or exogenous); ▪ The implementation of a proactive marketing strategy that prevents crisis; ▪ The creation of a city brand that is different from competing brands; ▪ Creation of a unique motto that can flexibly connect with any industry or sector in the city; ▪ Creation of the physical versions of the slogan or logo; and ▪ Establishment of an office that monitors the city brand on a constant and continuous basis
<p>Implementing the strategy</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Development of the marketing plan; ▪ Compilation of budgets to support the marketing campaigns; ▪ Developing global marketing strategies; ▪ Implementation of marketing communication evaluation tools such as; advertisements, personal selling, publicity, sponsorships, sales promotions, direct marketing, digital marketing; ▪ Marketing locally and internationally; and ▪ Using popular social media platforms to promotes unknown places in the city.
<p>Managing and directing the implemented strategy</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Instruction, guidance and overseeing the performance of the implemented strategy.
<p>Monitoring the progress of the strategy</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Evaluation and comparison of the city brand against competition through the application of city brand performance measurement models and metrics.
<p>Assessing the performance of the branding strategy</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Assessments of recommendations and word of mouth on social media; and ▪ Review of prospective visitors and repeat visitors.

Source: Virgo & De Chernatony (2005); Merrilees *et al.* (2007); Balakrishnan (2009); Ofori (2010); Hanna & Rowley (2011); Zenker (2011); Prilenska (2012); Amsterdam Marketing (2014); Stylidis (2020); Sotiriadis (2021)

Table 5.2 illustrates a summary of the crucial components that city marketers should consider when developing a branding strategy for their cities which incorporates information from extant literature, the Case of Amsterdam, New York and Cape Town and from the marketing management cycle and from the

situational analysis of city branding in Johannesburg. These informed the framework that was suggested for branding the CoJ potentially as a cultural heritage destination in this chapter.

The purpose of this section was to explain the development of the framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination to brand the city efficiently and effectively. According to Oxford Dictionary, effectiveness implies “the degree to which something is successful in producing a desired result.” The FBJ was informed by the extant literature on city branding, the international case studies of city branding and the situational analysis of Johannesburg city branding which was later tested during the qualitative study. In Chapter 1, the need for a branding framework was highlighted because the CoJ is failing to attract visitors to stay for long in its territories, is viewed negatively in the source markets and because every city has its own characteristics and so requires a different and specific branding approach that suits its characteristics (Zenker & Braun, 2017). This section, therefore, suggest the framework for branding the CoJ potentially as a cultural heritage destination discussing the processes and structures that are crucial for city branding success.

5.2.1 Developing the framework

The FBJ (Figure 5.2) is proposed to aid the efficient and effective branding of the city. According to Maxwell (2013) and Nilsen (2015), a conceptual framework describes graphically or in narrative form, the key factors, variables or concepts and the relationships that exists between them. The FBJ serves as a guiding tool in the process of branding the CoJ and can also be amended to suit a certain situation (other destinations). The FBJ development is dependent on the findings from the extant literature regarding its main components. Hence, the six main components in the proposed framework are assessing the current situation, designing the branding strategy, implementing the designed strategy, managing, and directing the implemented strategy, monitoring the progress of the strategy, and assessing the performance of the branding strategy. These are common elements in the city branding literature (Table 5.2).The six components are integral in city branding and city branding is not possible when one of them is missing.

According to Sotiriadis (2021), destination marketing must be considered in terms of marketing management which allows the achievement of a “better perception and acquiring a more interactive image”. This follows Kotler and Armstrong (2019) suggesting that “Marketing management is the analysis, planning, implementation, and control of programs designed to bring about desired exchanges with target audiences for the purpose of personal and of mutual gain. It relies heavily on the adoption and coordination of product, price, promotion, and place for achieving responses.” Through this explanation, Sotiriadis (2021) suggests that marketing management is a business process of managing marketing activities. The author went on to define destination marketing as “a continuous, sequential process through which a DMO plans, research, implements, controls and evaluates programs aimed at satisfying tourists’ needs and wants as well as the destination’s and DMO’s vision, goals and objectives.”

For the purposes of this study, the suggested FBJ employs a focused and structured approach based on the marketing management cycle actions. The FBJ employ a similar approach to the marketing management cycle which represents four stages, that is: analysis, planning, implementation and control (Kotler *et al.*, 2019). Similarly, as outlined by Balakrishnan (2009), the FBJ illustrates the complexity of city branding and is designed to aid understanding of how it can be efficiently and effectively conducted. It also incorporates the idea of Prilenska (2012) of branding a city to change its image in the eyes of the prospective visitors, investors and residents through the employment of city revitalisation strategies such as the endogenous and the exogenous strategies alike. The FBJ could be employed during the entire branding project of any destination and can be used as a consultation tool when preparing to launch a city/destination branding campaign and also as an evaluation tool. Any city marketing practitioner can use the FBJ but its main trustees are the city branding officials.

In this regard, it is anticipated that the FBJ would help city branding practitioners in creating a new brand that is easily recognised, relevant and easily connects to any sector or industry in the city because it involves all stakeholders in the city. By following the steps outlined in the FBJ, city branding practitioners can build efficient and effective city brands. The FBJ indicates areas of concern and those that can set the brand apart from the competition. It is envisaged that the FBJ

would help city branding practitioners and city stakeholders to embrace the new city brand. This is so because the FBJ incorporates the views of various stakeholders in the city, including residents, which promote the success of the brand as city branding is the responsibility of all the stakeholders in the city as outlined by Morrison (2023) and Stylidis (2020). The FBJ takes notice of the key steps of the city branding process as illustrated in various frameworks/models reviewed for the purposes of this study as well.

The following section discusses the framework components.

5.2.2 Discussion of the framework components

The FBJ consists of six components, namely; assessing the current situation, designing the branding strategy, implementing the designed strategy, managing, and directing the implemented strategy, monitoring the progress of the branding strategy, and assessing the performance of the branding strategy as illustrated in Figure 5.2. These are explained in detail including the relationship that exists between them.

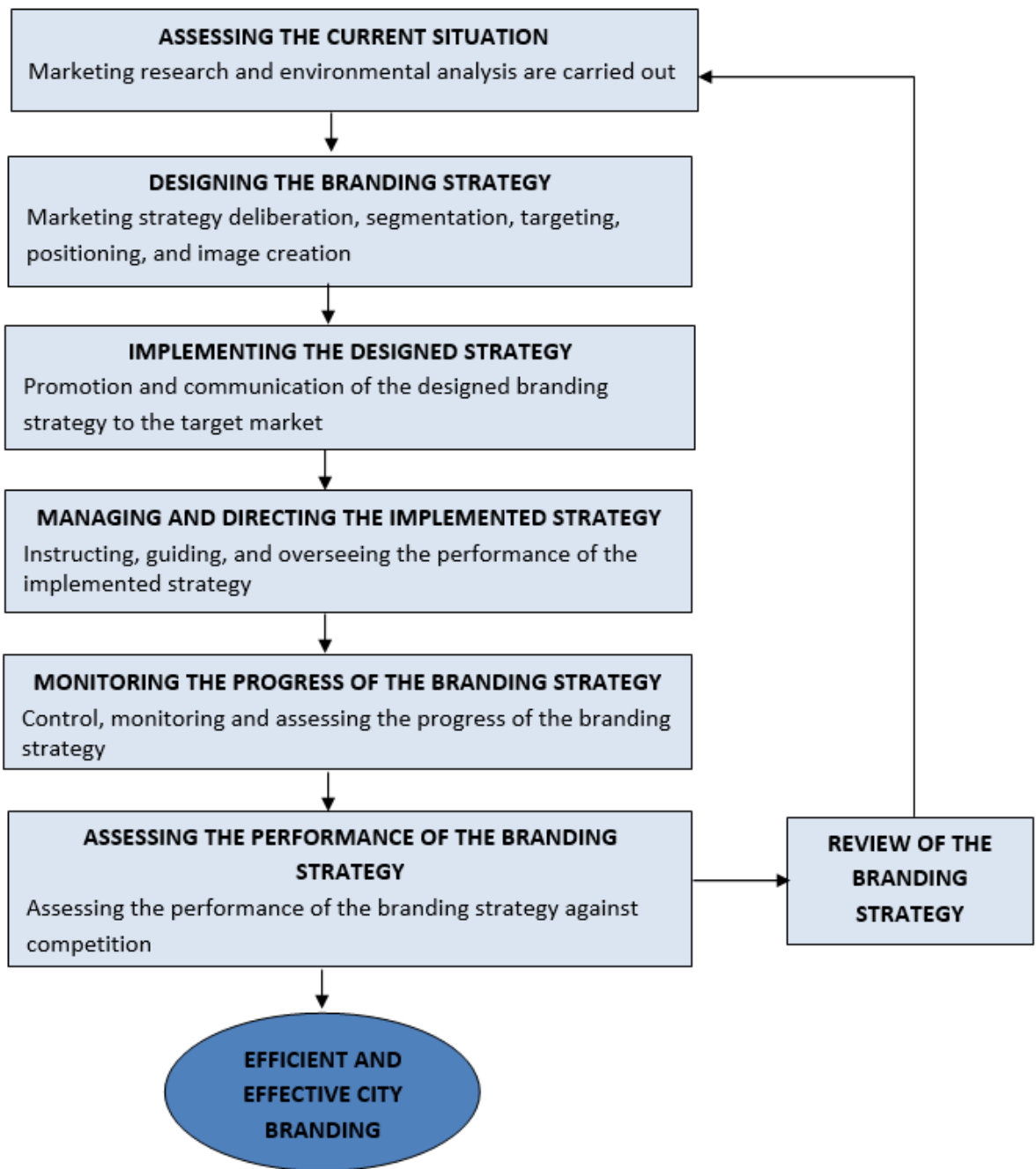


Figure 5.2: Suggested framework for branding the CoJ

Sources:Virgo &De Chernatony (2005);Merrilees *et al.* (2007); Balakrishnan (2009); Ofori (2010);Hanna & Rowley (2011, 2015); Zenker (2011);Prilenska (2012); Amsterdam Marketing (2014); Ruzinskaite (2015); Muzeza & Van Zyl (2018); Morrison (2019); Alperyte & Isoraite (2019); Hanna *et al.* (2020); Stylidis (2020); Sotiriadis (2021)

Figure 5.2 is the diagrammatic representation of the FBJ. The framework components are introduced together with their interrelationships in the following sub-sections. The components are introduced, defined and findings from extant

literature are then discussed. The first of the six components of the FBJ, namely, 'assessing the current situation' is discussed next.

5.2.2.1 Assessing the current situation

As the first component of the FBJ (see Figure 5.2), assessing the current situation is discussed as the first stage of the branding project. City marketers, as suggested by Morrison (2023), should conduct marketing research and analysis of the market and business environment so that effective marketing decisions can be made.

Sotiriadis (2021) defines assessing the current situation as involving conducting marketing research and analysing the market and business environments. Sokolowska *et al.* (2022) explain that marketing research involves all the tasks that enable a city to gather information needed for decision-making about its environment, its marketing mix and its current and prospective visitors. The authors further elucidates that environmental analysis implies cities analysing both their internal and external environments. This follows the idea that all cities need information about potential markets and the environmental forces. Morrison and Coca-Stefaniak (2021) assert that cities need to deal with competitive pressure and requires research to monitor visitors' changing needs and to find out what other cities are doing. According to Ngwira and Kankhuni (2018), cities need to expand market boundaries, focusing on what both domestic and international visitors are expecting from the city. The other issue, according to the authors, is that visitors expect more from the cities they visit. Therefore, cities should monitor their visitors' levels of satisfaction on a continuous basis.

According to extant literature (or tourism literature) on assessing the current situation, the following was established:

- It is evident that cities rely on a variety of suppliers to satisfy their visitors; hence their relationship needs to be remarkably close so that they can offer high quality offerings (Mkwizu, 2019).
- In addition, the relationship between the city and its visitors is pivotal to its marketing activities. If visitors are satisfied, then the city will not have to engage much in external promotional activities for their offering because they would benefit from word of mouth advertising (Hussein, 2020).

- Marketing intermediaries are independent organisations that promote, sell and distribute offerings to visitors (Moodley & Naidoo, 2022). They offer services between the city and its markets and between the city and its suppliers, and are often referred to as distribution channels and examples of such are travel agents and tour operators. This complex relationship between the city and its intermediaries can affect its marketing activities. Hence cities should have a close relationship with the marketing intermediaries (Muluneh *et al.*, 2022).
- Also, Johannesburg needs to understand the competition for effective marketing (Hemmonsbey *et al.*, 2018). Johannesburg needs to be knowledgeable about its competition such as 'who its main competitors are' and 'what share of the market they hold' (Alegro & Turnsek, 2021). From this information, the city can capitalise on the weaknesses of its competitors or it can capitalise on its strength.
- According to Rinaldi *et al.* (2019), transport is used to bring the visitors to the city and to move them around the city. The city marketers have limited control over the transportation system as most visitors make their own transport arrangements. However, the transportation network should be maintained and upgraded continuously to facilitate visitors' movements around the destination and enrich their city experience.
- According to Bonakdar and Andirac (2020), the public entities such as political organisations, pressure groups and government who have an interest in the city may also influence the city's marketing activities. Therefore, the relationship between the city and these organisations is crucial for the successful marketing. Disagreements between the city marketers and these organisations can derail the city's branding projects (Maxim, 2019).
- Financial companies and marketing services agencies (media, advertising, and marketing consulting companies) also play a pivotal role in the marketing activities of the city because it depends on these organisations for sponsorships and marketing services (Henning, 2022). Cities should always work hand in hand with these agencies for efficient and effective city branding (Morrison, 2023).

The external factors include politics of the country, economics, social situation, technological matters, ecological influences, and the general situation and the availability of financial resources in the city.

- Malleka *et al.* (2022) highlight the importance of political stability for branding to be successful since visitors will be influenced to visit a certain city based on its political situation. Opferman (2020) suggests the importance of visitor safety at the destination. When visitors feel that they are not safe, they will not visit that destination or will shorten their stay as is the case in Johannesburg (Malovha & Adinolfi, 2018). Hence, cities need to pay particular attention on the political situation in their city or country (Maxim & Morrison, 2022).
- It is evident that the general economic climate can make the destination expensive which can deter visitors from coming to the city and vice-versa (Chirisa *et al.*, 2018). In their study, Chirisa *et al.* (2017) found that the economic climate in Zimbabwe was an inhibiting factor with regards to successfully branding the country since the country experienced shortages of money in banks, fuel and other important commodities. In this way, it is exceedingly difficult to brand a city successfully.
- The social situation that includes crime, prostitution, drug abuse, xenophobia, outbreaks of diseases can reduce the number of visitors coming to the city (Opferman, 2020). The City of Amsterdam was popular as a city that experienced drug abuse and prostitution in its source markets and came up with a strategy of changing these perceptions in the source markets (Amsterdam Marketing, 2014). Johannesburg is known as a city experiencing high levels of violent crimes, xenophobia against foreign nationals (Malovha & Adinolfi, 2018), economic maladministration and outbreaks of pandemics such as HIV/AIDS and most recently, COVID-19 (WHO, 2020). When residents are not welcoming towards visitors, then efficient and effective branding cannot be attainable because they are the ambassadors of the city (Stylidis, 2020).
- Although many cities across the world are now technologically advanced just like today's tourist, cities such as Johannesburg need to invest more in ICTs though the city have smart city project alive (Allam, 2017). The availability of ICTs in the city will complement the branding efforts of the city because it

makes it easy for the visitors to share travel information, make bookings and pay for services (Jovicic, 2019). This has seen many cities adopting the notion of smart city/destination which also aims at improving the quality of life of city residents (Zhang *et al.*, 2022). When residents are happy, they will welcome visitors to their cities since they share the same space with the visitors (Gilboa & Jaffe, 2021). Johannesburg has since introduced this notion and should focus on continuous innovation in this regard to remain competitive (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2021).

- Cities must also strike a balance between the provisions of tourism development and the development of the city as a residential area (Dabeedooal *et al.*, 2019). If there is no balance between the two, then residents might feel inferior towards the visitor and this is not conducive to tourism (Rebelo *et al.*, 2020). Johannesburg has since witnessed South Africans migrating from rural areas and even from other South African cities and other African nations to the city in search of better opportunities (Wessels & Tseane-Gumbi, 2022). This has contributed to overcrowding and congestion in the inner CoJ which is an unhealthy situation regarding tourism in the city (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2021). This situation deters visitors from coming to Johannesburg (Sirkis *et al.*, 2022).
- It is also evident that the general situation in the city in terms safety and security must also be conducive for visitors (Maxim & Morrison, 2022). In many African cities, including Johannesburg, violence, crime and lawlessness erode the confidence that visitors might have of the city (Malleka *et al.*, 2022). Hence cities should strive to minimise the impact of these in branding themselves efficiently and effectively.
- Wessels and Tseane-Gumbi (2022) highlight that the DMOs must be well funded so that they can carry out their duties successfully. The City of Amsterdam was not known in its source markets (such as America, Europe, and Asia) and it decided to invest more funds in aggressively marketing itself which paid off at the end (Amsterdam Marketing, 2014). The city marketers need to assess all these factors and strive to overcome them when carrying out their branding initiatives (Lestari *et al.*, 2020). This can be possible if all the stakeholders are represented during the entire branding process (Belabas,

2023). This is so because when stakeholders understand and embrace initiatives the branding project will be successful (Morrison, 2023).

The factors discussed not only affect the city's marketing and its products and services, but also the demand for the city's offerings. City marketers should, however, attempt to predict and respond to the changes and adjust their city marketing strategies accordingly (Sokolowska *et al.*, 2022). City marketers can control some of these factors, especially the micro-environment factors. However, the macro-environment factors affect the whole tourism industry and so cannot be controlled (Mkwizu, 2019). They are highly volatile and unpredictable because they change every time (Moodley & Naidoo, 2022). To overcome these fluctuations, city marketers should consider certain factors such as the demographics of its target market so that they can offer them what they anticipate (Chaffey & Ellis-Chadwick, 2020). The analysis of the external environment normally forms the basis of a SWOT analysis that will help the city marketers to understand the current situation in which the city finds itself (Bonakdar & Andirac, 2020). The SWOT analysis for the CoJ was conducted in Chapter 4. This analysis informs the city marketers of the strategic marketing plan that they can employ to market the city successfully. For the purposes of this study, the SWOT analysis conducted in Chapter 4 (see Table 4.1a and Table 4.1b) also informed the FBJ. The second component of the suggested FBJ potentially as a cultural heritage destination (see Figure 5.2), namely 'designing the branding strategy' is discussed next.

5.2.2.2 Designing the branding strategy

According to Hanna *et al.* (2020), deliberation of the branding strategy should come only from well-informed city stakeholders, who are aware of and fully committed to the success of the city. Mtetwa (2020) argues that these must also include local residents as crucial city stakeholders (see Figure 1.1) since they share the same space with city visitors. The author further maintains that when residents and other city stakeholders agree or accept a branding strategy, it is most likely that it will be a success.

According to Sotiriadis (2021), this implies the development of the main branding strategy that the city would want to implement which will only be attainable after

proper market segmentation, targeting, positioning and the creation of the city image. Through these activities the city will be able to carry out an efficient and effective city branding project. According to Amsterdam Marketing (2014), this should be conducted by the city branding committee which is made up of various city stakeholders who are experts in city branding. Alperyte and Isoraite (2019) concur that after the city has deliberated on its value propositions or its strength against its competitors through the consultation of experts representing all sectors in the city, it can begin with brand development (Rebelo *et al.*, 2020) which is the second framework component. The branding committee will decide on the final core values that will set the city apart from other competing cities since it is made up of experts from different sectors or industries within the city (Amsterdam Marketing, 2014). The committee can do this through interviewing various stakeholders in the city and hosting workshops with a variety of stakeholders in the city (Lestari *et al.*, 2020). According to Muzeza and Van Zyl (2018), here the CoJ should capitalise on the plethora of cultural heritage attractions found in the city such as the Hector Pieterse Memorial and Museum, Apartheid Museum etc. These attractions can be employed as its unique selling point. Additionally, Stylidis (2020) believe that residents must be part of this process because they share the same space with visitors. Therefore, there is a need for them to embrace the proposed brand.

According to extant literature (or tourism literature) on designing the branding strategy, the following was established:

- The first part of this component involves the formation of a city branding committee that is responsible for suggesting methods, goals and processes for the city's branding project (Amsterdam Marketing, 2014). The city branding committee must be made up of government authorities, city authorities, private tourism organisations and city residents (see Table 1.1) because successful city branding depends on the integration of different ideas from different stakeholders to promote inter-organisation cooperation (Zhao *et al.*, 2022).
- The city branding committee's tasks will include brand building, positioning and sales promotion, support and advice regarding the marketing of cultural heritage attractions and events in the city (Ciuculescu & Luca, 2022),

enhancing a favourable business environment in Johannesburg, promoting good relations between the CoJ and international media, Johannesburg's hospitality, Johannesburg brand research and monitoring (Amsterdam Marketing, 2014).

- The committee should consist of experts in city branding so that they will highlight specific elements of the city to create unique selling positions (Morrison, 2023). The committee will then put together the identified unique selling positions and the other resources in the CoJ such as travel guides, policy documents and important literature on city branding (VanHoose *et al.*, 2021). From the analysis, the committee will then decide on the final core values that establish a clear picture of priorities and opportunities for the current image of the CoJ (Donna & Fort, 2018).
- Are view of tourism follows which implies city marketers analysing what types of attractions are available in the city (Kankhuni, 2020). This also involves assessing what visitors say about the city's offering because visitors want to know what type of places they should be visiting (Kusumawati *et al.*, 2023). Through this process, city marketers can identify their unique selling point (Yu & Kim, 2020).
- City vision creation is an important element of city branding as it highlights the long-term goal of a city/destination in question (Ruzinskaite, 2015; Morrison, 2023). This implies what the city aspires to be in the market (Balakrishnan, 2009). However, the city's vision must embrace all stakeholders' interests so that the city brand can be successful (Green *et al.*, 2018). This is possible because a city branding committee is already in place as highlighted earlier. A city's vision highlights its strategy in efficiently and effectively branding the city (Ripoll Gonzalez, 2023).
- It is evident that for any city to prosper in its branding initiatives, the city must know where it is going (Rinaldi *et al.*, 2021). This is so because a successful city brand is attainable when there is a consistent and comprehensive vision (Liu & Andriano-Moore, 2022). According to Balakrishnan (2008), a strong city vision must be based on a city's culture or history and taking into consideration geographical areas and also having infrastructure that promotes its accessibility. Virgo and De Chernatony (2005) assert that there are three

components of brand vision which cities can employ, that is, envisioned future, brand purpose and brand values. Ofori (2010) also highlights the importance of vision through her framework as it aids continuous assessment to show any changes at a given time. To add to the foregoing thoughts, Gilboa and Jaffe (2021) stated that the city residents must own the vision, since they are the key drivers of the city brand hence their inclusion in the city branding committee. The authors further articulate that city authorities must consider the relationship they want to create with their target customers and what products or services they want to offer them.

- Various authors listed the sub-categories of vision which highlights what should be included in the vision or in the proposed framework (Balakrishnan, 2009; Virgo & De Chernatony, 2005; Ruzinskaite, 2015; Morrison, 2019). These sub-categories include city vision and mission, cultural heritage, people's values, philosophy, tourism quality and country reputation or credibility of the city brand (destination). The sub-categories can be employed when developing a vision for a city. Uniqueness must also be taken into consideration as it helps to attract the target market for the city and help shrug off competition from other destinations (Kotler *et al.*, 2019). The city must also be able to communicate its vision through its preferred marketing communication tools (Prilenska, 2012). In this way, the CoJ should try and differentiate its vision from other cities based on its cultural heritage to attain a unique vision and this must be evident through its marketing communication channels.
- Results of the SWOT analysis should allow the branding committee to recommend how to exploit the city's strengths, repair the city's weaknesses, capitalise on the city's opportunities and avoid threats (Mkwizu, 2019). After the city marketers have conducted the city's current situational analysis and how it will affect its marketing activities, the focus should be on the direction in which the city wants to go, evaluation and setting of city marketing goals, objectives and strategic options (Sokolowska *et al.*, 2022).
- According to Chaffey and Ellis-Chadwick (2020), goals clearly state the target areas for achievement and are less specific, such as, for example, being a market leader.

- It is also evident that objectives are specific aims that city marketers implement to achieve city goals. They should be realistic and suitable for the city itself (Hussein, 2020). Once goals and objectives are set, city marketers should deliberate on suitable strategies to meet the set objectives. City marketers must examine every objective thoroughly so as to draw up strategic options, like when the city wants to increase visitation and mend its image like the CoJ then it can offer something different from other cities or destinations (Prilenska, 2012). This is a differentiation strategy which is based upon a city enhancing visitor perceptions that the city has a superior image against its competitors which promotes the charging of premium price on the city offering (Freire *et al.*, 2022).
- Differentiation can be achieved through branding where the city targets several market segments and designs separate offers for everyone (Alegro & Turnsek, 2021). This strategy produces more total sales than an undifferentiated marketing strategy as cities target numerous markets with different products/services (Kotler & Armstrong, 2019). To be successful, cities following this strategy should develop marketing plans, conduct marketing research, forecasting, sales analysis, promotional planning and establish advertising strategies for every targeted segment. It is suggested that the CoJ should follow this strategy as opposed to undifferentiated strategy which focuses on the entire market. This approach has disadvantages because it is difficult to develop a product/service that will satisfy all consumers. More competitors are targeting the largest segments which are less profitable owing to exorbitant marketing costs and cities might have to implement price-cutting strategies to remain profitable (Kotler *et al.*, 2019).
- According to Prilenska (2012), the city can then choose either to employ the endogenous or the exogenous strategies based on its situation. Because Johannesburg is viewed as a city marred by violent crimes, economic maladministration, xenophobia and outbreaks of pandemics, it is important to employ such strategies specifically the exogenous strategy as it is struggling to host visitors for a long time and retaining them.
- The city also needs to employ a proactive marketing strategy that prevents crisis just like what the City of Amsterdam did. This is advisable because

responding to a crisis is a daunting task as the city might lose visitors during the crisis but when a proactive marketing strategy is employed this is prevented (Pasquinelli *et al.*, 2021).

- According to Mbhiza and Mearns, 2014; Saarinen & Rogerson, 2015; Butler & Ivanovic, 2016; Masilo & van der Merwe, 2016; Viljoen & Henama, 2017; Muzeza & Van Zyl, 2018), because the CoJ hosts a variety of cultural heritage attractions, it is suggested that the city should be branded potentially as a “cultural heritage city”. Owing to a wealth of cultural heritage attractions, the CoJ has the opportunity to capitalise on its remarkable wealth of cultural heritage by branding the city as a cultural heritage destination, while simultaneously improving the economic and social well-being of the city and the country at large.
- The committee must create a unique and flexible motto/slogan that easily connects with any industry or sector in the city because every stakeholder must be able to promote their different offerings using the same slogan (Amsterdam Marketing, 2014). IAMsterdam easily connects with any industry in the city which makes it easy for all stakeholders to embrace the city brand. Such slogans are clearly identifiable by visitors (Ruzinskaite, 2015). Johannesburg’s slogan (World Class African City) does not easily connect with every industry or sector in the city, and this shows that there is some disjuncture between the city and its stakeholders.
- The city should also create physical versions of its motto to complement its branding efforts (Amsterdam Marketing, 2014). Physical versions of the motto are highly effective as the city of Amsterdam employed them to reinforce their marketing efforts and they were popular around the world from the first day of their inception (Fokkema, 2016). At present, there seems to be no physical versions of the city’s slogan or motto which makes it difficult to market the city differently. Hence the CoJ should create physical versions that complement the city’s motto or slogan.
- According to Amsterdam Marketing (2014), an office that specifically deals with the daily business of the branding project is crucial to deal with the challenges that come with the branding initiatives.

During the qualitative study, this component was evaluated among city stakeholders in Johannesburg. This section outlined the second component of the FBJ, namely, 'designing the branding strategy'. The third component of the FBJ (see Figure 5.2); namely, 'implementing the designed strategy' is discussed next.

5.2.2.3 Implementing the designed strategy

According to Sotiriadis (2021), the implementation of the designed branding strategy is an important component of the branding process. In Chapter 3, how successful cities present their city brands to their target markets was discussed. In this section, the researcher is focusing on what the CoJ should do to present its brand to the target market. Many researchers advocate for the proper implementation of the designed strategy (Mkwizu, 2019; Morrison, 2019; Soriano & Cabanes, 2020; Sotiriadis, 2021; Tran & Rudolf, 2022; Kusumawati *et al.*, 2023). When the city has identified its value propositions and created its slogan and the physical version of the slogan, it can begin with the third component of the framework which is, 'implementing the designed branding strategy' (Pike *et al.*, 2018). This implies how the city is going to introduce the designed branding strategy to its target market (Sukmayadi & Effendi, 2020).

According to Sotiriadis (2021), this element deals with the deliberation of the marketing action plans, marketing mix, usage of tools to communicate with target markets, digital marketing and social media marketing. Ofori (2010) accentuates that through the marketing communication tools, the city should highlight how it wants to be seen to represent in the market. According to Hussein (2020), if the stakeholders do not support the image of the city, then this will lead to a negative image as what the visitors are experiencing is not what the city wants to communicate. According to the author, this promotes visitation and also attracts other target groups such as residents and investors. According to Mkwizu (2019), continuous assessment is needed to show any changes at a given time. The city's image is communicated through marketing communication channels that include all the promotional activities (Soriano & Cabanes, 2020). In this way, the CoJ should continuously assess the effectiveness of its communication tools in the market.

According to extant literature (or tourism literature) on implementing the designed branding strategy, the following was established:

- Visitors will only visit a destination if they have enough information about the destination such as the price of the offering and exactly what it includes (Kotler *et al.*, 2019). Promotion enables awareness, create demand, promote product trial, highlight prospects, promote loyalty, combat competitors' promotional efforts, limits sales fluctuations and promote reseller support (Mkwizu, 2019). This is also referred to as secondary communication which reinforces primary communication (brand image) as it leads to repeat visits and positive word of mouth or recommendations to family and friends which is a sign that visitors are happy with the city's offering and that the city brand is a success (Morrison, 2023).
- Promotion can be affected in different ways including advertising, personal selling, publicity, sponsorships, public relations, sales promotions, direct marketing and digital marketing (interactive marketing) (Moodley & Naidoo, 2022). Therefore, cities need to communicate effectively with their potential visitors through the aforementioned ways so that prospective visitors are aware of their offering (Ali & Al-Khafaji, 2022). In the case of Amsterdam, the city found that its target market was not aware of its offering and resorted to aggressive marketing strategies to create awareness in the source markets. It began carrying out marketing campaigns in the country and across the world (Amsterdam Marketing, 2014). This was a success as the city is now popular as a world-class smart tourist destination.
- According to Soriano and Cabanes (2020), the number of people using instant messaging is increasing remarkably. Hence, it is important to pay attention to the features of Facebook Messenger, WhatsApp, Instagram, Snapchat and advertising channels and new platforms such as YouTube, Trip Advisor, Travel blogs, Telegram, Online forums, and WeChat (Tran & Rudolf, 2022). The City of Amsterdam has an Instagram account that is managed by two officials, and it is responsible for branding the city and promoting unpopular places in the city (Fokkema, 2016). This account was able to attract thousands of people on the first day of its inception and to date it is popular across the world (Amsterdam Marketing, 2014). The benefits of using instant

messaging in the tourism industry include distribution of suitable content, considering the interests of the city's target visitors, promoting visitation, promoting brand awareness, sales and visitor support service (dealing with complaints and recommendations) (Moodley & Naidoo, 2022).

- According to Ngan and Chinh (2020), the use of Instagram has increased. This facilitates visitors to visualise information about the city, its product or service and share the user content on the city's page, collect video feedback, which also has a place in Instagram (Mkwizu, 2019). Visitors may decide to visit a certain city based on the comments or reviews that are available on the internet-based communication channels (Hussein, 2020). Many tourists these days accept that both positive and negative online reviews and recommendations affect their considerations and decisions before visiting a destination (Kusumawati *et al.*, 2023).
- Hanna *et al.* (2020) highlight the importance of positioning as creating an image in the mind of the visitors. Because Johannesburg is viewed as having a bad image in the source markets, the city needs to focus on the niche market where it will focus on influencing the visitors to visit the city continuously (Lui & Andriano-Moore, 2022), that is cultural heritage. Because the city offers a plethora of cultural heritage attractions, it needs to focus on promoting this variable since it can outperform some of its competitors based on this ground (Muzeza & Van Zyl, 2018).
- The city needs to vigorously market the cultural heritage attractions by explaining how the visitors will enjoy its offering. In this instance, the city needs to continuously assess the benefits, attributes and values of the brand to create competitive advantages and this must be done locally and internationally (Altengerel, 2020). In this instance, the city must deliberate on the most effective secondary communication channels to present its brand to the target audience who are the visitors to the city. Consequently, social media together with several marketing communication tools can help the CoJ to have a better result and create a synergistic impact on other city functions and this could positively affect the number of visits and profits (Sotiriadis, 2021).

- However, city branding is also complimented by the employment of smart tourism destination applications (Yavuz *et al.*, 2018). Smart city applications compliments city branding since visitors nowadays are technologically advanced and always depend on their technological devices for planning, booking, sharing travel information and their ultimate experience at a certain destination (Um & Chung, 2019). Hence, the CoJ should deliberate on the most effective promotional channels and continuously develop its ICTs. However, the city has since embarked on the notion of smart city applications to enrich its residents' lives and its visitors' experiences. This is a good gesture towards achieving a smart city status. So, the city should continue to work so as to make this a reality and that will result in an exceptional city experience which will lead to increased visitation and spending in the city.

This component was also tested during the qualitative study of this research among Johannesburg's city stakeholders. This section outlined the third component of the FBJ, namely, 'implementing the designed branding strategy'. The fourth component of the FBJ potentially as a cultural heritage destination (see Figure 5.2), namely, 'managing and directing the implemented strategy' is discussed next.

5.2.2.4 Managing and directing the implemented strategy

This section focuses on the management and directing of the implemented strategy. Sotiriadis (2021) argues that managing and directing the implemented strategy is important because it determines the performance of the implemented strategy. This determines whether the city marketers must adjust the strategy or start over again.

According to Soriano and Cabanes (2020), managing and directing the implemented strategy implies the DMO instructing, guiding and overseeing the performance of the implemented strategy. Through this element, the DMO initiates action, and it is from here that actual work begins.

According to extant literature (or tourism literature) on managing and directing the implemented strategy, the following was established:

- This component involves the following tasks being conducted by the DMO; setting clear goals, which implies the identification of the goals that the new

strategy should achieve (Morrison, 2023). Without clear goals of what the city is trying to attain, it can be difficult to establish a plan for getting there.

- It is evident that determining roles, responsibilities and relationships means building a roadmap for achieving the goals set and clearly communicating the city's implementation plan to avoid confusion (Molinillo *et al.*, 2019). This will make it easy for the city to achieve the set goals because roles are clearly determined.
- Delegating the work implies determining who is responsible for what and when (Chaffey & Ellis-Chadwick, 2020). City marketers will know exactly what is expected of them and this prevents conflicts. This explains the bigger picture of the city. Setting deadlines is also a critical feature for this component because each task must have duration within it and when it must be accomplished.
- Lastly, it is evident that the DMO should be able to deliberate on whether there is a need to adjust or to start all over again (Morrison, 2023).

This component was tested during the empirical research of this study among city stakeholders in Johannesburg. This section outlined the fourth component of the FBJ, namely, 'managing and directing the implemented strategy'. The fifth component of the FBJ (see Figure 5.2), namely, 'monitoring the progress of the branding strategy' is discussed next.

5.2.2.5 Monitoring the progress of the branding strategy

The fifth component of the suggested framework deals with the continuous monitoring of the branding strategy which according to Uskokovic (2020) enables the assessment of the progress made by the branding strategy in the market. The City of Amsterdam found out that it was not popular with its prospective visitors in source markets, but its competitors were well-known and popular in source markets (Amsterdam Marketing, 2014). Through the results of this assessment, they were able to come up with a strategy to market the city brand effectively.

This component, according to Riva and Pilloti (2021), involves the employment of control methods and metrics to monitor and assess the progress of the branding strategy. Herezniak *et al.* (2018) suggest that cities need to carry out continuous monitoring and evaluation of their brands against competition. Every

year there are new cities introduced or reimaged which poses great threats to existing city brands (Haarhoff & De Klerk, 2019). Some cities are progressing because they are always assessing the performance of their city brands in the market and adjusting while others are deteriorating owing to failure to meet the needs of their visitors (Kotsi & Pike, 2020).

According to extant literature (or tourism literature) on monitoring the progress of the branding strategy, the following was established:

- The city can monitor and evaluate its branding strategies through the employment of city brand performance measurement approaches such as Key Performance Indices (KPIs), Brand Metrics or even traditional ways like budgetary control, benchmarking and balanced scorecards (Uskokovic, 2020). Johannesburg, as a city that has been experiencing a bad image in the source markets, needs to continuously carry this out to determine its position on the market.
- KPIs are an approach that cities employ to deliver useful solutions (Herezwaite *et al.*, 2018).
- Brand Metrics are another approach cities can employ and are two-fold, that is, perception metrics and financial metrics (Shafranskaya & Potapov, 2014). The authors further highlighted that perception metrics implies assessing emotional and latent connections that are put together to form an opinion about a city brand and this includes awareness, familiarity, relevance, consideration, and preference. It is through these attributes that the city can gauge the effectiveness of the branding project (Shafranskaya & Potapov, 2014). On the contrary, financial metrics are employed to measure the economic impact on the city in the form of revenue growth or return on investment (Uskokovic, 2020). Through this, a city can also tell whether it is heading in the right direction or not and so may adjust its strategy.
- Traditional management-based performance measurement methods such as budgetary control, benchmarking and the balanced scorecard are also useful. Budgetary control offers a simple approach through the employment of a monetary perspective. However, the approach is not exhaustive in terms of city brands (Riva & Pilotti, 2021).

- According to Riva and Pilotti (2021), benchmarking compares different cities across different criteria and is regarded as effective for cities. However the approach must be applied continuously owing to the complexity of city brands.
- Besides the shortcomings associated with the other measurement methods, the balanced scorecard encompasses customers and learning; hence, it offers a more balanced and broader focus other than finance (Uskokovic, 2020). This approach provides city marketers with a comprehensive view of the city's performance (Uskokovic, 2020). It is advisable that the CoJ should use management-based performance measurement methods such as the balanced scorecard in evaluating the performance of the city brand on the market.

Through this process, the city can be able to tell whether it is positioned successfully or not. When the city gets feedback in this regard, it can be able to deliberate on the most appropriate performance evaluation strategies to improve its image or to maintain its image in the market (Sukmayadi & Effendi, 2020). This component was tested during the qualitative study among city stakeholders in Johannesburg. This section outlined the fifth component of the FBJ, namely, 'monitoring the progress of the branding strategy'. The sixth component of the FBJ (see Figure 5.2), namely, 'assessing the performance of the branding strategy' is discussed next.

5.2.2.6 Assessing the performance of the branding strategy

According to Belabas (2023), the main goal of city branding should be to see improved visitation and spending in the city concerned. In the previous section the researcher outlined the importance of monitoring the progress of the branding strategy, while in this section the researcher focuses on the importance of assessing the performance of the branding strategy. Amsterdam prioritised the importance of assessing the performance of the branding strategy. It realised that it was not popular in source markets and decided to review the whole marketing strategy. The branding project should be assessed to identify any shortcomings and problems that can then be identified and remedied. According to Uskokovic (2020), this normally takes the form of a systematic review of all factors of the city branding strategy against targets set and must be performed on a regular basis. This can be shown by an increase in visitation or an increase in spending by

visitors to the destination (Morrison, 2023). The city can also assess the performance of its branding strategy through gathering visitors' feedback where visitors will express how they feel about the city's offering (Hussein, 2020).

Assessing the performance of the branding strategy is the sixth component of the framework. According to Iglesias-Sanchez *et al.* (2020), it implies assessing what visitors say about their city experiences which are reinforced by the internet, media and through the participants' interaction. This information will determine whether the city branding strategy is successful or not.

According to extant literature (or tourism literature) on assessing the performance of the branding strategy, the following was established:

- Successful city brands are always recommended to friends and relatives and being revisited (Hussein, 2020). This is a continuous process because when the city is viewed negatively in the source markets, it, therefore, means that the city needs to change its image in the source markets (Lui & Andriano-Moore, 2022). This was the case with the City of Amsterdam and New York which were viewed as drug and prostitution cities. In response, the cities had to employ city revitalisation strategies to change the visitors' negative perceptions into positive ones. At present the cities are viewed as the best tourist destinations worldwide (Scholvin, 2022).
- Likewise, Johannesburg is viewed as a city characterised by violent crimes (such as the recent lootings), corruption, xenophobia (Malleka *et al.*, 2022), prevalence of pandemics, such as HIV/AIDS, and most recently COVID-19 (World Health Organisation, 2020). These negative perceptions in the source markets reduce the number of visitors to the city and shorten the length of stay within the city's boundaries which is not good for the city's economic and social well-being (Opfermann, 2020). Hence city marketers should employ city revitalising strategies to change these negative perceptions into positive ones. However, because visitors' views are not controllable or manageable by the city marketers but rather can be influenced to a certain extent through revitalising the city as an experience destination which offers prospective visitors with what they are anticipating getting when they visit the city (Prilenska, 2012). Many former industrial cities such as Glasgow, Rotterdam

and Edinburgh, have all employed the experience branding strategy to change the image of their cities in the eyes of prospective visitors (Belabas, 2023).

- Visitors' perceptions of the city's image are of no less importance (Yu & Kim, 2020). Through visitors' perceptions, a city can determine what visitors are saying about the city brand (Kusumawati *et al.*, 2023). Visitors' perceptions are crucial because they contribute to services, city marketing and city brand perception (Sokolowska *et al.*, 2022).
- Visitors will associate themselves with the physical structures, services offered, behaviour of local people and infrastructure in the city. These are the symbols that identify the city and people's comments about the city. "IAMsterdam" is seen as a successful campaign because the motto aligns easily with all the stakeholders in the city (Amsterdam Marketing, 2014). This is supported by studies of Merrilees *et al.* (2007), Balakrishnan (2009), Zenker (2011) and Hanna and Rowley (2011) who underscored the importance of visitors' perception of the city brand as important to efficient and effective city branding.
- Gilboa and Jaffe (2021) articulate that residents need to identify, adopt and align with the brand of their city so that they can inform the world about it. In other words, a city must be attractive to its residents before it can attract visitors from outside (Belabas, 2023), hence the CoJ must assess its residents as its first customers from time to time with regards to successful branding. When a city's residents have positive associations with their city brand, this automatically strengthens the brand of that city (Balakrishnan, 2009). Therefore, it is of great importance that Johannesburg should pay attention to its visitors' attitudes towards online comments and reviews since visitors take online reviews into consideration before deciding to visit any city (Benedek, 2018; Iglesias-Sanchez *et al.*, 2020).

If the result is negative, then the city branding committee will have to go back to the drawing board to deliberate on the new ideas that can promote their city. Therefore, assessing the performance of the branding strategy is a crucial component of the framework suggested in this study and was also tested during the empirical study of this research among city stakeholders in Johannesburg.

Above all, the FBJ is a continuous and dynamic process and if any of the foregoing discussed cardinal components is missing, then the branding process will not be successful. Hence city marketers should ensure that every stage of the branding project is conducted guided by the FBJ. Furthermore, all the component elements are interlinked and interrelated, forming an integrative set of actions and activities.

5.3 CONCLUSION

Chapter 5 represented Phase 2 of the methodological procedure (see Figure 1.1), suggestion of the FBJ (see Figure 5.2) and an in-depth discussion of the suggested framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination in an efficient and effective manner. This relates to the fourth secondary objective of this study, namely:

To capitalise on extant literature, elaborate on and suggest a framework for branding the CoJ

The FBJ was developed based on the literature review (Phase 1, Chapter 2, 3 and 4) and consists of six components, representing the main components and elements that were identified in secondary literature to influence efficient and effective city branding projects. A detailed discussion of each component of the FBJ was conducted in Chapter 5, achieving the fourth secondary objective of this study as highlighted earlier.

Each of the six components of the FBJ was taken from the city branding literature and was applied to the context of the current study. The findings from Chapter 5 for each component in the FBJ were summarised:

- assessing the current situation;
- designing the branding strategy;
- implementing the designed strategy;
- managing and directing the implemented strategy;
- monitoring the progress of the branding strategy; and
- assessing the performance of the branding strategy.

These components were taken from the city marketing and branding literature discussed in Chapter 2, case studies discussed in Chapter 3 and the situational analysis of city branding in Johannesburg in Chapter 4 and applied to the context of this study, therefore contributing to the body of knowledge in the field of tourism marketing and management.

The suggested framework for branding the CoJ potentially as a cultural heritage destination acts as a guide for anyone concerned about city branding although it primarily targets city branding practitioners. The FBJ is comprehensive and adaptable to any destination, and it can also be used for evaluation purposes. It was indicated in Chapter 1 that a single case study will be used in this research study; hence the FBJ was tested among city stakeholders in Chapter 7.

In the next chapter (Chapter 6), the researcher describes the research design and method that was followed in this study and the reasons for the choices made to achieve the main aim of the empirical research which was to test the FBJ among the city stakeholders in Johannesburg.

CHAPTER 6: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In social sciences, knowledge is generated within a defined research philosophy, research approach and research design. Chapter 5 discussed the suggested FBJ, and the present chapter describes how the suggested FBJ was effectuated to collect data to fulfil the study's empirical objective. Accordingly, the focus of this chapter turns to the primary research conducted on city stakeholders in Johannesburg regarding their perceptions of the suggested framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination. This study used a multiple-method qualitative approach employing a single case study and grounded theory. Interpretivism and pragmatism guided the research. Consequently, this chapter clarifies and justifies the research philosophy and research approach that underpinned the research design and research methodology as illustrated in Figure 6.1.

This chapter begins by outlining the study site in section 6.2, and discussing the research philosophy, approach, and design for the study in Section 6.3. In Section 6.4, the sampling plan is described and reasons for choosing them explained. The section further describes the sampling techniques used in the study, development of the research instrument together with its contents and items and the pilot study. Measures that were taken to ensure validity and reliability are discussed and ethical considerations that were observed throughout the research. Section 6.6 describes the process followed for data analysis and interpretation elaborating why and how ATLAS.ti version 22 was used for data analysis and how data were presented.

Figure 6.1 outlines the primary research process conducted in the study.

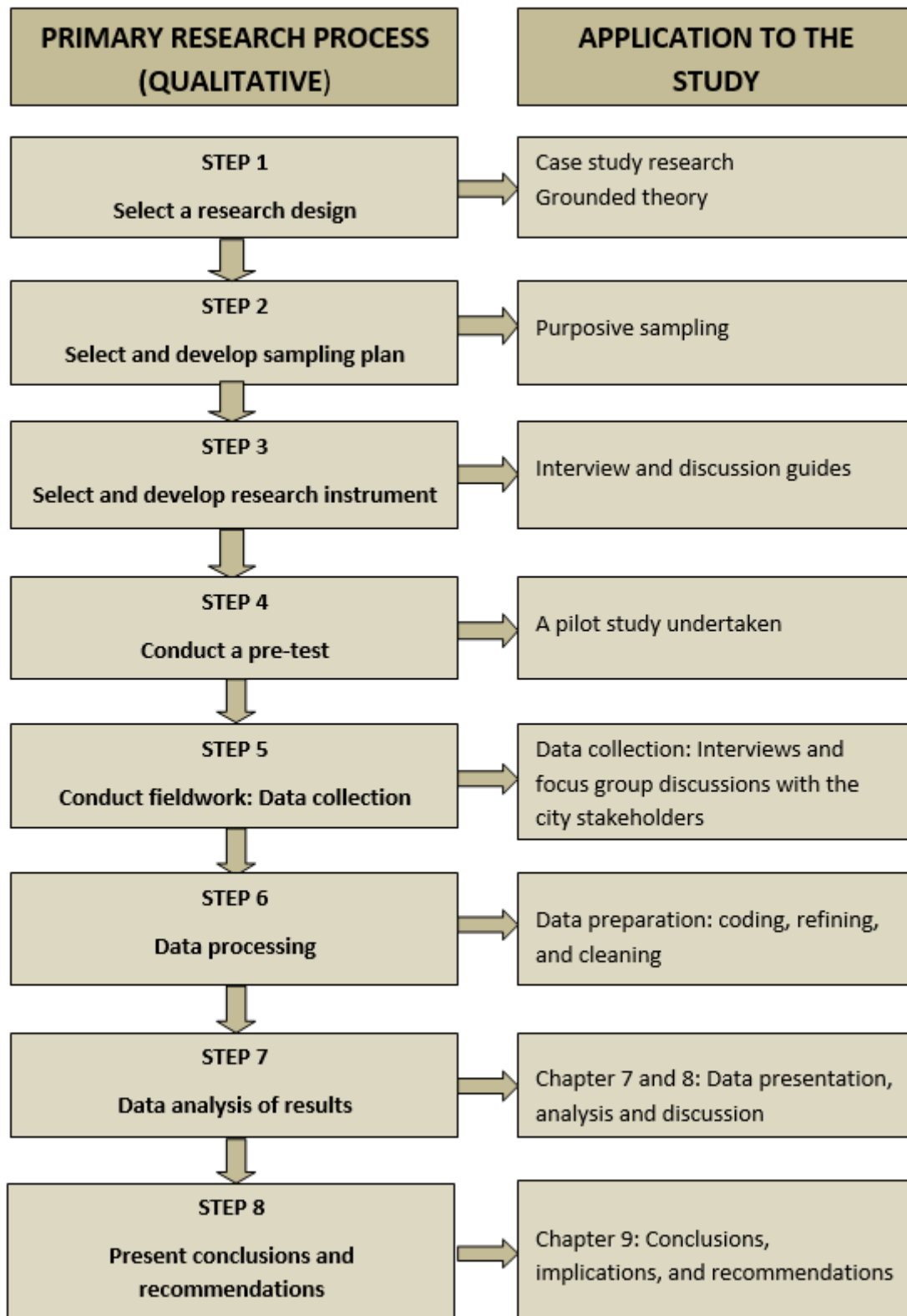


Figure 6.1: Primary research process

Source: Adapted from Lune & Berg (2017); Merriam & Grenier (2019); Myers (2020)

6.2 STUDY AREA

The study site for this research is the CoJ as per the municipal boundaries of the area (CoJ, 2022). Johannesburg is the capital city and financial hub of Gauteng Province, South Africa, and the continent at large. The city has an approximate population of more than 4, 4 million residents and boast of a rich mixture of cultures from the local and international circles (Bobo *et al.*, 2021).Economically, the city contributes almost 16% to the country's GDP and 40% to the Gauteng provincial government (CoJ, 2022).For clarification purposes, the following map (Figure 6.2) displays the municipal boundaries of Johannesburg(CoJ, 2022).For purposes of this research, every area within these boundaries is included when referring to the CoJ.



Figure 6.2: Map of Johannesburg

Source: CoJ (2022)

The following section justifies why the CoJ has been chosen as the study site for this research study.

6.2.1 Cultural heritage attractions in Johannesburg

According to Bobo *et al.* (2021), Johannesburg features many cultural heritage attractions owing to its rich history. The struggle against oppression was centred in and around the city and many struggle veterans such as Nelson Mandela and Desmond Tutu called the city their home (Mbhiza & Mearns, 2014). The city boasts of many museums, monuments, historical buildings, art centres and townships which are evident of Afrikaner, English and African heritage (Scholvin, 2022). According to Viljoen and Henama (2017), the availability of these attractions ensures that the city can receive more visitors and create employment opportunities for locals.

Bobo *et al.* (2021) further highlight that it is important to note that the CoJ has remarkably developed its cultural heritage portfolio over the years. In this regard, the city is becoming an established cultural heritage city (Viljoen & Henama, 2017; Rogerson & Rogerson, 2017; Muzeza & Van Zyl, 2018; Bobo *et al.*, 2021). These attractions will now be outlined in terms of what they offer to the cultural heritage tourist visiting Johannesburg which further highlights the reasons for choosing the city as the study site for the purposes of this study. Table 6.1 illustrates cultural heritage attractions found in Johannesburg.

Table 6.1: Cultural heritage attractions in Johannesburg

Name of attraction	Location	Main theme
Alexandra Township	Johannesburg Metropolitan	Highlights how black South Africans managed to defeat apartheid.
Apartheid Museum	Gold Reef City complex	The museum tells the whole story of the struggle against apartheid up to when the country held its first democratic elections.
Constitutional Hill National Cultural Heritage Site	Johannesburg CBD	It is where most of the struggle icons were jailed by the apartheid regime and now

Name of attraction	Location	Main theme
		houses the Constitutional Court of South Africa.
Credo Mutwa Cultural Village and Oppenheimer Tower	Soweto	Celebrates African art, culture and folklore.
Ekurhuleni O.R. Tambo Cultural Precinct	Wattville, Benoni	Features art and cultural displays.
Fordsburg Township	Johannesburg CBD	Yesteryear and today's location life.
Hector Pieterse Memorial Museum	Orlando West, Soweto	The museum features pictures of South African youth who sacrificed their lives fighting apartheid.
Johannesburg Art Gallery	Newtown	The art gallery exhibits a variety of collections than any other gallery in the continent.
Johannesburg Holocaust and Genocide Centre	Johannesburg CBD	Memory education and lessons for humanity.
June 16th Memorial Acre	Mofolo Central, Soweto	Pictures of the June 16th happenings.
Kagiso Township	Johannesburg Metropolitan	Yesteryear and today's location life.
Katlhohong Township	Johannesburg Metropolitan	Yesteryear and today's location life.
Lihle Bed and Breakfast	Orlando West, Soweto	Traditional accommodation.
Maboneng Arts on Main and 1 Fox Precinct	Maboneng	Core focus on the arts.
Mandela House Museum	Orlando West, Soweto	Former residency of one of South Africa's Peace Noble winners and hero.
Museum Africa	Newtown	Features pictures of the rise and fall of apartheid.

Name of attraction	Location	Main theme
Neighbourhoods Market Johannesburg	Braamfontein	Art products made by South Africans.
Roodepoort Museum	Roodepoort	It features history of the country and how gold was discovered in the country.
Sakhumzi Restaurant	Orlando West, Soweto	Features African traditional cuisine.
Sharpeville	Johannesburg Metropolitan	Features the pictures of the Sharpeville massacre.
Sightseeing Joburg & Soweto	Rosebank	Sightseeing tours around Soweto.
Sophiatown The Mix	Sophiatown	Historically significant and vibrant yesteryear and that of today.
Soweto Backpackers	Orlando, Soweto	Backpackers' tour of Soweto.
Soweto Theatre	Soweto	Arts and culture
Soweto Township	Johannesburg Metropolitan	Yesteryear and today's location life.
Tembisa Township	Johannesburg Metropolitan	Yesteryear and today's location life.
Ubuntu Kraal Brewery and Beergarden	Orlando West, Soweto	The preparation of South African beer.
Wits Art Museum	Johannesburg CBD	Features South African art.
Workers' Museum	Newtown	Features the narrative of the migration of workers from all over Africa.

Source: SA-Venues (2022)

Considering the number and variety of cultural heritage attractions found in the city, it can be concluded that Johannesburg can capitalise on these attractions as indicated in Table 6.1. Considering these realities, city marketers should capitalise on the availability of these attractions as a unique selling point when branding the city. This is so because cities that capitalise on their natural competitive advantage(s) such as cultural heritage have proven to be successful

on the world market (Kasapi & Cela, 2017). The CoJ should, therefore, capitalise on the variety of cultural heritage attractions that it hosts to brand itself successfully as cultural heritage destination which would set it apart from the other competing cities (Zhao, 2015; Santos *et al.*, 2017; Green *et al.*, 2018; Altengerel, 2020; Cudny *et al.*, 2020). The CoJ has been failing to attract visitors to spend more time and money within its boundaries; so, it is crucial for city marketers to consult the city stakeholders to review their marketing strategy to attract visitors to spend more time and money in the city.

Such stakeholders include *residents* as ambassadors and promoters of the city and hosts of the visitors (Belabas, 2023), registered *tour operators* as investors, promoters of the city and visitors' hosts, NPOs such as the *Johannesburg Heritage Foundation* which focuses on historical preservation and offering various heritage tours of the Johannesburg area. Other stakeholders include business organisations such as the Southern Africa Tourism Services Association which focuses on the growth and the sustainability of the travel and tourism sector in South Africa, Gauteng Tourism Authority (GTA) as a regional (provincial) marketing organisation whose main responsibilities are to encourage sustainable tourism development in Gauteng Province. The organisation's focus is (Gauteng Tourism Authority, 2019):

- To establish a fund for tourism development projects, raising funds for tourism promotion;
- To register, grade, and classify hotels;
- To register restaurants, accommodation establishments, conference venues and tourist service providers;
- To license operators in the tourism industry, certify and accreditation of training organisations;
- To collect fees from hotels, restaurants and other tourism service providers; and
- To solve any issues regarding the above duties.

Because of the foregoing responsibilities, the GTA is considered a crucial stakeholder in branding the CoJ.

The Johannesburg Tourism Company (JTC) is a local municipal marketing organisation in Johannesburg. It strives to market the city as an experience-based destination, sustain demand-propelled tourism development projects to promote tourism growth which ensures economic growth and development in the city in a shared and sustainable manner, developing the tourism sector in the city and stimulating a vibrant secondary economy. In this regard, JTC is, therefore, considered a crucial stakeholder in the development of the Johannesburg city brand.

To decide on the empirical process that was used in the current study to answer the research question(s), it is crucial to consider how the study was conducted. The research philosophy approach and design of this study are discussed next.

6.3 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY, APPROACH AND DESIGN

In social sciences, of which tourism marketing is one, research design and methodology is shaped by research philosophy and research approach. According to Creswell and Creswell Baez (2020), knowledge generation in the social sciences is guided by four philosophies that include pragmatism, realism, interpretivism and positivism. The authors' further highlighted that through the existence of all these philosophies, researchers might be tempted to think that research should fit neatly into one specific philosophy; yet one philosophical domain cannot answer a research question. Based on the foregoing facts, the researcher discusses the philosophical paradigms that guided this research study in the following subsection.

6.3.1 Research philosophy: Constructivism/interpretivism with bias towards pragmatism

Creswell and Creswell Baez (2020) elucidate that philosophical paradigm implies the basic belief system that shapes the research. The authors further elaborate that an investigator can focus on one paradigm or can choose to blend them. Considering the objectives of the current study, the research adopted a mixed philosophy that blended paradigms of constructivism/interpretivism and pragmatism. The next section discusses the blended paradigms and their application to this study is further discussed throughout the section.

6.3.1.1 Constructivism/interpretivism

Constructivism implies that the researcher believes that individuals develop varied and multiple subjective meanings of their lived experiences (Lune & Berg, 2017). The authors maintain that reality is a construct of social systems that is constructed by individuals or groups. It is also referred to as social constructionism and is normally employed equally with interpretivism (Creswell, 2014; Cullen & Brennan, 2021). Because this study aimed to understand the views of city stakeholders in Johannesburg regarding the suggested framework for branding the city, it employed interpretivism since the researcher assumed that participants come up with different meanings for their life experiences (Lune & Berg, 2017). The authors further elaborate that through social systems, reality is brought about (that emanates from individuals and groups) which can be realised through social groups or individual's interactions. Researchers collect rich data by engaging with very few participants (Myers, 2020). According to Ningi (2021), meaning emerges through a largely inductive approach from the collected data. Hence, for the purposes of this research, FGDs and in-depth interviews with city stakeholders who offer expertise in city branding were conducted.

When employing interpretivism, the objective is to interpret the subjective human experience, that is, respondents' interpretations of the world they are living in according to their beliefs and value systems (Merriam & Grenier, 2019). It implies the collection of data in the respondents' own environment (work, home, or business premise), identifying themes from the data and interpreting it (Ningi, 2021). This belief system suits this study as the researcher sought to understand what the city stakeholders think about the suggested framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination in their own settings which promote the realisation of rich data. Pragmatism was blended with constructivism/interpretivism for the purposes of this study and is discussed next.

6.3.1.2 Pragmatism

Pragmatism involves considering what works to answer the research question or objectives (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011; Charmaz & Thornberg, 2021). According to Creswell and Creswell Baez (2020), pragmatism does not rely on only one system of philosophy and reality. For the purposes of this study, this gave the researcher the choice of drawing from both pragmatism and

constructivism. In this way, pragmatism was used since it was the method that works best for the researcher (Charmaz & Thornberg, 2021). This helped the researcher to be practical and integrate a variety of perceptions to interpret and analyse the views, opinions and perceptions of the city stakeholders in Johannesburg regarding the suggested framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Employing pragmatism in this study promoted carefulness in terms of the research procedures. This is further discussed in this chapter and the next section introduces the research approach adopted for the current study.

6.3.2 Research approach: deductive with a bias towards inductive approach

Merriam and Grenier (2019) posit that, in social sciences, three approaches exist, namely, deduction, induction and abduction approaches. Creswell and Creswell Baez (2020) articulate that in qualitative research, theory can give a wider explanation of the subject under study. This implies that deductive strategy provides certain theory that directs research from the beginning till the end, and be created as the end to the research (inductive strategy). The inductive and deductive strategies were both employed in this study. Kelle (2014) elaborates that the inductive approach puts together some elements of the deductive approach in the development of new knowledge, and its applicability is tested through the empirical process. Hence, the current study used both inductive and deductive elements, which are further discussed next.

6.3.2.1 Deductive approach

Extant literature (theories on city branding) outlines wider themes and interpretations if it does not bar innovation or force unprejudiced categories into the research design (Creswell & Creswell Baez, 2020; Charmaz & Thornberg, 2021). This falls under the constructivist grounded theorists. The extant literature highlights the research gaps, aim and objectives, and aided the development of the research instrument. The literature review was based on previous studies on city branding in books, journal articles and future research. After the literature review, fieldwork was conducted. Chapter 2 gave an in-depth literature review on branding as a strategy of city marketing in a general context and in a cultural heritage context, Chapter 3 discussed international city branding case studies,

Chapter 4 gave a situational analysis of city branding in Johannesburg and Chapter 5 suggested the framework for branding the CoJ emanating from the extant literature.

6.3.2.2 Inductive approach

The inductive approach involves the collecting of evidence where theories or concepts will then be built, moving from aspects of generalisation (Bekele & Ago, 2022). According to Cullen and Brennan (2021), inductive approach is a process of building new theory from the data into wider themes and to a generalised theory or model (testing the framework). This, normally, is the conclusion to the study (Farmer & Farmer, 2022). Theory can be illustrated through a logical diagram or explanatory framework that interprets the data, that is, a diagrammatical representation of how key concepts link together (the resultant FBJ) (Ningi, 2022). According to Charmaz and Thornberg (2021), theories come in two levels of theory, that is, micro and middle range which includes putting concepts, variables and propositions together to explain a certain subject. The authors further explain that grand theories imply combining concepts, statements and prepositions to create an overview that will be applied to many disciplines. However, in grounded theory designs, two levels of theory can be built:

Substantive theory which relates to a certain subject of study such as marketing strategies cities can employ and *formal theory* which emanates from substantive theory and dwells on further development of wider explanatory concepts that can be connected to the same situations (Charmaz & Thornberg, 2021). The researcher navigated towards key themes and a theory through a progressive process of data reduction (Saldana, 2021). This study resulted in a substantive theory that was illustrated through a diagram. City branding is the substantive area which is middle range since it combines a variety of concepts to focus on the perceptions of tourism destination stakeholders regarding the suggested FBJ. According to Strauss and Corbin (1990), a theory highlights conditions that promote the phenomena under study (perceptions of tourism destination stakeholders regarding the FBJ and the emerging consequences (whether the framework will be accepted or rejected). To add to this, Saldana (2021) articulates that the relationships between categories of the theory are also illustrated through a diagram. In this way, the theory is fully data-driven and meets the research

objective, that is, developing a framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination. This is discussed in Chapters 7 and 8. The following section discusses the research design for the study.

6.3.3 Research design

Research design is influenced by the research philosophy and the research approach applied (Lune & Berg, 2017). The authors define research design as a roadmap that explains how the problem of the study and how the research objectives will be met. According to Creswell and Creswell Baez (2020), research design outlines and justifies decisions taken on research strategy, data, data collection methods, and analysis of data. However, Myers (2020) opines that research design identifies or develops procedures and logical processes required to conduct a study, ensuring that the applied procedures guarantee validity, objectivity and accuracy of the results. Hence, it provides a guideline which allows the quality of a study's findings to be evaluated. This study, therefore, followed an exploratory design to discover the perceptions of city stakeholders regarding the suggested framework for branding the CoJ. According to Myers (2020), the focus of exploratory research is on discovering new patterns which is suitable for this study.

6.3.3.1 Research method

The researcher based his methodological choices on the following previous studies on the same topic and the methods implemented. These studies provided the methodological foundations for the qualitative techniques that were employed in this research study. These are illustrated in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2: List of previous studies on city/destination branding and the methods implemented

Author(s)	Title	Research method	Data collection	Sampling technique	Sample size
Du Preez (2009)	Branding and positioning an African capital city: The Case of Tshwane in South Africa	Quantitative and qualitative	Surveys and interviews	Purposive sampling	
Knott and Hemmonsby (2017)	Leveraging sport to build city brands: The case of Cape Town as an emerging city brand	Qualitative	Interviews	Purposive sampling	12 interviews with key stakeholders
Mortensen (2015)	Branding the Post-Soviet City: Case study of Riga	Qualitative	Interviews	Purposive sampling	15 interviews
Pecot and de Barnier (2015)	City brand management: The role of brand heritage in city branding	Quantitative and qualitative	Surveys and interviews	Purposive sampling	12 interviews with experts of Marseille's heritage industry were held
Wraae (2015)	Branding Amsterdam: The roles of residents in city branding.	Qualitative	Interviews	Purposive sampling	10 interviews were held
Zhao (2015)	China's leading historical and cultural city: Branding Dali City through public-private partnerships in Bai architecture revitalisation.	Qualitative	Participant observation, unstructured interviews and	Purposive sampling	10 officials were interviewed

Author(s)	Title	Research method	Data collection	Sampling technique	Sample size
			semi-structured interviews		
Hemmonsbey and Knott (2016)	Branding an African city through sport: The role of stakeholder engagement.	Qualitative	In-depth interviews	Purposive sampling	12 stakeholders
Hemmonsbey, Tichaawa and Knott (2018)	Conceptual framework for strategic destination branding through leveraging home-grown sport events.	Qualitative	In-depth interviews	Purposive sampling	12 key stakeholders were interviewed
Kankhuni (2020)	Tourism destination branding in Malawi: A supply-side perspective	Qualitative	In-depth interviews	Purposive and snowball sampling	17 key stakeholders were interviewed

Source: Researcher's own compilation

Out of nine studies on city branding illustrated on Table 6.2, seven employed the qualitative approach. Furthermore, it was mentioned in Chapter 1 that qualitative research studies are lacking in the South African context, especially in Johannesburg. Moreover, since the researcher sought to gain in-depth data about what the city stakeholders think about the suggested FBJ, this study adopted a qualitative approach to investigate a complex situation (Creswell & Poth, 2018), and to assess perspectives, opinions and experiences of participants regarding the FBJ (i.e. the meaning that participants assign to the subject under investigation) (Ruzinskaite, 2015) based on the previous studies on city branding illustrated on Table 6.2.

According to Merriam and Grenier (2019), qualitative research uses very few study units of non-representative participants who are known to be able to provide credible data according to the researcher which suits this study because there are few senior managers who offer city branding experience. According to Creswell and Poth (2018), in qualitative research, emphasis is put on the richness of the collected data and less consideration is put on numerical numbers and statistics to achieve the main objective of the study. Echoing the same sentiments, Yin (2018) reiterates that qualitative research is longer and more flexible which enables the realisation of deep and rich data. Myers (2020) accentuates that with qualitative research, collected data is in the form of words and not in figures. This, according to the same author, promotes more understanding of the phenomenon being investigated. Hence, Schoch (2020) argues that the approach dwells too much on understanding what the participants say or do when interpreting a certain concept.

For the purposes of the current study, qualitative research was considered suitable for this research to gain a broad overview of city stakeholders' perceptions and to develop a theoretical framework based on rich and meaningful data which eventually enabled the testing of the framework for branding of the CoJ as employed by Ndlovu and Heath (2011), Fan (2014), Mortensen (2015), Wraae (2015), Zhao (2015), Hemmonsbey and Knott (2016), Hemmonsbey *et al.* (2018) and Kankhuni (2020). This follows the fact that qualitative research is more concerned with what people say or do (Lune & Berg, 2017). In this way, the researcher sought to understand what city stakeholders thought about the

suggested framework for branding the CoJ, hence, qualitative research was deemed suitable for the research.

The researcher, therefore, approached the study without predetermined categories of the questions that limit participants from expressing their feelings, opinions and perceptions about the suggested framework for branding the CoJ. The qualitative approach promotes flexibility in respect of handling complexities of city branding research (Smith, 2018). As Merriam and Grenier (2019) asserts, qualitative research design as compared to quantitative research, allows researchers to conduct research on their own unlike in quantitative research where there are interconnections and interaction among a variety of design components.

Qualitative research enables the researcher to reflect on their own position. Therefore, they form part of the research instrument (Merriam & Grenier, 2019), and they affect participants' responses and bring their understanding to reflect on the analysis of data (Creswell & Creswell Baez, 2020). Hence, the research strategy and research instrument and data collection were all conducted by the researcher. However, what participants revealed remains important and not a subjective meaning concocted by the researcher or projected by the extant literature (Ningi, 2022). The researcher avoided influencing participants' behaviour by employing a variety of strategies that are later discussed under validity. The next subsection probes the research strategy employed in this research.

6.3.3.2 Research strategy

Creswell and Creswell Baez (2020) define a research strategy as a plan of how the researcher will fulfil the research objectives. According to the same authors, literature mentions ten research strategies available in social sciences. These include survey, experiment, archival research, action research, ethnography, narrative enquiry, observation, interview, **case study** and **grounded theory**. This study adopted case study research and grounded theory strategies given the objectives of the study.

Ruzinskaite (2015), on developing a framework for city branding evaluation, suggests that city branding scholars should conduct city-based case studies so

that they can understand the complex interaction that happens between cities and people. In this study, a single case study was employed where a variety of city stakeholders (hereby referred to as constituencies, see Section 6.4.4) took part in the research so that the researcher could understand all their views and opinions regarding the suggested framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination. This strategy of enquiry is discussed next.

i)Case study research

A case study enables the researcher to understand the subject under study in real-life situations to build up theory and compliments grounded theory (Yin, 2018).According to Farmer and Farmer (2022), this research design is important in building new theory. A case study involves a detailed analysis of the research subject through a variety of sources of evidence (Schoch, 2020).In this scenario, a 'case' can be an organisation, a group of people, a community, event, campaign, or a city/destination (Farmer & Farmer, 2022).A case study focuses on answering questions such as 'how' and 'why' as its purpose is to gain knowledge about the research subjects in their own settings (Smith, 2018).In this case, the findings emanating from the qualitative study such as in-depth interviews and FGDs can either support and supplement theories or reject those (Farmer & Farmer, 2022).

According to Schoch (2020), there are three types of case studies in terms of their objectives, that is, to give a description, theory testing and generating theory.The author further explains that through the employment of a descriptive study, the researcher can be able to illustrate or challenge a specific model or theory, while in theory building case, the findings are compared with theory where the data that closely match with the theory results are valid theory qualitatively. However, theory testing research aims to generate a theory, that is, to develop a theoretical and practical framework because such a framework has not yet been developed as far as with the case within this current study (Yin, 2018).

Normally, researchers opt to use multiple case study method as it is the most effective in terms of reducing bias (Smith, 2018). However, for purposes of this study, a single case study of Johannesburg was used because of the complexity of the case (city branding) and since it enables the realisation of very rich and

deep understanding of city branding which promotes the development of the FBJ. There is no, at the best of the researcher's knowledge, a comprehensive and robust city branding framework suggested for the CoJ, which translates to it being a theory building study; hence, case study research was thought to be the most suitable strategy to be employed for the purposes of this research (Schoch, 2020). Through this study, theory was built through the employment of in-depth interviews and FGDs to answer the "how" and "why" questions which helped to understand the situation and assist in interpreting data collected. The researcher employed a comprehensive approach in this study because case studies have a variety of variables like city branding factors which were analysed separately by many participants (various city stakeholders). Therefore, the researcher chose to employ a single case study (CoJ) for different reasons that include the intricate of issues in one case. It was a developmental case study which was later tested and the use of more than one data collection method enabled research validity. The employment of a case study research design allowed the researcher to explore the destination stakeholders' feelings, perceptions and opinions regarding the suggested FBJ in their own settings (Smith, 2018). A case study just like grounded theory promotes the development of theory (Farmer & Farmer, 2022).

Schoch (2020) assert that in descriptive studies, researchers try to measure the subject under study in detail to paint a clear picture. Employing a variety of participants (constituencies) provides a deeper understanding because diverse settings are employed which enables greater analytical benefits (Farmer & Farmer, 2022). For the purposes of this study, these were the city stakeholders in the CoJ. Case study research design works hand in hand with the grounded theory design because this study aimed at describing the subject under study and to develop new theory, which is the development of the framework for branding the CoJ.

Grounded theory is discussed next for the purposes of this study.

ii) Grounded theory

Grounded theory can be described as a structured methodology in social sciences that involves the creation of theories through methodological gathering

and analysis of data (Birks & Mills, 2022). According to Torres-Zamudio, Gonzalo-Castro and Manzano-Duran (2020), this study suited grounded theory because it is exploratory which is suitable for investigating aspects where the previous research lacks breadth and/or depth or where new insights on the subject appear to be inevitable. In Chapter 1, it was highlighted that city branding in the South African context has attracted extremely limited research in the past (Matiza, 2020); hence, grounded theory was critical. Grounded theory can unearth thick descriptions that acknowledge areas, contradictions and conflicts that may assist to test the suggested framework in the research (Torres-Zamudio *et al.*, 2020). The researcher read through literature on city branding and suggested a framework that was informed by the extant literature. The researcher then conducted qualitative research with city stakeholders to test the suggested FBJ. In this regard, grounded theory became crucial as it eschews making presuppositions and instead adopts a more unbiased view of participants' perceptions about the suggested FBJ.

For the purposes of this study, several aspects align with grounded theory and include the following:

Data analysis was conducted inductively and codes appeared from the collected data itself (Charmaz & Thornberg, 2021). Furthermore, interpretations by the researcher emanated from the collected data and verbatim quotes informed data analysis (Urquhart, 2022). This research followed a structured process which resulted in the construction of a theory that was informed by the collected data. Cohen *et al.* (2011:539) assert "a grounded theory and content analysis will proceed through a systematic series of analyses, including coding and categorisation, until theory emerges that explains the phenomena being studied..." Furthermore, this study suited the grounded theory as an output since it is an area with a dearth of knowledge (Fain *et al.*, 2022). Under section 1.2, it was highlighted that there is a need for more knowledge regarding the branding of cities in the South African context. Therefore, the substantive field of city branding in South Africa has room for new theories.

After the selection of the research design, the development of the sampling plan followed, and this is described in the next subsection.

6.4 SAMPLING PLAN DESIGN

There were four steps used in designing the sampling plan in this current study and these are described in the following sections following the steps illustrated in Figure 6.3.

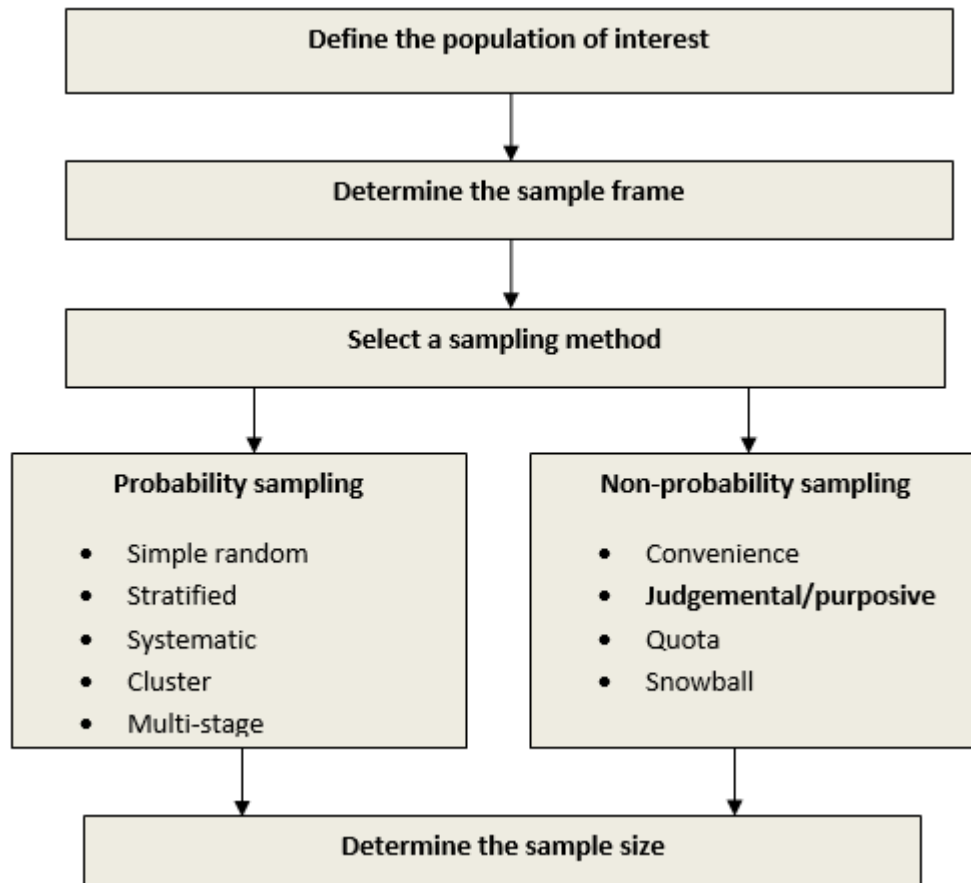


Figure 6.3: Steps to follow in designing the sample plan

Source: Creswell & Creswell Baez (2020)

The following sub-section discusses the population of interest of the current study.

6.4.1 Define the population of interest

Defining the population of interest speaks to the total number of records, events, and/or people that concerns the study problem (Myers, 2020). Concerning this current study, this implied the total number of tourism city stakeholders based in the CoJ.

Johannesburg houses head offices of many tourism organisations in the province and the country such as the GTA, GATOA, and SATSA. The criteria for selecting the city stakeholders in Johannesburg was that the city is the economic hub of South Africa and Africa at large and is the transit city for visitors to Southern Africa (Matiza, 2020). In addition, Johannesburg enjoys exceptionally high cultural heritage diversity, boasting art galleries, museums, townships, people from different cultural backgrounds representing different races and South Africa's 11 official languages (City Johannesburg, 2022).

All the city stakeholders were not included in the study because of the following reasons: the size and geographical distribution of tourism city stakeholders in the city, the paucity of academic studies on city branding, and databases inaccuracy. These were the city stakeholders that offered expertise in city marketing, had vast experience and were high office bearers (Hemmonsbeey & Knott, 2016; Hemmonsbeey *et al.*, 2018; Kankhuni, 2020). These represented the subgroup of the population that interested the researcher, and that was selected for participation in the current study.

The next subsection discusses the sampling frame used for the current study.

6.4.2 Identify the sample frame

Bekele and Ago (2022) define a sampling frame as a representation of the components of the target population and comprises a list of guidelines for identifying the target population. The GTA assisted with the sampling frame for this study, which included a list of tourism city stakeholders in the CoJ (GTA, 2022). Selecting a sampling method was next.

6.4.3 Select a sampling method

According to Lune and Berg (2017), in deciding on the sampling method, the researcher should be knowledgeable about the population in question, financial resources needed and available, objectives of the study, nature and scope of the research problem, and research time frames. The authors further highlight that there is probability and non-probability sampling. Merriam and Grenier (2019) define probability sampling as where a chance of being selected is being able to be calculated for each study unit. Following this fact, each study unit has the same chance of being selected for the study. Merriam and Grenier (2019)

maintain that probability sampling is utilised when the researcher is knowledgeable of the research problem and the sampling error is immense and study units are relatively heterogeneous.

Alternately, non-probability sampling is where study units are chosen based on the judgement of the researcher and chances of selection cannot be calculated (Merriam & Grenier, 2019). Non-probability sampling is suitable in cases where the sampling error is relatively small and units of study are homogeneous (Lune & Berg, 2017). Accordingly, purposive sampling as a type of non-probability sampling was followed to identify tourism city stakeholders in Johannesburg. The objectives of the current study influenced the sampling method selected instead of representativeness, that is, purposive sampling (Myers, 2020) and from previous studies of a similar nature (see Table 6.2). Hence, the discussion of the subject among different city stakeholders was essential instead of having many participants (Bekele & Ago, 2022). The researcher believed that informed data would be collected from the selected participants through the employment of purposive sampling (Ningi, 2022). The reasons for choosing purposive sampling are that:

- The researcher can deliberate on who is best to include in the study.
- The researcher can collect rich and meaningful data that is critical for the study.
- The researcher can adapt and/or refine the sample as one enters the study, more specifically in a new location with a new organisation where the researcher is not aware of whom to ask to take part in the study (Bekele & Ago, 2022).

A variety of city branding studies (Ndlovu & Heath, 2011; Fan, 2014; Hemmonsbey & Knott, 2015; Mortensen, 2015; Pecot & de Barnier, 2015; Wraae, 2015; Zhao, 2015; Hemmonsbey *et al.*, 2018; Kankhuni, 2020) employed this technique (see Table 6.2).

After the selection of the sampling method, determining the sample size followed and this is described next.

6.4.4 Determine the sample size

Sample size was defined by Myers (2020) as the number of units considered in a study. Determining the sample size is complicated as it involves practical considerations. Participants were included in the study if they were working for an organisation or company in Johannesburg. They were also supposed to be involved in management or leadership, that is, ingrained knowledge of the CoJ was inexorable. Furthermore, the participants included senior managers and chairpersons involved in the marketing of the city. The collective opinions, feelings and perceptions of these stakeholders would provide rich data concerning the suggested FBJ; hence, the researcher wanted to interact with these city stakeholders (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

According to Lune and Berg (2017), qualitative research does not consider much on sample size if the participants will give very deep and rich data. The sample size for the study was small owing to a smaller number of senior managers and chairpersons in these organisations/companies, and owing to the requirement, that participants also need to be knowledgeable about city branding, have five or more years' experience on the job, and also owing to time and money constraints; hence, the population was exceedingly small (Merriam & Grenier, 2019). Table 6.3 illustrates the number of city stakeholders that participated in the study.

Table 6.3: Number of city stakeholders participating in the study

Constituency	Data collection method	Number of participants
Gauteng Tourism Authority (GTA)	Individual interviews	3
Johannesburg Tourism Company (JTC)	Individual interviews	3
Registered tour operators (GATOA)	Individual interviews	3
Johannesburg residents	Individual interviews	3
Total number of participants (IIs)		12
GTA	Focus group discussion	2

Constituency	Data collection method	Number of participants
JTC	Focus group discussion	2
GATOA	Focus group discussion	2
Residents	Focus group discussion	2
SATSA	Focus group discussion	2
JHF	Focus group discussion	2
Total number of participants (FGD)		12
Overall number of participants for the study		24

Source: Researcher's own compilation

There were a total of 12 individual interviews. These included three senior managers at GTA and three senior managers at JTC and three registered tour operators with the GATOA and three chairpersons/senior members within registered residents associations). Furthermore, there were two FGDs of six participants per group (one senior manager from GTA and JTC respectively, one registered member with GATOA, one chairperson/senior member of a residents association, one chairperson/researcher at JHF and 1 registered member with SATSA).

Constituencies

In Chapter 1, the term constituency was introduced in Section 1.5. For the purposes of this study, six groups of people (constituencies) participated in the study to collect rich data (Cohen *et al.*, 2011) as illustrated in Table 6.3 and further explained below.

- **Constituency 1 (C1)** implies the GTA senior managers based in the CoJ.
- **Constituency 2 (C2)** refers to the JTC senior managers based in the CoJ.

- **Constituency 3 (C3)** refers to the registered tour operators with GATOA operating within the CoJ.
- **Constituency 4 (C4)** refers to the chairpersons of Johannesburg resident associations.
- **Constituency 5 (C5)** refers to the business organisation (SATSA) registered members based in the CoJ.
- **Constituency (C6)** refers to the JHF chairperson and researchers based in the CoJ.

After the deliberation on the sampling plan was done, the next step was to develop the research instrument.

6.5 RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

The cardinal components suggested for the framework emanating from the extant literature, the international case studies and the situational analysis of city branding in Johannesburg guided the researcher in developing the research instrument since the components were to be tested to achieve the main aim of the study. Table 6.4 illustrates questions that were contained in the research instrument. Participants were asked (both in individual interviews and FGDs) questions that related on the same subject. All the participants were asked to express their personal opinions, feelings and perceptions with regards to the suggested FBJ. Because the participants were all working within the CoJ and involved in the marketing of the city, they were the ideal stakeholders to give their opinions and views on the suggested FBJ. They were all crucial stakeholders in the city, and the pragmatic viewpoint of the research determined that the study would be incomplete without the opinions and views of the city stakeholders.

Throughout the empirical study, the researcher referred to the interview guide for in-depth individual interviews and referred to the discussion guide for the FGDs.

6.5.1 Research instruments: content and items

The structure of the research instruments enabled the researcher to answer the research questions. Therefore, the research instrument questions were based on literature on city branding, addressing key topics around city branding using

cultural heritage tourism. Open-ended questions were included in the research instrument since they are informal in structure and allowed the city stakeholders to express their opinions and perceptions regarding the suggested framework for branding of the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination. Lune and Berg (2017) highlight the importance of such questions as enabling participants to provide detailed information which promotes the exploration of certain issues. Hence, the interviews and the FGDs for this study started with three introductory questions contained in the interview/discussion guide:

- *What is your role in this organisation?*
- *What do you think should be the role of your organisation in Johannesburg brand?*
- *How should your organisation be involved in the branding initiatives of the CoJ?*

These questions enabled the researcher to develop empathy with the respondents, gather information on their roles and state whether they were involved in the latest city branding initiative for the city and lastly, set the tone for the interview/discussions. Follow-up, direct and interpreting questions then followed which enabled the researcher to explore more about how the stakeholders viewed the suggested framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination (Bekele & Ago, 2022). The questions were informed by and followed the outline of the suggested framework to achieve the aim of the qualitative study, testing the suggested framework. The components of the framework, question in research instrument, source and rationale are outlined in Table 6.4 where (II) represents questions for in-depth interviews and (FGD) indicate questions for the FGDs:

Table 6.4: Research instrument

Framework components	Questions in research instrument	Sources	Rationale
BACKGROUND INFORMATION	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What is your role in this organisation? (II and FGD) 2. What do you think should be the role of your organisation in Johannesburg brand? How should your organisation be involved in the branding initiatives of the City of Johannesburg? (II and FGD) 	<p>The questions were inspired by the City of Amsterdam which involved experts in city branding in their branding initiative conceptualise suitable deliberations with regards to branding the city successfully.</p>	<p>To determine whether the city stakeholders take part in the city's branding projects or not. In most cases, when stakeholders are not involved, the projects normally fail.</p>
1. Assessing the current situation	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. How do you describe Johannesburg? (II and FGD) 2. How do you view the city's cultural heritage? (II) 3. Why is it important to employ or consider cultural heritage in branding Johannesburg? (II) 4. What should be the vision for Johannesburg? Has it been achieved? (II) 5. What should be the values? (II) 7. To whom should the vision be targeted? (II) <p>FGD</p>	<p>The questions were inspired by Ruzinskaite (2015), Morrison (2019) and the City of Amsterdam who all advocated for the creation of the city's vision, values and how these will be achieved and to whom they are targeted first before building the city brand.</p>	<p>The vision of any city points to the direction to which the city wants to go and what they want to achieve in the long run. The target market is also defined during city brand planning.</p>

Framework components	Questions in research instrument	Sources	Rationale
2.Designing the branding strategy	<p>1. What should be Johannesburg's brand?</p> <p>2. What do you think the procedures of decision-making should be? (II and FGD)</p> <p>3. How should the Johannesburg brand be complimented through a slogan or graphic or physical representation? Do these reflect the value of the city? (II and FGD)</p>	<p>The question was inspired by the City of Amsterdam which involved experts from different sectors who offered expertise in city branding. When experts are involved, then it will be easy to identify core values that can give the city competitive advantages.</p> <p>The question was inspired by the City of Amsterdam's motto that is unique, simple and flexible to connect with any industry or sector in the city.</p>	<p>To determine who should be responsible for the deliberation and leading in the city branding initiatives of the city.</p> <p>To determine whether the city brand, slogan or graphic or physical (if they exist) reflect the values of the city. This is important because if any of the foregoing does not reflect the values of the city, then there will be some sort of conflict among city stakeholders, which leads to city branding failure.</p>
3.Implementing the designed branding strategy	<p>1. How should the Johannesburg city brand be presented to its target market? (II and FGD)</p>	<p>The question was inspired by the City of Amsterdam which decided to aggressively market the brand locally and internationally through various marketing tools which included social media.</p>	<p>To ascertain whether the city brand is successful in positioning itself on the market or not.</p>
4.Managing and directing the implemented strategy	<p>1. Who should be responsible for the daily monitoring of the branding project for the city? (II and FGD)</p>	<p>The question was inspired by the case of Amsterdam which opened an office that closely</p>	<p>To determine if there are officials who are specifically responsible for the branding project.</p>

Framework components	Questions in research instrument	Sources	Rationale
		monitored the branding project.	
5. Monitoring the progress of the branding strategy	1. How should the Johannesburg city brand flair against competition? (II and FGD) 2. Who are these competitors? (II and FGD)	The questions were inspired by a variety of academics who advocated for the analysis of competitors in city branding to capitalise on their weaknesses (Hanna <i>et al.</i> , 2018; Morrison, 2018; Kankhuni, 2020).	To determine if the city brand is competitive against other world-class cities.
6. Assessing the performance of the branding strategy	1. How should the Johannesburg city brand's target market view the brand? (II and FGD) 2. Has the city achieved its objectives? (II and FGD)	The questions were inspired by the City of Amsterdam which analysed how the city brand was viewed in the source markets and realised that it was not popular in source markets. This led to the city employing an aggressive marketing strategy locally and abroad.	To ascertain whether the city brand is successful in achieving its objectives or not.
THE SUGGESTED FRAMEWORK	1. I have developed a framework for branding the city. How do you think the proposed framework would be useful and valuable in the branding of the city (in general) (branding components can be amended to suit	The questions were inspired by the objectives of the study which is to develop the framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination. The framework, in this instance, has to be	In studies that seek to develop a framework, it is normally important to ascertain the importance of developing the framework. In Chapter 1, it was highlighted that there is a need for a framework for

Framework components	Questions in research instrument	Sources	Rationale
	<p>any city or destination)? (II and FGD)</p> <p>2. How would this framework be useful and valuable in branding the CoJ? (II and FGD)</p> <p>3. Do you think that such a framework would improve the effectiveness and efficiency of Johannesburg's branding as a cultural heritage destination? (II and FGD)</p> <p>4. Do you have any additional comments or ideas to incorporate to improve the suggested framework? (II and FGD)</p>	<p>tested so as to achieve the main aim of the study.</p>	<p>branding the CoJ so that the city will be able to attract visitors to stay for long in the city, following the fact that the city is viewed negatively in source markets. City stakeholders need to validate that the framework is suitable for branding the city or not, and suggesting anything missing from the framework.</p>

Source: Based on the suggested framework

After the development of the research instrument, it was presented for examination by specialists in the field of city marketing through a pilot study. Pilot testing for the current study is described in the next section.

6.5.2 Pilot testing

Pilot testing forms an important stage in the process of constructing the research instrument (Merriam & Grenier, 2019).

The research instruments were reviewed by two experts in the city marketing field and by a language editor prior to the commencement of the pilot study. This was conducted by the two supervisors who are subject specialists in tourism management and marketing, respectively, and who are also experienced in qualitative analysis. They were also reviewed by an independent coder and another expert in tourism marketing. Refinement of the research instruments was conducted based on the supervisors' expert feedback and feedback from the independent coder so as to implement the modifications. After that, three interviews were held with city stakeholders in Johannesburg. The final research instruments were constructed using the data collected and analysed from the pilot study which informed the revision and improvement of the research instrument.

6.6 CONDUCTING THE INTERVIEWS AND FGDS

This section outlines the implementation of a multiple research methods for the study, the specific data collection methods used in the study and the procedures followed during the collection of data is discussed.

6.6.1 Implementation of multiple research methods

Several options for collecting data are available in qualitative research. These include mapping and interpretations of pictures, photos, and videos; existing data sets; documents and research papers; field and case notes; individual and focus group interviews (in-depth, structured and unstructured); and FGDs (Bekele & Ago, 2022). For the purposes of this study, the researcher employed FGDs and in-depth individual interviews. Although multiple research methods are not crucial in qualitative research, the researcher chose to employ two methods for the following reasons:

- Two methods are less vulnerable as is the case with one method (Schoch, 2020).
- Individual interviews and FGDs complement each other as they allow the view of the subject under discussion from different perspectives (Creswell & Creswell Baez, 2020).
- Two methods enable triangulation to promote the trustworthiness of the study findings (Smith, 2018).
- Two research methods promote the realisation of rich data which is synonymous with qualitative research (Ningi, 2022).

The following sub-section discusses the methods of collecting data that were employed in the study.

6.6.2 Conducting interviews and FGDs

The researcher employed in-depth individual interviews and FGDs during the month of April in 2022 on MS Teams among city stakeholders as part of the qualitative approach to achieve the objectives of the research. This follows that these methods of collecting data are synonymous with the qualitative research approach as highlighted in section 6.3.3.2 on Table 6.2 which illustrates previous studies of a similar nature. For the purposes of this research, all the six groups of people (constituencies) were used to obtain rich data (Schoch, 2020).

For the purposes of this research, all the constituencies participated in the study so that the researcher could learn the views of all the participants. The methods of collecting data are further explained next.

6.6.2.1 In-depth individual interviews

In-depth individual interviews are used in qualitative research to gain in-depth data from a small number of participants to get their views, opinions and perceptions concerning a certain subject (Myers, 2020; Bekele & Ago, 2022). This data collection technique is inherent in the participants who offer expertise in city branding (Lune & Berg, 2017). The technique has the advantage of getting responses that help to solve the research problem because it involves one participant being engaged separately (Bekele & Ago, 2022).

6.6.2.2 Focus group discussions (FGDs)

According to Dos Santos Marques *et al.* (2021), FGDs are led by the researcher, involve a small group of participants, and involve in-depth discussions. They are suitable when the researcher wants to understand the feelings, perceptions and opinions of a certain group of people (Schoch, 2020); to understand a subject through the lenses of respondents; to gather a deeper and wider range of responses in a short period of time (Smith, 2018); to establish consensus and when the researcher wants to further investigate certain phenomena (Bekele & Ago, 2022). FGDs are known to complement data obtained from the individual in-depth interviews (Dos Santos Marques *et al.*, 2014).

FGDs were organised with respondents who are based in Johannesburg using questions like those from the interview's guides to collect the same type of data. It was predicted that discussions were going to enable interaction among participants and guarantee that the response rates along reliability and will outlay a chance to explain the purpose of the research and answer questions arising. The findings emanating from the literature review informed the questions asked in the discussions. The supervisor, co-supervisor and the co-coder were asked to review the questionnaire to avoid misinterpretation and confusion. The supervisor, co-supervisor and the co-coder contributed to the discussion of the structure of the questionnaire. This implies that a test questionnaire was developed first before it was presented to the respondents. Questions used in the discussions must be clear. Therefore, the researcher included both open and close-ended questions without using hypothetical questions to promote understanding among respondents. Questions were grouped under headings so that analysis of data and the summarising of findings were possible.

The questions were sent to participants beforehand and the purpose and intention of the interviews and discussions were explained to participants. During the discussions, the researcher played the role of a facilitator. The researcher began with simple questions to create a relaxed environment and set the tone for the discussions. The questions sought to elicit responses from different participants, enabling an interactive discussion which led to complementary and differing opinions. Through this, the researcher was able to obtain rich data that contributed to the overall achievement of the study objective.

6.6.2.3 Procedures followed during the collection of data

The interviewees formed six groups or constituencies (senior managers from GTA, Johannesburg Tourism Company, registered tour operators, Business organisations (SATSA), Johannesburg Heritage Foundation (JHF), and residents). These names were obtained from the GTA, which is a collaborative organisation in terms of destination marketing in Gauteng Province comprising highly skilled and qualified staff. Each group of participants that was interviewed and included in the FGD during the qualitative part of the study was different since they came from different backgrounds. The questions that were asked were repeated for every participant and the questions asked were relevant to the interviewee and related to the themes being discussed.

The researcher booked participants individually as interviews and FGDs took place at different places and spaces around the CoJ as per COVID-19 protocol via Microsoft Teams, respectively. The researcher sought gatekeeper letters before engaging with participants (Appendix G). After permission was granted, an email detailing the intent was sent three weeks before the interview and discussion followed by a telephone call confirming the interview and discussion dates. The purpose and intent of the interview and discussion were explained to participants while assuring them that the information obtained will be kept in strict confidence and used for the purposes of the research only. The researcher filled in the documentation sheet in the presence of the participants at the same time explaining its purpose to them. Biographical information such as the participants' gender, position in the organisation/company, years in the position and any special occurrence that will take place during the course of the interview and discussion was recorded in the documentation sheet. This information also made it easy to analyse the data.

Interviews and the discussions were held after participants agreed to participate and all the interviews and discussions were recorded via Microsoft Teams as per COVID-19 protocol. This allowed clarity and subsequent transcriptions. Handwritten notes were also taken by the researcher during the in-depth interviews and the discussions. Interviews took approximately 45 minutes while the discussions took approximately 60 minutes each. The in-depth individual interviews and FGDs were conducted online while the participants were at their

homes, businesses and during various times of the day including after hours in some cases. This was employed as a precautionary measure against the COVID-19 pandemic which required social distancing. The in-depth interviews and discussions with the participants were conducted over a one-month period in April 2022.

6.7 DATA ANALYSIS

Creswell and Creswell Baez (2020) assert that in qualitative research, data processing (analysis) refers to data coding, data presentation and giving concluding remarks. This section discusses what the researcher conducted in processing data which include data preparation for analysis, assignment of codes, data refinement, data cleaning and presentation and interpretation of the coded data. Data analysis was supported and managed through the employment of Atlas.ti (version 22) (Saldana, 2021). These tasks are explained in detail in the following sub-sections.

6.7.1 Preparing data for analysis

The recordings from the in-depth individual interviews and FGDs were imported for transcription (Ningi, 2022). These were duplicated verbatim from start to finish, including the introduction section. The transcriptions were conducted by the researcher on behalf of the independent coder who verified through listening to each transcription against each recording. Atlas.ti enabled the co-coder to link a section of text with the comparable audio. In this way, certain quotes can be played back many times which promote accuracy. Different types of documents were created such as GTA referring to Gauteng Tourism Authority, JTC referring to Johannesburg Tourism Company, GATOA referring to registered tour operators, JRA referring to registered resident associations, JHF referring to the Johannesburg Heritage Foundation, SATSA referring to the Southern Africa Tourism Services Association, IIs referring to individual interviews and FGD referring to the focus group discussion.

6.7.2 Coding, refining and data cleaning

According to Saldana (2021), coding is important for data analysis as it reduces and organises data into themes. Myers (2020) defines coding as the rendering of

a theme. This, according to Ningi (2022), implies analysing themes which dwell on identifying and describing implicit and explicit ideas. To enable analysis, the current study then applied the codes to raw data as summary highlighters (Saldana, 2021). To show that the codes were built clearly from the collected data, coding was open and inductive which promoted the researcher's understanding of the participants' responses (Charmaz & Thornberg, 2021). The codes were then interrogated and refined (Bekele & Ago, 2022) through comparing data with data, codes with other codes and data with the rendered codes (Charmaz & Thornberg, 2021). Through the aforementioned tasks, refinement of the coding frame was promoted in to integrate further. This allowed the consolidation of certain codes while others were expanded when it was realised that a certain category needs further division (Bekele & Ago, 2022). After this, coding and refinement of data were checked to ascertain whether there was a need for cleaning the data.

The coding strategies by Saldaña (2021) were employed to analyse the responses from the interviews and FGDs. Research questions, interview and FGDs questions guided the researcher in data reduction, coding and decoding analytic processes to analyse and interpret the data (Saldaña 2021: 8-10). The methods followed a circumstantial and repetitive empirical process: collection of data, recording of interviews and FGDs data and analysis of data. Moreover, coding terminology and procedures were applied throughout the data processing tasks where descriptive process and in vivo codes were created inductively, that is, data driven. In the first circle, a codebook of 274 codes was created. During the second circle, the codes were merged into 57 codes and nine categories coordinated with the objectives of the study from 380 quotations. This was enabled by the assistance of Atlas.ti version 22 (the latest version that was released in December 2021).

Atlas.ti increases value and elegance to the process of coding which was also supported by an audit trail for transparency during data analysis. The software content is described by Saldana (2021) as a strong worktable for analysing large-scale textual, audio, video and graphical data. For the current study, Atlas.ti 22 assisted in the exploration of the complex situation hidden in the data. The interview and FGDs responses were put into a container for all the data (the

project function) for ensuing coding. Ningi (2022) describes coding as the procedure of associating code words with segments of quotations, that is, the association between a quote in the text and a specific code. Coding lays the foundation for developing the analysis through linking data, data collection and data interpretation (Ningi, 2022).

The process of clustering codes into themes is explained in the following subsection.

6.7.3 Examples of how codes were merged to create themes in the study

To create themes for the purposes of this study, the following codes from the in-depth interview and FGDs data were clustered together. The process of clustering the codes is further explained next.

A) Theme 1 Assessing the current situation

Johannesburg brand - To be a leading international tourist destination of choice

Comment: by the independent coder

*2022/05/14 12:12:00, merged with Johannesburg as a world-class African city
2022/05/14 12:12:00, merged with Johannesburg branding the slogan is “enjoy another day in Johannesburg”
2022/05/14 12:12:39, merged with Johannesburg Tourism’s brand closely reflects the City’s (i.e. municipal*

B) Theme 2 Value of a cultural heritage

cultural heritage attractions in Johannesburg

Comment: by the independent coder

*2022/05/14 11:48:55, merged with cultural heritage museums art galleries clubs
2022/05/14 11:48:55, merged with cultural heritage_ lots of art galleries, museums, and craft centres.
2022/05/14 11:48:55, merged with cultural heritage is deteriorating_importance_arts_rituals*

C) Theme 3 Designing the branding strategy



○ **branding target**

Comment: by the independent coder

*2022/05/14 12:03:20, merged with no consultation in the branding process
2022/05/14 12:03:20, merged with complementing the city's slogan
2022/05/14 12:03:20, merged with branding through promotion
2022/05/14 12:03:20, merged with Johannesburg vision and values
2022/05/14 12:03:20, merged with branding through the media
2022/05/14 12:03:20, merged with branding To attract old and new visitors one needs to have a differentiated off
2022/05/14 12:03:20, merged with reasons for branding*

D) Theme 4 Implementing designed strategies



○ **branding is good for city marketing communications**

Comment: by the independent coder

*2022/05/14 12:04:55, merged with branding is not clear and difficult to interpret
2022/05/14 12:04:44, merged with branding involvement none
2022/05/14 12:04:44, merged with branding is confusing
2022/05/14 12:04:55, 2022/05/14 12:02:57, merged with through social media platforms, trade shows, and exhibition*

E) Theme 5 Monitoring progress of branding strategy



○ **values accountability, ownership,**

Comment: by the independent coder

*2022/05/14 12:02:57, merged with monitoring Tourism leaders in the City as well as key stakeholders
2022/05/14 12:02:57, merged with role involvement monitoring branding strategies
2022/05/14 12:02:57, merged with role involvement monitoring branding strategies -not sure
2022/05/14 12:02:57, merged with role involvement monitoring branding strategies marketing dept
2022/05/14 12:02:57, merged with The monitoring and evaluation team is mainly accounted for the strategy
2022/05/14 12:02:43, merged with monitoring
2022/05/14 12:02:43, merged with monitoring Group Marketing and Events Department officials
2022/05/14 12:02:43, merged with monitoring is unclear
2022/05/14 12:02:43, merged with monitoring It is not clear at all who is responsible
2022/05/14 12:02:43, merged with monitoring not sure
2022/05/14 12:02:43, merged with no monitoring
2022/05/14 12:05:43, merged with branding objectives
2022/05/14 12:05:43, merged with branding role showcasing the city
2022/05/14 12:06:10, merged with the importance of branding shows authenticity*

F) Theme 6 Assessing performance of branding strategy



○ global cities competing with Johannesburg

Comment: by the independent coder

2022/05/14 12:00:19, merged with the competition with Cape Town 2022/05/14 12:00:19, merged with competition cape town and international visitors 2022/05/14 12:00:19, merged with competition Cape Town and Kruger 2022/05/14 12:00:19, merged with competition NYC London Paris Tokyo 2022/05/14 12:00:19, merged with competition Other cities in the continent and globally 2022/05/14 12:00:19, merged with competition Pretoria Durban Cape Town

G) Theme 7 Views and perceptions of Johannesburg



○ a commercial and financial hub

Comment: by the independent coder

2022/05/14 11:56:01, merged with economic hub 2022/05/14 11:56:01, merged with gold discovery 2022/05/14 11:56:01, merged with Johannesburg as a centre for economic activities 2022/05/14 11:56:35, merged with A business and conference city. 2022/05/14 11:56:35 merged with A leading international destination for business, meetings, and incentives 2022/05/14 11:56:35, merged with City of Gold. Because it was formed from the discovery of gold 2022/05/14 11:56:35, merged with City planned vision Batho Pele principles 2022/05/14 11:56:35, merged with Colours of black and gold I think to link to the history of gold mining 2022/05/14 11:58:12, merged with Johannesburg as a shopping mecca 2022/05/14 11:58:12, merged with Johannesburg brand - A leading international destination for business, meetings, incentives 2022/05/14 11:59:10, merged with Johannesburg description economic hub

H) Theme 8 Suggestions for branding strategies



○ Awareness of city branding and its benefits

Comment: by the independent coder

2022/05/14 11:52:15, merged with branding assessment 2022/05/14 11:52:15, merged with branding importance 2022/05/14 11:52:15, merged with branding importance tourism 2022/05/14 11:52:15, merged with branding importance company reputation 2022/05/14 11:52:15, merged with branding Inspiring new ways. 2022/05/14 11:52:25, merged with Values Service excellence, caring, accountability, ownership 2022/05/14 11:51:27, merged with values include ongoing

*promotion of Joburg's features 2022/05/14 11:52:57, merged with framework
positive branding is important 2022/05/14 11:53:07, merged with framework
purpose to compete with the best 2022/05/14 11:51:55, merged with branding
importance for competition 2022/05/14 11:51:55, merged with branding importance
for global competitiveness 2022/05/14 11:51:55, merged with Branding importance
for good business 2022/05/14 11:51:55, merged with Branding importance for
international tourism 2022/05/14 11:52:47, merged with framework component
importance for consultation*

I) Theme 9 Significance and value of the suggested framework



o Flowchart importance

Comment: by the independent coder

2022/05/14 11:52:36, merged with framework usefulness 2022/05/14 11:51:55, merged with branding framework should be useful 2022/05/14 11:53:19, merged with branding framework applicable for crime and pandemic devastation 2022/05/14 11:59:41, merged with suggestions for a branding framework

The researcher grouped codes into nine groups, hereby referred to as themes in the literature and these are discussed next.

6.7.4 Selecting the themes

The current study has nine key themes that were identified from the transcriptions, and coding of interviews and FGDs conducted. Through the process of selecting the themes, the interview and FGD transcripts were clustered together, studied and identical codes were subsequently put under themes. Following that, nine main themes were identified for the purpose of this study as follows:

Theme 1: Assessing the current situation

The participants described Johannesburg as a tourist destination, how they view the city's cultural heritage resources and why they thought it was important to employ cultural heritage when branding the city. Participants also gave their views on what should be the city's vision and values, and how the city should plan to achieve the vision elaborating on whom it should be targeted. This emerging theme aided the researcher to understand the current situation regarding city branding in Johannesburg and what direction should be followed to carry out efficient and effective city branding projects.

Theme2: Value of cultural heritage

Participants explained how they view Johannesburg's cultural heritage resources. Participants also indicated the availability of a variety of cultural heritage attractions as a potential unique selling proposition for the city as it cannot be copied in any way. Hence, it forms a competitive advantage above the

other competing cities. From this theme, the researcher was able to understand what the CoJ's core values are or its competitive advantage is above the other cities.

Theme3: Designing the branding strategy

Participants described how they wanted the city brand to be and what the procedures of decision-making should be during the process. Participants further indicated how the Johannesburg brand should be complimented through a slogan or graphic or physical representation and that these should reflect the values of the city. This emerging theme assisted the researcher to understand how the process of brand development should be conducted and how the brand should be complimented using a slogan or physical representations.

Theme 4: Implementing designed strategy

Participants explained how the Johannesburg city brand should be presented to its target market effectively using the different city marketing communication tools available. This emerging theme facilitated the researcher to understand how the city brand should be efficiently and effectively presented to its target market.

Theme5: Monitoring progress of branding strategy

Participants elaborated on the need for appointing officials who will oversee the daily activities of the city branding project. This theme abetted the researcher to understand that appointment of officials responsible for monitoring the daily activities for the branding project is important.

Theme6: Assessing performance of branding strategy

Participants gave their views on how the CoJ should fair against competition and identifying the city's key competitors. This emerging theme enabled the researcher to understand who the city's key competitors are and how the city can capitalise on its competitive advantages against its competitors.

Theme 7: Views and perceptions of Johannesburg

Participants described how the CoJ's target market views the city. This emerging theme backed the researcher to understand how the city is viewed in its source markets to change the negative perceptions into positive ones.

Theme 8: Awareness of city branding and its benefits

Participants described the term 'city branding' and indicated its benefits. This emerging theme aided the researcher to understand whether participants were aware of what city branding is all about and what benefits it brings.

Theme9: Framework's value and utility

Participants described the usefulness and importance of the suggested framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination and its applicability to the city. This emerging crucial theme assisted the researcher to understand whether the participants agreed or disagreed that the suggested framework was a valid model for branding the CoJ which was the main objective of this research study.

6.7.5 Presentation of research findings

The current study had six secondary objectives of which the first four were theoretical; hence, were fulfilled in the literature chapters of the thesis. Theoretical secondary objective one was "to conduct an in-depth literature review on branding as a strategy of city marketing in a general context and in a cultural heritage context. This objective was attained in Chapter 2. The second theoretical secondary objective was "to evaluate international best practices of city branding." This objective was achieved in Chapter 3. The third theoretical secondary objective was "to analyse the current situation of city branding in Johannesburg." This objective was fulfilled in Chapter 4. The fourth theoretical secondary objective was "to capitalise on extant literature, elaborate on and suggest a framework for branding the CoJ." This objective was fulfilled in Chapter 5 with Chapters 2, 3 and 4 acting as supporting pillars.

The qualitative findings of this study were discussed in the following chapter under themes informed by the study's first empirical secondary objective, namely, "to empirically test the suggested framework for branding the CoJ." The objectives

dealt with the measurement of city stakeholders' perceptions on the suggested FBJ and comparing them with the findings from extant literature. Chapter 8 goes further and gives a discussion on the validation of the FBJ to achieve the primary objective of this research study. The following subsection explains how validity and reliability was achieved in the study to produce a quality doctoral thesis.

6.7.6 Validity and reliability of the research instrument

Ethical clearance for the current study was granted in January 2021 by the Research Ethical Committee in the College of Economic and Management Sciences and is found under Appendix A in the form of an ethical clearance certificate. To ensure quality research in social sciences, certain criteria should be followed. In qualitative research, validity and reliability is known to include credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability (Flick, 2014). These were considered throughout this research study and are explained below.

i) Credibility, according to Lune and Berg (2017), implies finding mutual understanding regarding what participants will say and representing their perceptions accordingly in a study. In research, credibility is realised when participants divulge suitable and adequate realities concerning an issue. For the purposes of this study, participants were purposefully selected because they are knowledgeable about city branding. According to Lune and Berg (2017), credibility was considered first through building rapport with the participants before interviewing them. This task was performed to promote trustworthiness between the participants and also reducing the likelihood of lying among participants. Participants were informed of their right to withdraw from the study whenever they felt so which reduced the participants' uneasiness, and hence were encouraged to be honest.

The triangulation nature of the study further reinforced the study's credibility through the employment of multiple sources of data collection (Lune & Berg, 2017). In support of these views, Creswell and Creswell Baez (2020) suggested four types of triangulation:

- Employing a variety of methods for data collection through interviews and FGDs (methodological triangulation).

- Employing different theories in a study that includes Prilenska (2012), Virgo and De Chernatony (2005), Merrilees et al, (2007), Balakrishnan (2009), Ofori (2010), Hanna and Rowley (2011) and Zenker (2011) (theoretical triangulation).
- Conducting interviews and FGDs with many participants in the study from the GTA, JTC, GATOA, JHF, SATSA and resident's associations (data triangulation).
- Involving many researchers in the study including the researcher, supervisors, peer review, and co-coder (researcher triangulation).

The researcher employed data or source triangulation where participants were destination stakeholders from the Johannesburg Tourism Company, registered tour operators in the city, senior managers from the GTA based in Johannesburg, senior managers from business organisations such as the SATSA, NGOs like the JHF and city residents.

The current study used peer review as a strategy to promote credibility. Lune and Berg (2017) suggest that peer review involves the use of a third party who does not take part fulltime in the study to examine notes and transcriptions obtained from participants to eliminate dishonesty and bias among researchers (Lune & Berg, 2017).

Trustworthiness is enhanced when more than one researcher identifies and analyses the research contents and when different researchers reach an agreement pertaining to the research. This study followed this suggestion by using different researchers and interviewing more people to get a wider perspective on branding the CoJ. This was conducted throughout the writing process of the research.

Lastly, validity was also ensured by combining the research findings and existing literature to develop a comprehensive framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination as a form of triangulation. In Chapter 8, Table 8.1 outlines persuasive evidence of validity as it provides the different components of the framework and their respective origins.

In-depth descriptions and verbatim quotes were employed to examine data in this study. Because qualitative research is synonymous with in-depth data that are detailed and descriptive and which also require transcribing, the recordings of the interviews and FGDs were transcribed word-for-word. The analysis of the Johannesburg situation regarding city branding (Chapter 4) gives detailed information about the city. The verbatim quotes are critical as they give the reader enough information to see themes and judge the findings, providing evidence for the findings and revealing the different perspectives. The researcher analysed the data question-by-question to meet the objectives of the study.

ii) Transferability is achieved through the collection of rich and deep data from the participants. Because qualitative research considers views and opinions of different participants, it does not generalise findings (Merriam & Grenier, 2019). Therefore, data collected from the participants (tourism city stakeholders) were not seen as representing the views and opinions of the population at large. However, the views of the participants gave relevant information concerning the perceptions of tourism city stakeholders regarding the suggested framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination.

iii) Dependability, according to Lune and Berg (2017), is compared to reliability in quantitative research (Lune & Berg, 2017) and it is the extent to which the findings can be replicated (Creswell & Creswell Baez, 2020). Dependability is judged by the quality with which the research is conducted, and data are analysed and presented (Creswell & Poth, 2018). To achieve dependability, the researcher ensured that each process in the study was reported in detail to enable the inquiry to be repeated and the same results achieved. With regards to this study, a pragmatic stance acknowledged that the views of the city stakeholders regarding the suggested framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination are a reality.

iv) Conformability in qualitative research is concerned with demonstrating that study results can emerge depending on the collected data (Myers, 2020). According to Cullen and Brennan (2021), conformability questions how the research findings are supported by the data collected. For the purposes of this study, conformability was achieved because the researcher did not have any bias

during the study. To test conformability, the researcher took an audit of the processes through which the decisions were made (see Section 8.6).

6.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical considerations are a critical part of any research; hence, ethical clearance (Appendices A) was attained to carry out the empirical part of this research to make sure that the study was managed by scholarly integrity and ethical conduct (Lune & Berg, 2017). Therefore, the researcher elaborated on and addressed ethical aspects that could surface from the study. This was crucial to protect the rights and interests of the Johannesburg City stakeholders who formed the unit of analysis of this research from which data were gathered. Certain ethical aspects were considered since the data were gathered directly from the city stakeholders. Therefore, aspects such as participants' rights, informed consent, indecorum, probable benefits, and risks were considered.

Firstly, the researcher sought permission to interact with tourism organisations/companies in and around the CoJ to interview and conduct FGDs with specific employees/members working for these organisations (Appendices G). The researcher sought permission to carry out research within the destination organisations through the organisations' respective management. The researcher contacted the managers/chairpersons via emails requesting for permission to interact with officials from their organisations/companies and confirm through telephone calls. No visits were conducted within the CoJ metropolitan area because of the Covid-19 regulations which did not allow face-to-face contact but rather were conducted telephonically or via Microsoft teams. This was done to familiarise the researcher with the study site/subjects and to create empathy with destination stakeholders who participated in the research.

When this was obtained, the next step was to apply for ethical clearance with the university. This was done through the College of Economic and Management Sciences' (CEMS) Research Ethics Committee. The committee approved the application prior to the commencement of the qualitative study with the decision: Ethics Approval from 2022 to 2026, ERC Reference: 2021_CRERC_051 (FA)(Appendices A).

Thirdly, interacting with participants via emails followed together with an informed consent. The latter involves participants being informed of the study to make informed decisions to accept or decline to participate in research (Merriam & Grenier, 2019). This included explaining why the research was being conducted, how it would be conducted, benefits of research, confidentiality, and withdrawal clauses of research. All participants needed to sign the consent form together with a witness that allows the researcher to interview them or to include them in the FGD before participating in the study (Appendices D). Hence, the researcher read the consent form for every participant on MS Teams before they could sign the consent form (Merriam & Grenier, 2019). The consent form was made of the following aspects:

- The goal of the research: A synopsis of the study background was given. Thereafter, an explanation of why the study will be undertaken was given.
- Study purpose: An explanation of how the study will be conducted was given. That is, the number of participants that were involved and assuring participants that the researcher will conduct the interview and focus group discussion alone.
- The researcher advised participants that the interviews and FGD will be recorded: interview and FGD proceedings will be recorded to allow the researcher to transcribe data for analysis. This is important because a recording device's presence alters the behaviour of participants.
- Confidentiality clause: Participants were guaranteed that their views would not be revealed to anyone.
- Withdrawing from the study: The researcher reminded participants that they will not be forced to answer any questions and that they could withdraw from participating in the research whenever they wished to do so.
- Potential benefits of the research: The potential benefits of research to organisations were summarised and outlined. This encouraged participants to take part in the study knowing how their organisations would benefit.
- Contact details of the study leader: The researcher reminded participants that they can contact the study leader for any clarity with regards to the study.

Lastly, the researcher assured participants that they would be furnished with the findings of the study in totality without any alterations.

6.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter described the research methodology employed to gather qualitative data to fulfil the objective of the research. The chapter clarified the research philosophy employed (i.e. constructivism/interpretivism with a bias towards pragmatism) as they allow participants to come up with different meanings of their life experiences and the adopted research approach (deductive with a bias towards inductive approach) adopted in the study. This approach promotes the building of new theory from the data into wider themes and to a generalised theory or model. The chapter then discussed the research design used in the research to fulfil the study's main objective within the boundaries of constructivism/interpretivism research philosophy and a pragmatic paradigm.

The research design was discussed and justified within the context of how the study's population was defined, and the sampling plan explained. A qualitative approach was followed as it is more flexible which enables the realisation of deep and rich data. To realise deep and rich data, the researcher employed case study research and grounded theory. This was further made possible by the use of purposive sampling to collect data from the city stakeholders who are knowledgeable about city marketing through interviews and FGDs. Subsequently, the chapter illuminated the ethical considerations observed during the qualitative research of the study, notably how access was negotiated with participant stakeholder organisations, and how the principles of informed consent and confidentiality were communicated to the prospective participants. The chapter then explained where and how data were collected, prepared and analysed with the assistance of Atlas.ti. Lastly, the chapter explained how the study's findings would be presented in Chapter 7, that is, under themes informed by the study's main objective.

The next chapter (Chapter 7) presents the findings of the study emanating from the procedures outlined above while Chapter 8 discusses the validity of the FBJ based on the results of the qualitative study.

CHAPTER 7:

QUALITATIVE DATA PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Literature review (Chapter 2, 3 and 4) authenticated the research need of this study. In Johannesburg, the lack of a framework that gives guidance on how to brand the city efficiently and effectively was justified in Chapters 1 and 5. Hence, this study developed the FBJ (Chapter 5) using the findings from the extant literature. This chapter's aim was, therefore, to apply the developed FBJ to the CoJ, which has been conducting a few branding projects of late. By so doing, the pertinence of the suggested FBJ was assessed so that its value is confirmed or rejected.

The framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination was tested using the results from the interviews and FGDs with city stakeholders in Johannesburg. This chapter presents significant patterns of themes that answer the research question, which the researcher has drawn out from the qualitative data. Identifiable units of meaning established theme accounts which were grouped according to larger units or major stages of opinions and perceptions. Where the words of city stakeholders are quoted verbatim (presented in italic type), no attempt has been made to correct their language usage.

The data set coming from the 12 in-depth interviews and two FGDs were analysed and the main findings are explained in Section 7.2.

Figure 7.1 presents the flow diagram of Chapter 7 layout.

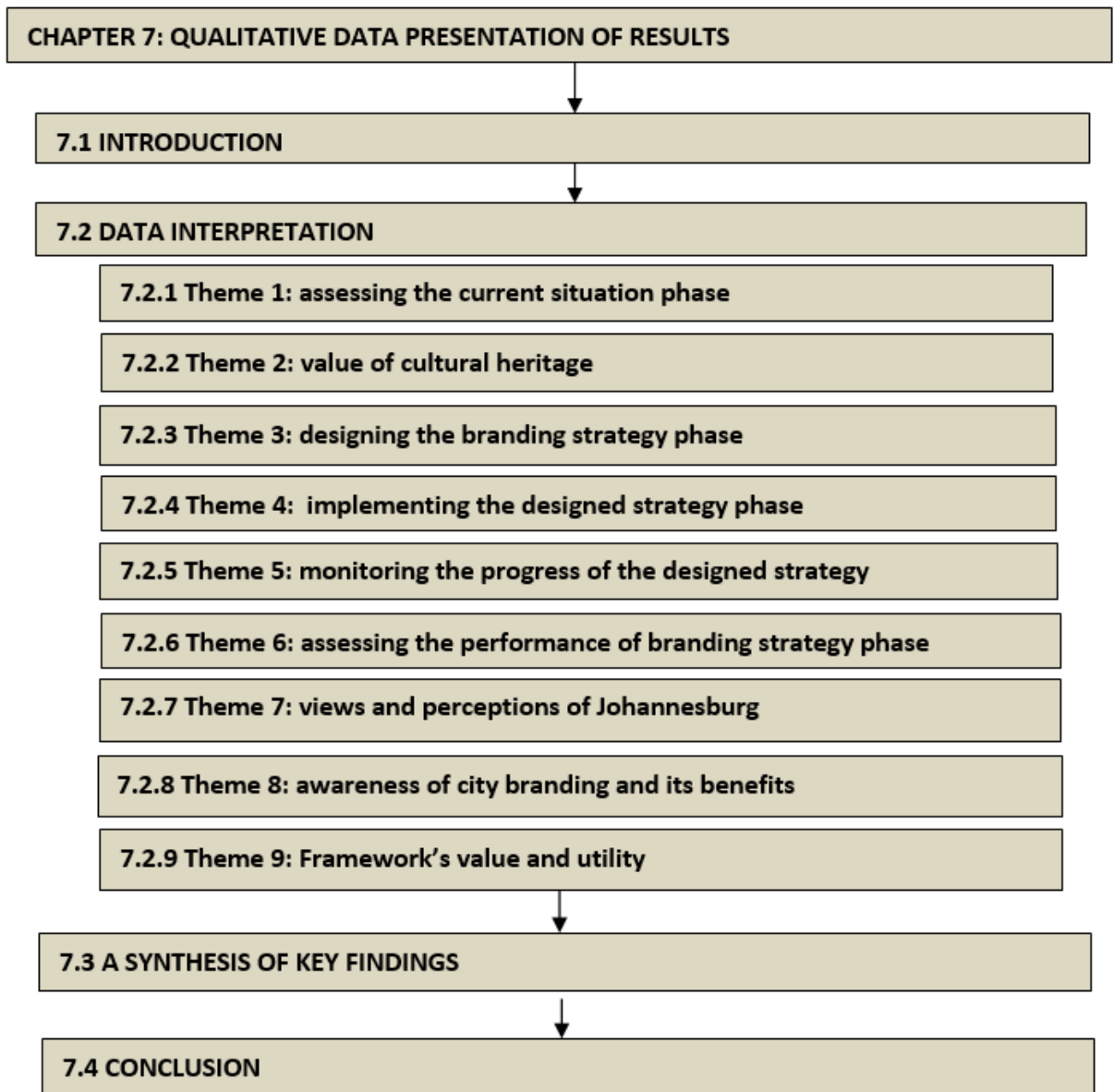


Figure 0.1: Flow diagram of Chapter 7 layout

7.2 DATA INTERPRETATION

Nine constructed themes have been elicited from the data analysis and some interpretations are discussed outlining the perceptions of city stakeholders regarding the suggested framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination. Data were interpreted and contextualised in light of the suggested framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination.

The nine main themes identified are:

- Assessing the current situation.
- Value of cultural heritage.
- Designing the branding strategy.
- Implementing the designed strategy
- Monitoring the progress of branding strategy.
- Assessing the performance of branding strategy.
- Views and perceptions of Johannesburg.
- Awareness of city branding and its benefits.
- Framework's value and utility.

Each theme has several sub-themes, which were interpreted separately. A summary of the categorised themes is given in Table 7.1.

Table 0.1: Summary of the main themes and sub-themes

Themes	Sub-themes
1.1 Assessing the current situation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Johannesburg brand - To be a leading international tourist destination of choice b. Johannesburg competition c. Johannesburg is a bad destination d. Johannesburg is vibrant and dynamic e. Johannesburg vision and values
1.2 Value of cultural heritage	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Cultural heritage attractions in Johannesburg b. Cultural heritage is deteriorating c. Cultural heritage is important for tourism
1.3 Designing the branding strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. No consultation in the branding process b. Complementing the city's slogan c. Johannesburg vision and values d. Overall CoJ vision e. Reasons for branding
1.4 Implementing the designed strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Branding is good for city marketing communications

Themes	Sub-themes
	b. The use of social media for branding purposes
1.5 Monitoring the progress of branding strategy	a. Officials accountable for the daily monitoring of the branding project
1.6 Assessing the performance of branding strategy	a. Global cities competing with Johannesburg
1.7 Views and perceptions of Johannesburg	a. Commercial and financial hub b. Negative perceptions c. Positive perceptions
1.8 Awareness of city branding and its benefits	a. City branding and its benefits
1.9 Framework's value and utility	a. Flowchart importance b. Framework suggestions c. Framework usefulness and importance

The main themes and sub-themes illustrated in Table 7.1 were explained in detail in the following sections and sub-sections.

7.2.1 Theme 1: assessing the current situation

Participants were asked specific questions about how they describe Johannesburg, and how they view the city's cultural heritage, why it is important to employ or consider cultural heritage in branding Johannesburg, what should be the city's vision and values. Participants were further asked how the city should plan to achieve this and indicate to whom the vision should be targeted. The following sub-sections present the perceptions of participants regarding the current situation on branding in Johannesburg.

7.2.1.1 Johannesburg brand – To be a leading international tourist destination of choice

Participants expressed their simple or full agreement on the Johannesburg brand that it should be a leading world-class destination of choice. Most participants alluded to the fact that Johannesburg should be a leading tourist destination of choice in Africa. Two participants argued as follows:

“To be a leading international tourist destination of choice.” (P111).

“World-Class African City.” (P65)

This opinion verifies suggestions of literature (for instance, Haarhoff and De Klerk (2019; Scholvin, 2022), which propose that Johannesburg is one of the top three tourist destinations in South Africa coming after Cape Town and Durban. Their sentiments are supported by CapeTalk (2022) who indicated that Johannesburg is number 61 in the current global city ratings whereas Cape Town features in the top ten of the world’s best destinations in the world.

7.2.1.2 Johannesburg competition

Regarding Johannesburg’s competition, participants expressed shared agreement that the city should be doing well against its main competitors such as Cape Town and Durban in terms of attracting visitors to stay for long in the city. Six participants argued as follows:

“I think it is not doing well. If you look, Cape Town and Durban are doing far much better.” (P29).

“Other metropolitan municipalities like Durban and Cape Town.” (P51).

“I think it is still lagging behind Cape Town and Durban as tourist destinations.” (P64).

“Cape Town and Durban.” (P52).

“Cape Town is quite effective as a city and brand; hence it is the biggest competitor for Johannesburg.” (P29).

“Not as expected since many challenging issues such as crime, ageing infrastructure, sporadic xenophobic attacks on foreign nationals paint the city’s bad picture and fails to deliver services. I think Durban and Cape Town are better placed as tourist destinations than Johannesburg.” (P76).

These opinions are in line with the suggestions of literature, for instance Haarhoff and De Klerk (2019) report that in South Africa, Cape Town is the leading tourist destination boasting of its scenic beauty, celebrity beaches, Table Mountain, whale-watching, world-class shopping, food, wine, nightlife and a laid back atmosphere. It is followed by Durban which is known as a world city which caters for sun lovers as it is known for its sunny weather, golden beaches and some of the best surfing spots in the world and then Johannesburg comes third as a city

of endless opportunities for shopping, entertainment and business. Their views are supported by CapeTalk (2022) which indicated that Cape Town makes the top ten lists of best travel destinations in the world.

7.2.1.3 Johannesburg is a bad destination

Regarding the image of the CoJ, participants expressed shared and contradicting perceptions and opinions. Some participants agreed that the city should be viewed positively in source markets unlike being viewed negatively as a destination owing to the high levels of violent crime, deteriorating infrastructure and attractions and outbreaks of diseases. However, other participants believed Johannesburg should be a vibrant and interesting city as it hosts a variety of attractions and activities. One participant argued as follows:

“Not really as the city is viewed as dangerous in other countries and even South Africa.” (P54).

Her sentiments were supported by another participant who also indicated that she was frustrated at the state of the infrastructure, and deteriorating cultural heritage attractions around the city:

“.... interesting, friendly, varied, gusty people, fast exciting, bold, tough. But also decaying and degenerating and difficult to get around without transport; crumbling infrastructure and all that the JRA is responsible for is a disgrace, and the cultural heritage assets have been dismally and shamefully ignored by the city.” (P13).

Another participant brought in the idea that Cape Town and Durban were Johannesburg’s close competitors and that they were doing much better in attracting visitors:

“I think Johannesburg is not doing enough because it is still viewed as a bad destination. However, Cape Town and Durban are its close competitors, and they are doing well as tourist destinations.” (P200)

However, some city stakeholders still believe that the city should be viewed well in certain source markets as mentioned by another participant: *“Some people view it as a bad destination while some view it fairly well” (P142).* The bottom line is that the city is mainly viewed as a bad destination which calls for action to revitalise the city in the target markets.

These perceptions are in line with suggestions of literature, especially Malovha and Adinolfi, (2018), Opfermann (2020), WHO(2020), and Malleka *et al.* (2022), but stressing that Johannesburg is also known as a city associated with very high levels of crime, economic maladministration, outbreaks of pandemics such as HIV and AIDS and most recently COVID-19. Furthermore, these scholars indicated that tourists earmarked the city owing to its reputation as a crime-riddled city. Hence, the tourists spend more money and time in other peaceful destinations other than Johannesburg. Therefore, the city is losing what would be income at the expense of other destinations around the country. According to Amsterdam Marketing (2014), when a city is viewed as bad in source markets, it should revitalise its brand so that it will be able to attract visitors to stay for long within its jurisdiction.

7.2.1.4 Johannesburg is vibrant and dynamic

Participants expressed shared and contradicting perceptions regarding the city as a vibrant and dynamic destination owing to its benefits to residents, investors and visitors. Participants agreed that the city was the economic hub of the country and continent at large, caters for a diversity of people and has a rich history and heritage. However, some participants indicated that the city was also in a bad state of decay. Three participants argued as follows:

“Johannesburg is the economic hub of South Africa and springboard to African markets and the world at large.” (P42).

“Visit, work and play the idea is around a destination that caters for a diversity of people where they can stay, visit, work and play.” (P37).

“It’s a city full of history and heritage and also it is the economic hub of both the country and the continent.” (P103).

However, another participant raised an issue regarding the need to develop tourism infrastructure, refurbish existing attractions and establish new attractions to cater to visitors’ needs, unlike only concentrating on selling the city to the target market as he argued as follows:

“The City of Johannesburg is a diverse and fascinating place. However, it is also in a bad state of decay. Roads are potholed, litter lines the streets, clogged storm drains, and basic maintenance is lacking. In my opinion, a city needs to look good and function effectively for its residents before it

can successfully market itself as a tourist destination. Just focusing on selling Johannesburg to tourists, therefore, is short-sighted. The city needs to pull itself together on a fundamental level before becoming a desirable destination for visitors. It is also a difficult city to navigate with many different districts, large distances and poor public transport routes. Therefore, I think more should be done to develop tourist districts and attractions, which can be marketed more effectively. Just sending marketing teams to expensive international tourism conferences and trade shows does not improve the situation on the ground. So, I would encourage more spending on developing and packaging new tourism products, experiences and infrastructure than only focusing on marketing what is already there (and often in a poor state of repair).” (P320-321).

The views expressed by the interview and focus group participants concerning the city as an economic hub confirmed those found in the literature (Matiza, 2020), that Johannesburg is a business destination. The opinions expressed by the participants that the city offers an extraordinarily rich history and heritages are in line with suggestions of literature, especially those suggested by Saarinen and Rogerson (2016). However, the opinions expressed by participants that the city is in a bad state of decay validate suggestions of literature (Opfermann, 2020) that highlighted the deteriorating infrastructure in the city.

7.2.1.5 Johannesburg vision and values

Regarding the city’s vision and values, participants expressed contradicting perceptions and opinions. Some participants indicated that the city should aim at creating a leading business destination in the continent, some were not aware of what the city’s vision and values should be, while others indicated that the city should aim at improving the human and social realities of residents. Four participants argued as follows:

“To create a customer-oriented city. To create Africa’s leading business tourism destination.” (P11).

“As we are not involved, we cannot say how the vision will be achieved.” (P17).

“Improve human and social realities by reducing poverty and enabling self-sustainability. Unfortunately, the vision was not achieved due to inequality

in the country and the failure of the government to implement strategic projects that may ensure transformation.” (P44).

“I cannot answer these questions, as I do not know what the values are. If the city were serious about the role that arts, culture and heritage could play, they would, before it is too late, revitalise Museum Africa (a disgrace), Johannesburg Art Gallery (even more of a disgrace) ...When I have been into the inner city recently, I have been deeply saddened by the further shocking decay – non-existent pavements, potholes, stinking water everywhere, people living in dire conditions, open maintenance holes, etc.” (P15).

As discussed in Chapter 2, every city or destination needs to know which direction it is going (Balakrishnan, 2009). These opinions are in line with the suggestions of literature, especially Matiza (2020) who advocates for Johannesburg to be marketed as a business destination, However, Balakrishnan (2008), Ruzinskaite (2015) and Morrison (2019), all suggested that there should be collaboration of all stakeholders and their interests when drawing up the city’s vision and values. These scholars suggested that the city’s vision should be the output of all city stakeholders. However, the preceding contradictions highlighted that the city should encourage collaboration of all the city stakeholders when drawing up the city’s vision and values.

7.2.2 Theme 2: value of cultural heritage

Participants were asked two questions about how they view the city’s cultural heritage and why it is important to consider cultural heritage when branding the CoJ.

7.2.2.1 Cultural heritage attractions in Johannesburg

Regarding cultural heritage attractions in the city, participants expressed full agreement that the city should offer a variety of cultural heritage experiences to its visitors as it hosts a plethora of cultural heritage attractions. Four participants argued as follows:

“Very rich and diverse from townships, nightclubs, museums, craft shops and art galleries.” (P374).

“The city has a rich and diverse cultural heritage resource base from the earliest inhabitants at the Cradle of Humankind, museums, art galleries, clubs, human settlements, and art and craft markets.” (P254).

“Cultural heritage is particularly important part of our history because it holds important tangible and intangible assets about our history which should not be lost to future generations. It holds traditions, performing arts, social practices, representations, rituals, knowledge, and skills transmitted from generation to generation within a community and Johannesburg has plenty of these.”(P56).

“Rich cultural heritage that includes museums, art galleries, townships and so on.” (P57).

These perceptions and opinions are in line with the suggestions of literature, especially Butler and Ivanovic (2016), who suggest that Johannesburg offers a variety of cultural heritage attractions and visitors should be reminded of what the city offers to cultural heritage tourists. In the same vein, Saarinen and Rogerson (2015) support this view as they further give examples of such attractions that include Apartheid Museum, Hector Pieterse Memorial and Museum, the Constitution Hill and many others.

7.2.2.2 Cultural heritage is deteriorating

Regarding the deterioration of cultural heritage attractions, participants expressed their full agreement that the CoJ should consistently maintain and develop its rich cultural heritage resources. Four participants expressed great concern at the deteriorating cultural heritage attractions in the city:

“It is not well managed, there are no indicators and proper programmes to manage the area, thus, Johannesburg cannot claim to be doing better in something they cannot measure.” (P73).

“It is deteriorating and not well managed, thus, Johannesburg is not doing better in something they have in abundance.” (P86).

“That is Johannesburg’s competitive edge above its competitors, but it is neglecting it. During apartheid, the city was a centre of a lot of uprisings and battles against the oppressors. Surely, this is authentic to the city alone and no one can copy it.” (P88).

“Both the authorities and visitors often neglect Johannesburg cultural heritage. This is a pity because the city is rich in history, diversity and

culture. We should be prouder of who we are as a city and celebrate our unique heritage. Unfortunately, things are so run down at the moment, that it is hard to feel proud in this once-thriving metropolis.” (P343).

The perceptions expressed by the interview and focus group participants confirmed those found in the literature, especially Kasapi and Cela (2017), who assert that some cities are progressing while others are stagnant or are dilapidated. This was also highlighted by Mbhiza and Mearns (2014) when they contend that it is surprising that Johannesburg has not yet taken advantage of what it offers to the cultural heritage tourist. According to Dai *et al.* (2022), city marketers often overlook the point that successful destinations have almost always a unique story to tell and a unique selling proposition, either natural or manmade. The authors went on to give examples of destinations such as Greece, Italy and Egypt which have leveraged their cultural heritage and employed it as a marketing strategy to brand themselves, therefore, setting themselves apart from other competing destinations.

7.2.2.3 Cultural heritage is important for tourism

Regarding the importance of cultural heritage for tourism, participants expressed their full agreement that cultural heritage attractions in Johannesburg should be crucial for tourism in the city and should be used as the city’s unique selling point. Three participants argued as follows:

“The city has a variety of cultural heritage attractions which I think can be the city’s competitive advantage.” (P37).

“The city has a rich cultural heritage resource with the potential to sustain cultural tourism for many years when well taken care of.” (P61).

“It is important because cultural heritage is part of the great offering in the city.” (P62).

The other participants went further and highlighted how the CoJ should capitalise on the rich cultural heritage resources in beating its close competitors for visitors. In this regard, two participants argued as follows:

“Through cultural heritage, the city can offer something different from other cities which can help it shrug off competition.” (P213).

“It is important because cultural heritage is part of the great offering in the city, and it should enable the city to set itself apart from other competing cities.” (P146).

These perceptions and opinions are in line with the suggestions of literature, especially Ciuculescu and Luca(2022), that cultural assets and resources have been used to create economic, social and cultural prosperity in a globally competitive environment in which the economic outlook is very much unpredictable. In situations like these, cities adopt strategies to exploit their resources, such as history and cultural events. Dai *et al.* (2022) argue that cultural heritage can be used to form a city’s identity and to promote the city’s image to target markets and determine visitors’ decision-making and destination choice. Nobre and Sousa (2022) allude to these views when they articulate that cultural heritage increases the quality of life for local people and tourists and attracting visitors to the city.

7.2.3 Theme 3: designing the branding strategy phase

Participants were asked questions about what Johannesburg’s brand should be and what they thought the procedures of decision-making should be. Participants were further asked to elaborate on how the Johannesburg brand should be complemented through a slogan or graphic or physical representation and whether these reflect the values of the city.

7.2.3.1 No consultation in the branding process

Regarding consultation of city stakeholders during branding, participants expressed full agreement. Participants agreed that they should be consulted by the city regarding branding projects in the city. Two participants expressed great concern about the city consulting them during the branding of the city as they argued that:

“No involvement in or awareness of this initiative.” (P39)

“As an organisation, we do not have a direct influence on the branding of Johannesburg but indirectly we believe whatever we do influences the brand of the city. Apart from There is nothing we can do as we are not consulted regarding the branding process.” (P6)

This opinion supports suggestions of literature for instance, Zhao *et al.* (2022) that city brands are embedded in the local society and culture and co-created and unified by social actors. These social actors include residents as informal, authentic and reliable sources of destination marketing and are also active proponents of destination branding. Zhao *et al.* (2022) propose that city stakeholders must transform from being passive targets to active co-creators in the city branding process. Golestaneh *et al.* (2022) assert that city stakeholders' emotional commitment, place attachment and satisfaction with the city are the most important goals of city marketing and represent the key to the success of city branding. Moilanen (2015) avers that when city stakeholders do not embrace the city brand, the branding project will fail. Therefore, city stakeholders should be involved throughout the city branding process.

7.2.3.2 Complementing the city's slogan

Regarding complementing the city's slogan, participants expressed shared perceptions and opinions. Participants indicated that the city's slogan should not be difficult to interpret and confusing. Two participants argued as follows:

“Regarding the city's slogan, it is exceedingly difficult to interpret especially in the layman's mind. It is confusing to tell what the slogan link with what the city has to offer.” (P20).

“It is confusing because the city host business and leisure events, yet the slogan is mentioning something else that does not link with it.” (P55).

These opinions and perceptions are in line with the suggestions of literature. For instance, Amsterdam Marketing(2014) advocates for the creation of a unique and flexible motto or slogan that complements city branding and easily connects with any industry or sector in the city. According to Pike (2014), it becomes difficult to differentiate cities and suggests that slogans and logos should highlight the connection of brand identities that DMOs want to create and the brand image held by visitors. His views are supported by Mujoma (2012) when he reiterates that the slogan must be simple, memorable and stand out from competitors to stimulate a positive emotional response.

7.2.3.3 Johannesburg vision and values

Regarding Johannesburg vision and values, participants expressed shared and contradicting perceptions and opinions. Some participants thought the city's vision and values should be a business city, others thought quality service delivery and improved social life of residents while others were simply not sure of these values. Five participants argued as follows:

“To create a customer-oriented city, Africa’s leading business tourism destination. I am not sure as the city is regarded as the most dangerous because of crime.” (P11).

“I think it is a business city and as to how they plan to achieve this is difficult to say.” (P13).

“To contribute to the city’s motto of “Service with Pride” by being responsive to the needs of the community; through regional coordination, integration, monitoring, and enforcement of service delivery standards at the grassroots level within communities thereby ensuring a clean, green, healthy and safe urban environment. It has not been achieved 100% but it is working towards that.” (P40)

“Improve human and social realities by reducing poverty and enabling self-sustainability. The vision was not achieved due to inequality in the country and the failure of the government to implement strategic projects...” (P44)

“To my knowledge, nothing is complimenting the brand because the city has a logo of towers which does not reflect what it competitively offers on the market.” (P).

Another participant brought up an interesting view as she stated that they were not sure of what the values of the city should be:

“I cannot answer these questions, unfortunately, as I don’t know what the values are...” (P15)

The opinions and perceptions are in line with suggestions of literature, especially Morrison (2019), who indicated that when a city is not aware of its strengths, successful city branding becomes an unattainable initiative. Zhao (2012) asserts that successful cities are those that are aware of and employ locally orientated sources of competitive advantages as their unique selling point. Braun (2012)

supports these views when he states that cities need to be marketed correctly using features that truly describe their image in the eyes of visitors.

7.2.3.4 Overall City of Johannesburg vision

Regarding the overall city vision, participants expressed contradicting perceptions and opinions. A world class city and business destination were suggested as what the overall city vision should be by the participants. Four participants argued as follows:

“The city is referred to as a World-Class African City but when you look at the dilapidated buildings and the state of the infrastructure in the city it shows that we are far from being a World-Class African City. We can say that it has the potential to be like that.” (P11).

“To create Africa’s leading business tourism destination. I am not sure as the city is regarded as the most dangerous because of crime.” (P13).

“The vision for Johannesburg is to position the metropolis as leading, global, all-year-round destination for business and leisure... Although Johannesburg continues to achieve accolades on various rankings, this vision remains a work in progress, as there is always room for improvement.” (P37).

“On paper it is targeted at the poor and in reality, people in the periphery are not benefiting from the implemented programmes ...” (P49)

These opinions and perceptions are in line with suggestions of literature, especially Morrison (2019), who proposes that the vision of the city should be accepted across all the sectors of the industry in the city. A situation where city stakeholders hold differing views with regards to the city’s vision is testimony to confusion and disagreement. This leads to the failure of the branding project.

7.2.3.5 Reasons for branding

Regarding reasons for branding, participants expressed their simple or full agreement that the city brand should not be confusing as for the small proposition believe that it is a world class city while others opine that it has the potential to be a world class city. These sentiments are pointing to a brand that is not clear to the target market. A participant argued as follows:

“Since the city’s brand is not clearly defined, it is hard to say that its objectives have been achieved. What is clear is that tourists do not feel

compelled to spend time in Johannesburg beyond their immediate needs that is, transit, business etc.” (P338).

These opinions expressed by the participants confirmed those found in the literature (for instance, Amsterdam Marketing, 2014), who suggested that a city's brand should be clearly defined and accepted by city stakeholders and the target market alike. This affects its success in attracting the target market because it is viewed differently from what it represents.

7.2.4 Theme 4: Implementing designed strategy phase

Participants were asked a question about how the Johannesburg city brand should be presented to its target markets. The question enabled the realisation of how the city brand should be implemented.

7.2.4.1 Branding is good for city marketing communications

Regarding if branding is good for city marketing communications, participants expressed contradicting perceptions and opinions. Participants suggested that the city slogan should not be difficult to interpret, and that the city should design a slogan that can be used across all the sectors and representing the various stakeholders in the city. Two participants argued as follows:

“Sort of, but they are very difficult to interpret especially in the layman's mind.” (P20).

“I cannot find a consistent brand identity or slogan that is used across the various stakeholders (e.g. CoJ website and Gauteng Tourism websites do not seem to coordinate their efforts). The Joburgtourism.com website also is defunct even though its Facebook page is active.” (P326)

Another participant expressed that he was not aware of how the city should be presented to its target market at all when he said:

“I am not aware, and this demonstrates that the strategy is not being effectively communicated to the target market.” (P73).

These opinions are in line with the suggestions of literature. Ruzinskaite (2015) suggest that the target market should be able to recognise the city slogan or logo without difficulty or confusion. In other words, she suggests that the city slogan or logo should be easily recognised in the prospective visitors' minds. Hence,

participants suggested that the CoJ should design a city brand that has a slogan or logo that is easy to interpret.

7.2.4.2 The use of social media for branding purposes

Participants expressed their simple or full agreement that the city should be using social media and the physical versions of the city slogan or logo to present the city brand on the market. Participants argued that the entire city's promotional material should be featured on social media. Three of the interview and focus group participants argued as follows:

“Through social media platforms, I don't think the city has been successful in doing so.” (P25).

“I am not sure, but I have seen some promotional material on social media. The city has not been successful in this regard.” (P22).

“Through social media platforms, brochures and exhibitions and trade show.” (P203)

However, some participants agree that the view of using brochures, exhibitions, trade shows and social media alone is not enough to reach out to numerous people; hence, cities should also make use of physical versions of their slogans. They suggested the employment of billboards on streets in the city to reach out to the ordinary people who cannot access social media. Three participants alluded to this fact as they argued as follows:

“A lot of it is done through the media. However, the media is not accessible to everyone; hence, it is myopia.” (P23).

“Possibly not and they are using social media which people do not use often, they must rather use billboards and stuff on the streets.” (P32).

“I see on social media there are some promotional materials but what about an ordinary person in the street, there is nothing to remind them about Johannesburg.” (P70).

The opinions expressed by the interview and focus group participants with regards to presenting the city brand to the market confirmed those found in the literature. For instance, Tran and Rudolf(2022) highlight that the tourism industry and travel businesses have been investing on social media platforms in the quest to attaining increased and improved promotion and communications. The authors

further elaborate that a single click on the social networks reaches out to a broader audience and has an incredible impact on the destination. Similarly, Skinner *et al.* (2022) support this view as they believe that social media focuses on connecting with audiences or city visitors to better understand the city brand and provides the most cost-effective and varied way of marketing destinations. Hence, cities should use social media platforms (such as Facebook, Instagram, online forums, Telegram, Travel blogs, WeChat, YouTube, and Trip Advisor) to communicate their brand to the target markets (Tran & Rudolf, 2022). Amsterdam Marketing (2014) promoted the city through social media and designed physical versions of the slogan and promoted the city brand through billboards which were erected on the streets and everywhere. This proved to be an effective way of promoting the city brand because not all the prospective visitors can access social media.

7.2.5 Theme 5: Monitoring the progress of the implemented strategy phase

Participants were asked the question about who should be responsible for the constant and continuous monitoring of the branding strategy for the city. During literature review, it was revealed that branding projects require close monitoring; hence, officials should be assigned to do this (Amsterdam Marketing, 2014).

7.2.5.1 Officials accountable for the constant and continuous monitoring of the branding project

Regarding officials accountable for the constant and continuous monitoring of the branding project, participants expressed full agreement. Participants indicated that the city should appoint officials who will be responsible for constant and continuous monitoring the branding activities in the city. Five participants argued as follows:

“I will be truly lying; I am not sure if there are there though it is assumed they are there.” (P26).

“I am not sure maybe the marketing department.” (P49).

“I am not aware of who exactly, but I think there is someone responsible for the monitoring of the brand.” (P123).

“The monitoring and evaluation team is mainly accounted for the strategic implementation and its targeted outputs.” (P59).

“Tourism leaders in the city as well and key stakeholders.” (P46).

These opinions resonate with the suggestions from reviewed literature as suggested by Amsterdam Marketing (2014), that the city should appoint officials who are going to monitor the implemented strategies daily. Extant literature (Chapter 2) suggests that branding is a complex exercise which requires constant and continuous monitoring as there are new cities being created and that visitor preferences are constantly changing. If this is not detected in time, city branding will not be a success. In addition, Sotiriadis (2021) asserts that managing and directing the implemented strategy implies the city instructing, guiding and overseeing the performance of the implemented strategy. Morrison (2019) also supports this view when he accentuates that determining roles, responsibilities and relationships means building a roadmap for achieving the goals set and clearly communicating the city’s implementation plan to avoid confusion.

7.2.6 Theme 6: assessing performance of the branding strategy phase

Participants were asked two questions about how the Johannesburg city brand should flair against competition and state the city’s competitors. These questions allow the assessment of the progress of the branding strategy employed by the city. However, regarding this question, not much was said by the participants during the qualitative study which points out the fact that the city is not doing well against its close competitors.

7.2.6.1 Global cities competing with Johannesburg

Regarding global cities competing with Johannesburg, participants expressed full agreement. They believe that Cape Town and Durban are Johannesburg’s key competitors and are doing far better than the city in terms of attracting visitors to stay for long. Participants mentioned this view as two participants argued as follows:

“Johannesburg has a tough job competing against South Africa’s better known tourism offerings – especially Kruger and Cape Town. Even so, Johannesburg’s marketing leaves a lot to be desired as there is no core focus and a lack of compelling tourism ‘must-sees’...” (P335).

“Cape Town and Durban are their competitors I suppose as they are doing well as tourism destinations.” (P200).

These opinions substantiate suggestions of literature (for instance, Malovha & Adinolfi, 2018; Opferman, 2020), who attest that the CoJ is exposed to very tough competition from other South African cities such as Cape Town and Durban. The city’s competitors are capitalising on the crime situation in the city as the city is failing to attract visitors to stay for long in its jurisdictions.

7.2.7 Theme 7: Views and opinions of Johannesburg

Participants were asked two questions about how Johannesburg’s target markets should view the city brand. This question prompted what perceptions visitors should have about the city. Visitors’ perceptions about the city’s image are very important (Ruzinskaite, 2015). According to Ofori (2010), through visitors’ perceptions, a city can determine the perspective of personal satisfaction, media messages and/or word-of-mouth on the city brand performance, as was the case of Amsterdam which had a bad image in source markets and later managed to change it into a prosperous brand. Visitors’ perceptions are crucial because they contribute to services, city marketing and city brand perception (Balakrishnan, 2008). Visitors will associate themselves with the physical structures, services offered, behaviour of local people and infrastructure in the city. These are the symbols that identify the city and people’s comments about the city. “IAMsterdam” is seen as a successful campaign because the motto aligns easily with all the stakeholders in the city (Amsterdam Marketing, 2014). This is supported by studies by Merrilees *et al.* (2007), Balakrishnan (2009), Zenker (2011) and Hanna and Rowley (2011), who underscore the importance of visitors’ perception of the city brand as crucial to the successful branding of the city. They buttress that residents need to identify, adopt and align with the brand of their city so that they can inform the world about it (Balakrishnan, 2009). In other words, a city must be attractive to its own residents before it can attract visitors from outside, hence the CoJ should assess its customers from time to time with regards to successful branding (Merrilees *et al.*, 2007).

7.2.7.1 Commercial and financial hub

Regarding the city as a commercial and financial hub, participants expressed their simple agreement that the city should be a commercial and financial hub for the country and continent at large. Five participants argued as follows:

“It is the economic hub of Africa, vibrant, diverse, cosmopolitan and where everything impossible to dream and achieve.” (P111)

“It is a myriad of sentiments; some perceive it as a shopping Mecca, economic hub and in the same vein, not a safe destination.” (P131)

“It is the economic hub of Africa, a vibrant, diverse, cosmopolitan city.” (P48)

“A leading international destination for business, meetings, incentives, conventions and events.” (P53)

“The hub of economic activities for the province, country and the continent, however, very filthy with deteriorating infrastructure, high levels of crime and overcrowding.” (P62)

“A commercial and financial hub; vibrant and diverse which attracts residents and visitors across the world.” (P198)

These perceptions are in line with suggestions of literature, especially those suggested by Matiza (2020), that Johannesburg is regarded as the commercial and financial hub, and a gateway to the country and continent at large.

7.2.7.2 Negative perceptions

Regarding negative perceptions about the CoJ, participants expressed their full agreement that the CoJ should not be a bad destination because the city is viewed as dirty with bad infrastructure, poorly managed, high levels of violent crime and poor service delivery. Four participants during the empirical study argued as follows:

“The city is viewed as dirty, overcrowded, with bad infrastructure and a crime haven. Though the city is striving to achieve its objectives, not all objectives have been achieved yet.” (P53).

“Exciting, vibrant, busy, chaotic, unequal, very poorly managed, decaying infrastructure, grime, and dirty, friendly people, but underneath a layer of threat, too much poverty, weak governance, beautiful and ugly in parts, cultural heritage has been neglected almost entirely by the city/province

and state – look at what has happened to the Johannesburg Art Gallery, Liliesleaf etc. The city cannot enforce the protection of heritage sites.” (P42)

“Johannesburg is a city with diverse attractions, especially cultural heritage and has the potential to compete with other cities. However, the city like many other cities, has been brought down to its knees by COVID-19, high levels of crime, xenophobia, poor service delivery and probably poor branding strategies which are in place.” (P9).

“The Johannesburg city brand needs more to do away with perceptions that it is a crime destination and improve its infrastructure. However, the city has huge potential to do great compared to competitors around the country and the continent.” (P138).

These opinions are in line with suggestions of literature, especially those highlighted by Malovha and Adinolfi (2018) that besides being the economic hub for the country and the continent, Johannesburg is viewed as a city characterised by violent crimes (such as the recent lootings), corruption, xenophobia, prevalence of pandemics such as HIV/AIDS and most recently COVID-19 (WHO, 2020). Opfermann (2020) contends that these negative perceptions in the source markets reduce the number of visitors to the city and shorten the length of stay within the city’s boundaries which is not good for the city’s economic and social well-being. Hence, the city marketers should employ city revitalising strategies to change these negative perceptions into positive ones. However, because visitors’ views are not controllable or manageable by the city marketers but rather can be influenced to a certain extent through revitalising the city as an experience destination which offers prospective visitors what they anticipate to get when they visit the city (Prilenska, 2012).

7.2.7.3 Positive perceptions

Regarding positive perceptions about Johannesburg, the participants fully agreed that the CoJ should offer diverse experiences that include cultural heritage and offers quality life for its citizens. Three participants argued as follows:

“Johannesburg is a vibrant city which offers diverse experience from a rich history, art, fashion, food experience and leading economic activities. It is the home of the cool kids, entrepreneurs with the real spirit of the hustle and the city of opportunities.” (P21)

“Johannesburg is an ageing city with an amazing mix of people from different cultural backgrounds. I can say it is a vibrant and dynamic city.” (P9)

“It is a combination of good, bad and ugly, a vibrant, equitable African city, strengthened through its diversity; a city that provides real quality of life; a city that provides sustainability for all its citizens.” (P360)

These opinions authenticate suggestions of literature, for instance, Balakrishnan (2009), who asserts that when a city’s stakeholders have positive associations with their city brand, this automatically strengthens the brand of that city. Therefore, it is of great importance that Johannesburg must pay attention to its visitors’ attitudes towards online comments and reviews since visitors take online reviews into consideration before deciding to visit any city (Benedek, 2018; Iglesias-Sanchez *et al.*, 2020).

7.2.8 Theme 8: Awareness of city branding and its benefits

Participants were asked the question concerning their understanding of the city marketing strategy ‘city branding’ to ascertain whether the participants understood city branding. In the extant literature, it was found that city stakeholders need to understand and embrace city branding for it to be successful.

7.2.8.1 City branding and its benefits

Regarding city branding and its benefits, participants expressed shared and contradicting perceptions and opinions. Participants agreed that they were aware of what city branding is and what its benefits should be. Two participants argued as follows:

“It provides a good reputation for your company, helps get customers easier and increases business value.” (P55).

“I suppose for tourism, creating interest in the city among investors, building pride and attracting visitors.” (P67)

These opinions corroborate suggestions from literature, especially Herstein and Berger (2014), who suggest that a quintessential brand is difficult to replicate, and city marketers should highlight the city’s unique attributes and consolidate them into their branding strategy. The authors’ state that branding promotes

differentiation and helps visitors to identify the city; hence, a unique city brand will help city visitors to choose which city to visit because no other city will be offering the same experiences. According to Zenker and Braun (2017), branding makes it easy for visitors to make decisions regarding which city to visit as tourists are most likely to visit destinations that are popular and where they had a memorable experience. Similarly, Ye and Bjorner (2018) concur with these sentiments when they stated that branding promotes visitor loyalty as it is the ultimate goal of branding because it promotes trust among visitors. According to Tasci *et al.* (2019), branding leads to improved visitation and recommendations to friends and relatives. The participants expressed that they were aware of what city branding was and they are knowledgeable about its benefits; hence, they believe that the CoJ can benefit from such a project.

These sentiments were alluded to by another participant who argued as follows:

“Branding allows a city to offer something different as opposed to its competitors which draws visitors.” (P77)

Participants agreed that city branding should enable a city to create competitive advantages against its competitors. Another participant argued as follows:

“I think it enables the city to create competitive advantages over its competitors, which brings in investors, residents and visitors.” (P207).

This opinion validates suggestions from literature, especially Joo and Seo (2017) who echo that branding ensures that a city realises competitive advantages against its competitors.

Participants fully agreed that branding should enable reigniting a city that is viewed as bad by prospective visitors. Another participant argued as follows:

“Johannesburg needs more like reigniting. The Johannesburg brand is well-known and easily recognisable. It needs to be revamped and presented afresh.” (P43)

This perception is in line with the suggestions of literature, especially Amsterdam Marketing (2014) when they suggested that when a city is viewed as bad in source markets, it should consider rebranding itself to attract visitors to come to its shores.

Participants fully agreed that different cities should offer different opportunities to visitors; hence, each city requires its own branding strategy. Another participant argued as follows:

“Every city has a personality and reputation. Branding a city can both support the positive connotations people have of a city, as well as counter the negative connotations. In either case, any marketing material must be credible and accurate. There is no point promoting a false narrative of a city as this will only alienate visitors and discourage positive word of mouth.” (P341).

This opinion validates suggestions from literature. For instance, according to Zenker and Braun (2017), competition for visitors is not the only reason for rebranding cities, neither is changing the negative perceptions about the city the reason cities must be branded but cities have different personalities and characteristics. Therefore, each city should be branded according to its characteristics.

Participants fully agreed that city branding cannot be achieved in isolation. It should be supported through investment in terms of infrastructure, human resources and finance. If there is no infrastructure to support the branding project, then it is bound to fail. Another participant argued as follows:

“In general, I think that focusing on marketing without considering the development and maintenance of tourist attractions is only half a solution. After two years of lockdown, many tourism providers are struggling and the city itself is looking very poor. The tourism authorities ignore this reality at their peril as no amount of spin is going to bring tourists in their numbers to a rundown city. As such, I would recommend that the authorities look at ways to shift some of their budgets away from pure marketing activities and into developmental initiatives. These could include engaging with property and landowners to develop new attractions, upgrading facilities at existing facilities, and creating an effective, free-to-access internet platform where the city’s tourism professionals can promote themselves and their products. Johannesburg has so much potential for tourists but now, it remains somewhat confounding to visitors. I would like to see more support for tourism practitioners so that they can streamline and upgrade their offerings, which will make the city more interesting and accessible for casual tourists. For example, I am currently working with City Parks to

develop hiking trails along the neglected Linksfield Ridge. Once this is complete, the ridge with its spectacular views could become a premier outdoor attraction for locals and visitors alike. It is this kind of thinking that will help improve the city's tourism offerings and unlock Johannesburg's vast potential.” (P353)

These opinions resonate with findings from literature, especially Ndlovu (2009), who avers that when carrying out any branding project, emphasis should be put on issues like improving the general infrastructure, developing or improving the state of tourism attractions in the city.

Table 7.2 illustrates the city branding suggestions which were discussed earlier.

Table 0.2: City branding suggestions

Quote	Quotation	Source
P58	“Inclusion of all the CoJ sub-brands mentioned before andres...”	Johannesburg Tourism Company Interview 1
P50	“Here we must make a distinction between the city's brand and its res...”	Johannesburg Tourism Company Interview 1
P67	“I suppose for tourism, creating interest in the city among investors...”	Resident Association Interview 2
P207	“I think it enables the city to create competitive advantages over its...”	Focus Group Discussion 2 Johannesburg Tourism Company
P123	“For it to be recognised easily and differently so that it becomes easy...”	Focus Group Discussion 1 Gauteng Tourism Authority
P77	“Branding allows a city to offer something different as opposed to its...”	Focus Group Discussion 1 SATSA
P38	“Values include ongoing promotion of Johannesburg's features...”	Johannesburg Tourism Company Interview 1
P68	“It is critical to have positive branding as it is the yardstick in measuring...”	Gauteng Tourism Authority Interview 3
P45	“I think that they are very applicable considering the crime situation...”	Gauteng Tour Operators Association Interview 2

Quote	Quotation	Source
P43	“Johannesburg needs more like reigniting. The Johannesburg brand...”	Gauteng Tour Operators Association Interview 1
P62	“This is informed by the desire to see the city doing better and continue...”	Gauteng Tour Operators Association Interview 3
P204	“Service excellence, caring, accountability, ownership and being innovative...”	Gauteng Tourism Authority Interview 1
P211	“Branding the city is crucial to distinguish from other destinations...”	Focus Group Discussion 2 GTA
P341	“Every city has a personality and reputation. Branding the city can be...”	Focus Group Discussion 1 GTA
P344	“So, they understand what tourists want and offer good customer service...”	Focus Group Discussion 1 Johannesburg Heritage Foundation
P18	“Inspiring new ways. It was chosen to shift the city from the old features...”	Resident Association Interview 3
P55	“It provides a good reputation for your company, helps get customers...”	Gauteng Tour Operators Association Interview 1
P353	“In general, I think that focus on marketing without considering the...”	Focus Group Discussion 2 SATSA

Source: Author

These views were highlighted by Moilanen (2015) when he avers that the public sector is not familiar with marketing and branding. Consequently, many stakeholders and individuals will reject it since they assume it to be too commercial. Moilanen (2015) further elaborates that many of these people view the process of branding as merely a logo developing process. As a result, they do not value their contribution to the city branding strategies. When city stakeholders understand city branding and its benefits, it is easy for them to embrace the initiative and when they embrace the city branding initiative, they

are able to act as city ambassadors which lead to successful city branding (Moilanen, 2015).

7.2.9 Theme 9: Framework's value and utility

Participants were asked questions about the usefulness and importance of the suggested framework in branding the CoJ. These questions enabled the establishment of whether participants had shared opinions and relative or full agreement that framework components were applicable to Johannesburg or not. A framework is a graphical or a narrative representation of the key factors, variables or concepts and the relationships that exist between them (Nilsen, 2015). It should guide the city marketers in branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination efficiently and effectively.

7.2.9.1 Flow chart importance

Regarding the flow chart importance, participants had shared opinions and full agreement that the suggested framework components should be applicable to the CoJ since it allows for consultation among city stakeholders, employs cultural heritage and allows for monitoring and assessment of the city brand's progress in the market. Four participants argued as follows:

"I think the components are applicable as the framework allows for consultation of all stakeholders, considers cultural heritage and also continuously assess the progress of the branding strategy, but they should be aligned to the strategic outcomes of the vision and the mission of the region which I am convinced they are aligned to sustainable development goals." (P81)

"It will be useful in that it demonstrates the growing interdisciplinary interest in the city and allows the consultation of many stakeholders and the use of cultural heritage for branding." (P72)

"I think it will add value to what the city is doing now, that is, improving infrastructure, managing cultural heritage resources well and being inclusive of all stakeholders." (P35).

"As the components broadly encompass all aspects of reviewing and assessing a brand, it would apply to the CoJ. However, it would need to include the relationship between the CoJ brands and the complementary brands used by different entities..." (P57)

These perceptions resonate with the findings from reviewed literature. For instance, Morrison (2023) proposes that all city stakeholders should embrace the city brand for city branding to be a success. The author further explained that in instances where this is not the case, then the branding project is bound to fail. Muzeza and Van Zyl (2018) reiterate the need for the CoJ to carry out rebranding of the city where the emphasis should be on promoting the city's cultural heritage resources. In the same vein, Viljoen and Henama (2017) concur that the CoJ could capitalise on its remarkable wealth of cultural heritage by branding the city as a cultural heritage destination, while simultaneously improving the economic and social well-being of the city and the country at large. This follows the fact that cultural heritage cannot be copied. In this regard, it will be unique to the city in question thereby promoting visitation and spending in the city (Nobre & Sousa, 2022). Maintaining the cultural heritage attractions in Johannesburg has been identified as a priority as the attractions are now in a dire state and this will inevitably affect the visitors' experience of the city (Mbiza & Mearns, 2014).

However, city branding should be supported by a well-developed and maintained infrastructure that will enhance the visitors' experience of the city. Therefore, Hussein (2020) postulates that developing the city's infrastructure is crucial during city branding as it enhances visitor experiences at the destination.

7.2.9.2 Framework suggestions

Regarding framework suggestions, participants expressed full agreement that the framework components are applicable to the city as it is experiencing high levels of violent crime, the city needs to be rebranded and it needs to attract visitors to stay for long. Four participants argued as follows:

"I think that they are very applicable considering the crime situation and the Covid-19 devastation the city needs to be rebranded effectively." (P45)

"Johannesburg needs more like reigniting. The Johannesburg brand is well-known and easily recognisable. It needs to be revamped and presented afresh." (P43)

"This is informed by the desire to see the city doing better and continue to compete among the best in the world." (P62).

"I suppose for tourism, creating interest in the city among investors, building pride and attracting visitors." (P67).

These opinions resonate with the findings of literature, especially Amsterdam Marketing (2014), which states that a situation where a city is viewed as negative in source markets contributes to the need for rebranding the city to attract visitors. All the international case studies reviewed in this study (Amsterdam, New York, and Cape Town) conducted rebranding strategies in response to their audit results. Former industrial cities have all conducted rebranding initiatives that were aimed at rejuvenating their city brands in the face of a decline in terms of economic activities, negative perceptions in source markets etc. (Kasapi & Cela, 2017). Rebranding strategies resulted in improved visitation of such cities and improved socio-economic well-being of city residents and city visitors (Belabas, 2023).

7.2.9.3 Framework usefulness and importance

Regarding the framework's usefulness and importance, participants expressed their full agreement that the framework should be useful and important to the CoJ. Eight participants argued as follows:

“A review of the city’s branding would be extremely useful indeed. This would need to extend to all entities which (like Joburg Tourism) have supplementary brands linked to the mother brand.” (P55)

“It would be particularly useful because, in the first instance, it would assist in performing an audit of the current status of the city’s branding. However, it would be more useful if it included a research component to establish a baseline with recognition and opinions by the target market(s).” (P56)

“It complements the work we currently doing regarding positioning the city well against competition.” (P65)

“Is a way to relook at what the city already uses or has. Also assist in keeping checks and balances in terms of assessing and monitoring brand performance.” (P75)

“Allows for consultation and seems useful – I like the focus on cultural heritage.” (P73)

“Because the city has a variety of cultural heritage attractions and also that the framework encourages consultation of stakeholders, I think it is very applicable to the city.” (P77).

“It also incorporates many stakeholders at the same time, and this will be adapted to their particular sector.” (P43).

“I think they are applicable because the city is not doing well and looking at the components, they will be suitable for the city since a lot of people are involved which promotes representation.” (P379).

City stakeholders should accept the city brand for it to be successful in the market. These perceptions and opinions are in line with the suggestions of literature, especially Nilsen (2013) who asserts that a framework serves as a guiding tool in the process of branding the CoJ and can also be amended to suit a certain situation, that is, other destinations. Ruzinskaite (2015) further highlights that a framework also allows the city marketing team to monitor the progress of the branding strategy and assess the effectiveness of the strategy. The perceptions of participants highlighted earlier support the findings from extant literature. Morrison (2023) accentuates that assessing the current situation is crucial during city branding as the city marketers will be able to deliberate on the way forward after carrying out such an audit. In this instance, the city marketers will be able to know their strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats (SWOT). The perceptions of the city stakeholders also validate literature findings. In this regard, Lestari *et al.* (2022) contend that city branding should not be treated as a mere conceptual issue but rather as an inclusive and collaborative process that considers perspectives of all the city stakeholders in the city. Nobre and Sousa (2022) added to these discourse when they highlighted the need for the city brand to represent the interests of the industries in the city as it encourages support for the city brand from all the city stakeholders. Perceptions of the participants also validate findings from the extant literature, especially that of Muzeza and Van Zyl (2018) who maintain that Johannesburg plays host to a plethora of cultural heritage attractions which the city can promote as its core values for the city brand.

To synthesise the findings from the empirical research, the next section gives a discussion in this regard.

7.3 SYNTHESIS OF KEY FINDINGS

It was anticipated that the suggested framework and research findings would provide qualitative evidence on the development of the city branding framework and further insights into the subject area. The framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination was tested for key components for branding the city. The majority of comments made by the participants reflect factors and descriptors found in the literature review (Chapters 2, 3 and 4).

Based on the forgoing discussion, the suggested framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination is a good tool as expressed by the participants. They believe that Johannesburg should be a leading international tourist destination and not trail Cape Town and Durban which they perceive to be doing very well. However, Johannesburg is viewed negatively owing to high levels of crime, deteriorating infrastructure and cultural heritage attractions. Moreover, participants opine that if the city can maintain and monitor the city's infrastructure and its cultural heritage attractions and ensure visitors' safety and security, more visitors might visit the city. They believe that this is possible because the city is vibrant and dynamic as it is the economic hub of Gauteng Province, South Africa, and Africa at large. It is a city that offers a variety of attractions, activities and business opportunities. To add to the vibrancy and dynamism, participants were of the view that the city should also focus on developing new attractions to attract visitors. Regarding the city's vision and values, participants think that the city can be a business destination, offer human and social realities for residents and can also be a successful cultural heritage destination.

Participants assert that the CoJ should focus on refurbishing the existing cultural heritage attractions, which have since been ignored by the city. Furthermore, participants believed that cultural heritage attractions can play a key role in attracting visitors to spend more time and money in Johannesburg. Participants indicated that they are very much aware of the availability of such attractions as they mentioned the townships, museums, art galleries, art and craft markets and earliest inhabitants at places, such as the Cradle of Humankind. However, they are concerned about the deterioration of cultural heritage attractions in the city as they believe city officials are neglecting these valuable assets. They opine that

visitors are not informed of the availability of these attractions which the city can promote as the city's competitive advantage and can sustain tourism in the city for many years. They think this is possible because through the employment of cultural heritage as the unique selling point for the city, the city can offer something different from other cities.

Participants feel that the logo or slogan for Johannesburg is difficult to interpret and believe that the city should design a slogan that can be used by all the city stakeholders. In contrast, participants also applauded the city for using social media platforms for marketing the Johannesburg brand but they think that some prospective visitors do not have access to social media platforms. Hence, they suggested that the city should be innovative and develop physical versions of their slogans such as billboards which can be erected on the streets and everywhere that is visible and accessible to everyone.

Participants believe that the city does not have officials who are responsible for monitoring the branding projects on a daily basis and so suggest that the city should appoint officials in that regard. They also think that the CoJ is not performing well on the market as compared to its direct local rivals such as Cape Town and Durban. Therefore, they suggest that the city should do more to place the city in front of Cape Town and Durban regarding time and money spent by visitors.

Participants believe that the city is the economic hub of Gauteng Province, South Africa, and Africa at large. However, they expressed great concern in terms of safety and security in the city, overcrowding, chaos, dirty streets, conflicts between residents and foreign nationals and deteriorating infrastructure. They also believe that the city is viewed negatively and believe that it should partner with other departments such as the police, health and civil society to improve the conditions. However, they still believe that the city is still viewed positively in certain circles because of its vibrancy, diversity in terms of cultural heritage offerings, fashion and economic activities.

Participants expressed that they are very much aware of city branding and its benefits. They further explained the variety of city branding benefits, including promoting differentiation, enhancing a good reputation for the city, the business

value of the city, increasing tourism numbers, promoting investment and building pride for the city. Others think that the city should first work on developing the city's infrastructure and attractions before engaging in branding because branding should be supported by good infrastructure and a variety of attractions in the city.

Participants agreed that the framework components were applicable to the CoJ. They believe that the framework allows for the analysis of the current situation, involves all the city stakeholders from the initial stages through the end, employs cultural heritage as the unique selling point and allows for monitoring and assessment of the city brand's progress in the market continuously. They believe that the components are applicable to the city since it is experiencing a negative image in source markets because of high levels of crime, dilapidated attractions and infrastructure, and overcrowding in the city centre. Against this background, the city needs rebranding. Because of this, participants believe that the framework is useful and important to the CoJ.

To summarise the key findings in this chapter, the following was revealed:

- Johannesburg should assess the current situation regularly so as to decide on the way forward.
- Johannesburg should consult all the city stakeholders during the implementation of the city branding strategy.
- Johannesburg should encourage maintenance and development of the infrastructure to support tourism in the city.
- Ensure visitors' safety and security in the city.
- Develop new attractions and refurbish existing cultural heritage attractions to attract visitors.
- Promote the city brand using cultural heritage.
- Design a slogan that is flexible to be used by any industry in the city.
- The city brand should be promoted through billboards.
- Johannesburg should appoint officials that monitor the city brand on a constant and continuous basis.

- Johannesburg should also continuously assess the performance of the city brand in the market through research on what visitors say concerning the city brand.
- The FBJ is applicable to the CoJ and its components are applicable to the city's current situation.

7.4 CONCLUSION

The principal objective of this chapter was to test the suggested framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination (Objective 3 of the study). This objective was met as in-depth individual interviews and FGDs were used to gather data and assess the validity of the framework and its applicability in the context of the CoJ. Interviews and focus group participants expressed their perceptions and opinions about the framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination. Participants brought experience and knowledge about branding Johannesburg that is valuable in testing the suggested framework. Findings were analysed providing quotes from the participants.

This chapter enabled the assessment or evaluation of the suggested framework as an integrated and comprehensive tool for city branding. A comparison of components described by the participants and findings from extant literature demonstrates that the framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination is a valid model for city branding. This contribution is seen to be offering value in providing insights with respect to efficient and effective city branding.

This chapter has, therefore, successfully achieved the objective of interpreting and discussing the results of the research study to test the suggested framework for successfully branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination. Chapter 8 validates the FBJ and illustrates how the CoJ can successfully brand the city.

CHAPTER 8: QUALITATIVE DATA AND ANALYSIS OF THEMES

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this study was to develop a framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination. This was achieved through investigating literature in the area of city branding as a city marketing strategy in a general context and in a cultural heritage context (Chapter 2), examining international case studies on city branding (Chapter 3), and through a situational analysis of city branding in Johannesburg (Chapter 4). Extant literature was reviewed to identify what guidelines already exist in terms of frameworks/models, learning from international best practices and identifying what needs to be done in the case of Johannesburg regarding branding the city so as to develop the FBJ.

Chapter 2 discussed that there are no widely accepted universal city branding frameworks/models as some models are mainly development or descriptive models. Chapter 3 discussed what strategies, structures and processes other renowned cities used to respond to negative perceptions about their city brands in source markets. Chapter 4 analysed the Johannesburg situation in terms of city branding, highlighting the city's SWOT, and the need for a city branding framework that is specific to the city. Research methodology (Chapter 6) described how the extant literature was used to develop the framework for branding the CoJ.

The FBJ was tested on Johannesburg as a case study (see Chapter 7). This chapter critically reviewed the research findings regarding the validity of the FBJ using data gathered from the in-depth interviews and FGDs.

Figure 8.1 illustrates the flow diagram of Chapter 8 layout.

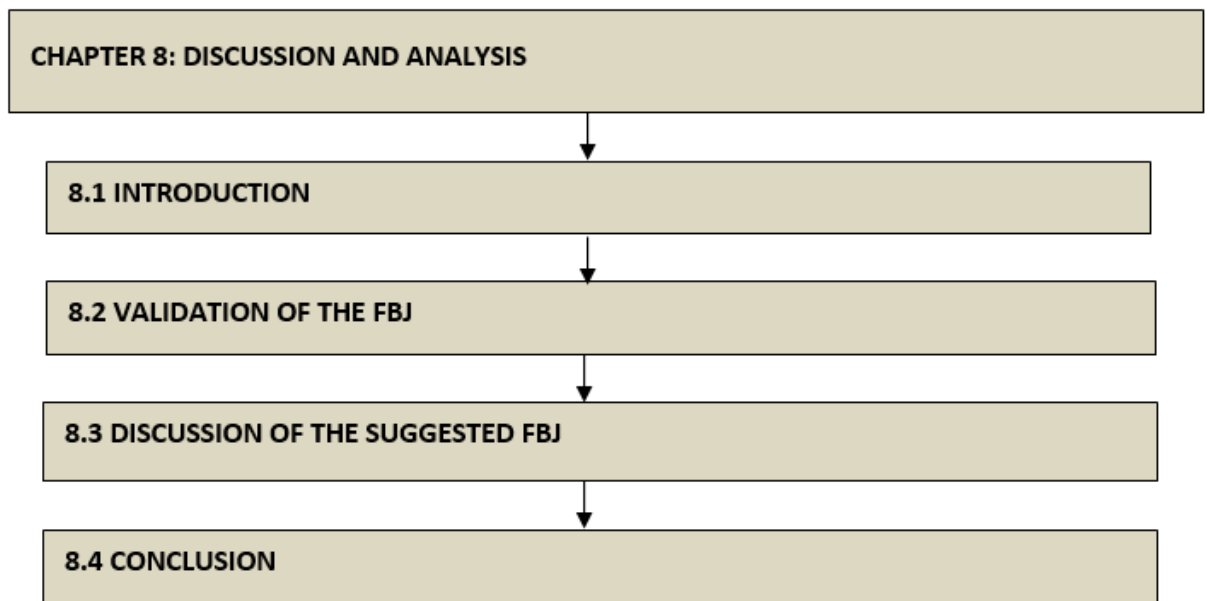


Figure 8.1: Chapter 8 layout

Validation of the suggested FBJ is discussed in the next section.

8.2 VALIDATION OF THE FRAMEWORK

To build the six-component framework, a variety of academic sources were reviewed (see Chapter 2), international case studies on city branding were also reviewed (see Chapter 3), and a situational analysis of city branding in Johannesburg was conducted (see Chapter 4). The six components are as follows:

- **assessing the current situation** (Moilanen, 2015; Hemmonsbey *et al.*, 2018; Ngwira & Kankhuni, 2018; Jovicic, 2019; Morrison, 2019; Stylidis, 2020; Sotiriadis, 2021; Morrison, 2023).
- **developing the branding strategy** (Morrison, 2019; Stylidis, 2020; Sotiriadis, 2021; Golestaneh *et al.*, 2022; Ciuculescu & Luca, 2022; Nobre & Sousa, 2022), **implementing the developed strategy** (Ofori, 2010; Morrison, 2019; Sotiriadis, 2021; Tran & Rudolf, 2022; Molinillo *et al.*, 2019).
- **managing and directing the implemented strategy**(Amsterdam Marketing, 2014; Morrison, 2019; Sotiriadis, 2021).

- **monitoring the progress of the implemented strategy** (Amsterdam Marketing, 2014; Ruzinskaite, 2015; Herezwaite *et al.*, 2018; Iglesias-Sanchez *et al.*, 2020; Sukmayadi & Effendi, 2020; Uskokovic, 2020; Sotiriadis, 2021).
- **assessing the progress of the developed strategy** (Ofori, 2010; Zenker, 2011; Ruzinskaite, 2015; Morrison, 2019; Iglesias-Sanchez *et al.*, 2020; Uskokovic, 2020).

The components and items of the FBJ were drawn from a blend of operational city branding frameworks and models. Many components of the framework were drawn from city branding studies (see Chapter 2). The FBJ is informed by the study's research instrument. As far as this researcher knows, the number of components in the FBJ makes it one of the most comprehensive academic frameworks on city branding designed to date in the Johannesburg context.

Nevertheless, the reviewed academic models in this field for this study (Virgo & De Chernatony, 2005; Merrilees *et al.*, 2007; Balakrishnan, 2009; Ofori, 2010, Hanna & Rowley, 2011; Zenker, 2011) have their own strengths and limitations. Virgo and De Chenatony (2005) used the Delphi process that was initially developed for products and services. The researchers were successful in demonstrating that the model was suitable for creating strong cohesive brand vision for place as they tested it on the Birmingham brand. The model, however, did not thoroughly explore the components of the brand.

Merrilees *et al.* (2007) developed a model that recognises the importance of residents in tourism. They developed a "structural model of city branding" in which they studied "behavioural consequences of these attitudes" and "the antecedents of brand attitudes." The researchers can be criticised for the lack of explanation on how the city branding model works. In their explanation, the researchers only gave a brief description of two phases of measurement and of the results. However, the researchers did not clearly interpret the model.

Ofori (2010) analysed communication of the Manchester brand identity by applying Balmer's (2001) AC21D Test of Corporate Identity Management. The researcher found out that Manchester's communicated identity matches the

actual identity. However, there was a mismatch between the actual and conceived and communicated and conceived identities. As a result of the study, she recommended a “city identity framework” for practitioners.

Zenker (2011) dwelled more on the need to evaluate the place brand but only gave an insight on what elements could be measured and the kind of dimensions that could be used along three approaches to measure them, that is, employing qualitative methods for perceptions and quantitative methods for place attributes and the combination of the two. However, in his model, Zenker (2011) did not include vision.

All these models consider public perceptions just like the current study, but do not consider involving people in the evaluation process. The models reviewed in this study do not talk to the “assessment of the current situation” which forms the basis for any city branding project.

The FBJ enabled the operationalisation of the validation of the developed framework. Furthermore, the developed FBJ is supported by literature which states that a conceptual framework can be developed by carrying out literature review, interviews, discussions and observations (Maxwell, 2015). In this study, the developed framework was designed based on a review of literature, interviews and FGDs.

As discussed in section 6.6.1, questions in the latter part of the interview/discussion guide were aimed at validating the framework and included the following sections:

- Framework’s value and utility
- Framework components
- Additional comments.

i) Framework’s value and utility

The researcher argues that it is essential to consult all city stakeholders on city branding projects. Therefore, the developed framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination (see Figure 8.2) was introduced to the city stakeholders asking for their perceptions and opinions on whether the framework would be useful in branding Johannesburg. Sections (2.3.1, 2.4.2.2, and 3.2)

explained that city stakeholders can give valuable perceptions that might be ignored by city marketers. The 90% of participants believed that the suggested framework should be useful while 10% thought that it would be good. However, there were no negative answers regarding the framework value and utility. This assisted in reinforcing the need for such a framework for city brand development. Such comments demonstrate that city stakeholders recognise the framework components and can contribute to their recognition for a certain city brand. This is evident enough that the suggested framework gives a better understanding of the city brand. The researcher argues that the CoJ cannot carry out any city branding initiatives without utilising the components from this framework.

To sum up, the destination marketing managers believe that the framework provides guidance and also helps in terms of evaluating existing city brands. This confirms the value and utility of the suggested framework.

ii) Framework components

Most of the participants agreed that components of the suggested framework (see Figure 8.1) are applicable to Johannesburg. These components include assessing the current situation, designing the branding strategy, implementing the designed strategy, managing, and directing the implemented strategy, monitoring the designed strategy, and assessing the performance of the designed strategy. This proves that the suggested framework can be used in the branding of the CoJ. When asked whether the components of the FBJ were applicable to Johannesburg, participants confirmed that they were exceptional. This demonstrates the applicability and adaptability of the framework as components can be added or removed to suit any destination.

iii) Additional comments

Participants agreed with the suggested framework when asked if there was anything missing. Participants brought up responses such as “Not at all, I am happy with the framework, I think it’s applicable,” which indicates that the suggested framework is a valid model. One participant, however, suggested that continuous research should be incorporated into the framework.

In conclusion, participants validated the need for the FBJ, that is, recognised the need for the comprehensive framework which was the primary aim of this study.

Furthermore, the components of the FBJ are applicable to Johannesburg (with minor adjustments) thus validating the framework regarding the branding of this city and also supporting that the three methods, that is, literature review, interviews and FGDs were suitable for data collection on Johannesburg branding for the purposes of this study. As a result, issues pertaining to the branding of the CoJ became clearer at each stage of the model.

8.3 DISCUSSION OF THE SUGGESTED FBJ

The main objective of this study was to develop a framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination. The FBJ suggested for purposes of this study, as discussed in this section, was informed by Figure 1.3, that is, the methodological procedure. The FBJ was based on the results of the qualitative enquiry and conclusions of the research and informs the recommendations coming from the study. The framework (Figure 8.2) demonstrates how the findings should be utilised and outlays important components that will enable DMOs to implement appropriate structures and processes for efficiently and effectively branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination, therefore, achieving the primary objective of the study.

It is essential to note that the FBJ was developed using the orbit of city branding. As such, models by Virgo and De Chernatony (2005), Merrilees *et al.* (2007), Balakrishnan (2009), Ofori (2010), Hanna and Rowley (2011), and Zenker (2011) were adopted and modified as described in Chapter 2, section 2.6. The adopted models further elaborate on the components (structures and processes) that city marketers should implement during city branding.

Table 8.1 illustrates the different components of the FBJ and elements within each component that were incorporated into the framework. There are six components overall

- Assessing the current situation.
- Designing the branding strategy.
- Implementing the designed branding strategy.
- Managing and directing the implemented strategy.

- Monitoring the progress of the branding strategy.
- Assessing the progress of the branding strategy.

These are indicated in bold letters in the first column of the table. The other items in the first column are elements within each component. The sources of the components and elements are indicated in the second column which points to the areas of the thesis from which it was taken (such as Chapter 2); the section number is also indicated in the third column (for example 2.4.2.1), and the relevant author or citation is indicated in column four (for example 'Sotiriadis, 2021'). However, not all authors have been included in the table to avoid overloading the table but by referring back to the relevant chapter the reader can find them. The original context of the component and explanation is illustrated in the last column which enables the reader to understand the component and/or element. The researcher included a row in red linking all the components as an explanation of the short arrows linking the framework components. The last row in green indicates the long arrow that links the last component of the framework to the first component of the framework.

When the components are interlocked, a framework for city branding is developed. This framework depicts the structures and processes which were considered as appropriate for efficient and effective city branding. These structures and processes are presented graphically in a framework to promote efficient and effective city branding in Figure 8.2. The framework information is illustrated in more detail in Table 8.1 and the reader should read the framework and the table simultaneously to fully understand the framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination.

Table 8.1: Components used to build the framework for branding the City of Johannesburg

Component	Origin	Section	Citation	Original context and explanation
1. Assessing the current situation	Chapters 2, 3, 4, and 5	2.6.1, 2.6.2, 2.6.3, 2.6.5, 3.2, 3.3, 3.4, 3.5.1, 3.5.2, 4.2.2, 4.3, 5.2.2.1	Amsterdam Marketing (2014), Sotiriadis (2021), Morrison (2023)	Assessment of the current situation is critical at the beginning of any city branding project and should involve carrying out marketing research and analysing the market and business environments (Sotiriadis, 2020).
Marketing research	Chapters 2, 3, 4, and 5	2.6.1, 3.2, 5.2.2.1	Muluneh <i>et al.</i> (2022), Moodley and Naidoo (2022)	Market and marketing research should be considered the first step of the city branding process to highlight the scope, size, economic well-being, and consumer profile of the destination (Morrison, 2023).
Environmental analysis	Chapters 2, 3, and 5	2.6.1.1, 2.6.1.2, 3.2, 4.2.2, 4.3, 5.2.2.1	Bonakdar and Andirac (2020), Alegro and Turnsek (2021)	Entails an assessment of the city and its products, competitor analysis, tourist market analysis, market position or city image analysis, previous marketing plan analysis and resident analysis for the purpose of determining the city's competitiveness (Morrison, 2023; Sotiriadis, 2021).
Relationship arrow linking the components, assessing the current situation and designing the branding strategy.	Chapters 2 and 5	2.6.2, 3.2	Balakrishnan (2009), Hanna and Rowley (2011), Zhao <i>et al.</i> (2022)	After the assessment of the current situation, cities are able to deliberate on the way forward. They now understand their market position and competitive advantages. Hence, it is easy for them to design the branding strategy (Hanna & Rowley, 2011).
2. Designing the branding strategy	Chapters 2, 3, and 5	2.6.3, 3.2, 3.3, 3.4, 5.2.2.2	Balakrishnan (2009), Hanna and Rowley (2011), Hanna <i>et al.</i> (2020)	Involves consulting with the city stakeholders and experts in tourism regarding the most effective branding strategies (Hanna <i>et al.</i> , 2020).
Marketing strategy deliberation	Chapters 2, 3, and 5	2.6.3, 3.2, 3.5.3, 5.2.2.2.1	Balakrishnan (2009), Yu and Kim (2020)	A review of tourism is conducted to decide on the best ideas (Kasapi & Cela, 2017).

Component	Origin	Section	Citation	Original context and explanation
Employing cultural heritage tourism	Chapters 2 and 5	2.6.3, 3.2.2, 3.5.3, 5.2.2.2.1	Muzeza and Van Zyl (2018), Freire <i>et al.</i> (2022), Nobre and Sousa (2022), Ciuculescu and Luca (2022)	Implementing cultural heritage in city branding as the city's core value (Lui & Andriano-Moore (2022).
Image creation	Chapters 2 and 3	2.6.4, 3.2.3, 3.2.4, 3.5.3	Trost <i>et al.</i> (2012), Braun <i>et al.</i> (2014)	Cities should focus on changing and/or creating positive images within the target market (Trost <i>et al.</i> , 2012).
Relationship arrow linking the components; designing the branding strategy and implementing the designed strategy.	Chapters 2 and 5	2.6.5, 3.2	Balakrishnan (2009), Hanna and Rowley (2011)	When the city has deliberated on the branding strategy it can now decide on the most effective city marketing communication tools to present the city brand to the target market (Sotiriadis, 2021).
3.Implementing the designed strategy	Chapters 2, 3, and 5	2.6.5, 3.2.5, 5.2.2.3	Sotiriadis (2021), Tran and Rudolf (2022), Kusumawati <i>et al.</i> (2023)	Creation of the physical versions of the slogan that speak to the values of the city while representing all the sectors in the city (Amsterdam Marketing, 2014).
Deliberation on the most effective marketing communication tools	Chapters 2, 3, and 5	2.6.3, 2.6.4, 3.2, 3.5.4, 5.2.2.3	Amsterdam Marketing (2014), Soriano and Cabanes (2020), Ali and Al-Khafaji (2022)	Cities should decide on the most effective marketing communication tools to transfer messages to intended customers (Tran & Rudolf, 2022).Physical versions of the slogans should be designed as they are regarded as the most effective form of communicating with the target audience.
Relationship arrow linking the components; Implementing the designed strategy and managing and directing the implemented strategy.	Chapters 2 and 5	2.6.6	Amsterdam Marketing (2014)	When the city has introduced the city brand to the market it should manage and direct the implemented strategy on a daily basis (Sotiriadis, 2021).

Component	Origin	Section	Citation	Original context and explanation
4.Managing and directing the implemented strategy	Chapters 2, 3, and 5	2.6.6, 3.2, 5.2.2.4	Soriano and Cabanes (2020)	The appointment of officials who are responsible for the daily monitoring of the implemented strategy is crucial (Amsterdam Marketing, 2014).
Instructing and guiding	Chapters 2, 3, and 5	3.2, 3.5.6	Chaffey and Ellis-Chadwick (2020), Morrison (2023)	Managing and directing the implemented strategy involves setting clear goals, determining roles, responsibilities and building a roadmap for achieving the goals set (Morrison, 2023).
Overseeing the performance of implemented strategy	Chapters 2, 3, and 5	3.2, 5.2.2.4	Molinillo <i>et al.</i> (2019)	The city should delegate the duties so that it is clear who is responsible for what and when (Amsterdam Marketing, 2014).
Relationship arrow linking the components; managing and directing the implemented strategy and monitoring the progress of the branding strategy.	Chapters 2 and 5	2.6.7	Amsterdam Marketing (2014)	The officials that monitor the city brand on a daily basis will be able to deliberate on whether the branding strategy is making considerable progress through the employment of city brand performance measurement tools.
5.Monitoring the progress of the branding strategy	Chapters 2, 3, and 5	2.6.7, 3.2, 3.5.6, 5.2.2.5	Uskokovic (2020), Sukmayadi and Effendi (2020), Sotiriadis (2021)	Continuous monitoring of the progress of the branding strategy should be conducted (Sukmayadi & Effendi, 2020; Sotiriadis 2021).
Control	Chapters 2, 3, and 5	3.2, 3.5, 5.2.2.5	Zenker (2014)	The City brand measurement system is important because it links city brand management and city brand performance (Zenker, 2014).
Monitoring	Chapters 2, 3, and 5	3.2, 3.5, 5.2.2.5	Amsterdam Marketing (2014)	Cities should choose from KPIs, brand metrics, budgetary control, benchmarking, and balanced scorecard for monitoring the city brand (Uskokovic, 2020).
Assessing the progress of the branding strategy	Chapters 2, 3, and 5	3.2, 3.5,3.5.6, 5.2.2.5	Uskokovic (2020)	The balanced scorecard offers a more balanced and broader focus other than finance because it also encompasses customers and learning (Uskokovic, 2020).

Component	Origin	Section	Citation	Original context and explanation
Relationship arrow linking the components; monitoring the progress of the branding strategy and assessing the performance of the branding strategy.	Chapter 2,3 and 5	2.6.7	Amsterdam Marketing (2014)	Continuous assessment of what visitors say about the city is important so as to assess the performance of the branding strategy. The assessment will allow the city to decide on whether to carry out rebranding projects or maintain the branding strategy in the market (Amsterdam Marketing, 2014).
6. Assessing the performance of the branding strategy	Chapters 2 and 3	2.6.3, 2.6.4, 2.6.5, 2.6.6, 3.2, 3.3, 3.4, 5.2.2.6	Benedek (2018), Belabas (2023)	The use of popular social media platforms is crucial when cities can promote unknown places in the city and assessing visitors' experiences are important in city branding (Benedek, 2018; Zhang <i>et al.</i> , 2022).
	Chapters 2, 3, and 5	3.5.6, 5.2.2.6	Iglesias-Sanchez <i>et al.</i> (2020)	Assessing visitors' comments about their city experiences is critical to determine whether the city brand is a success or not (Iglesias-Sanchez <i>et al.</i> , 2020).
Relationship arrow linking the components; assessing the performance of the branding strategy and assessing the current situation.	Chapters 2, 3, 4 and 5	5.2.2.6	Balakrishnan (2009), Zenker (2011), Amsterdam Marketing (2014)	Positive word-of-mouth and comments made by visitors of their city experiences indicate that the city brand is recognised by the visitors. However, the opposite means that the city should go back to the drawing board and assess its current situation to carry out city rebranding until they are successful (Yu & Kim, 2020; Zhou <i>et al.</i> , 2022; Kusumawati <i>et al.</i> , 2023).

Source: Researcher's own compilation

Figure 8.2 represents the final FBJ.

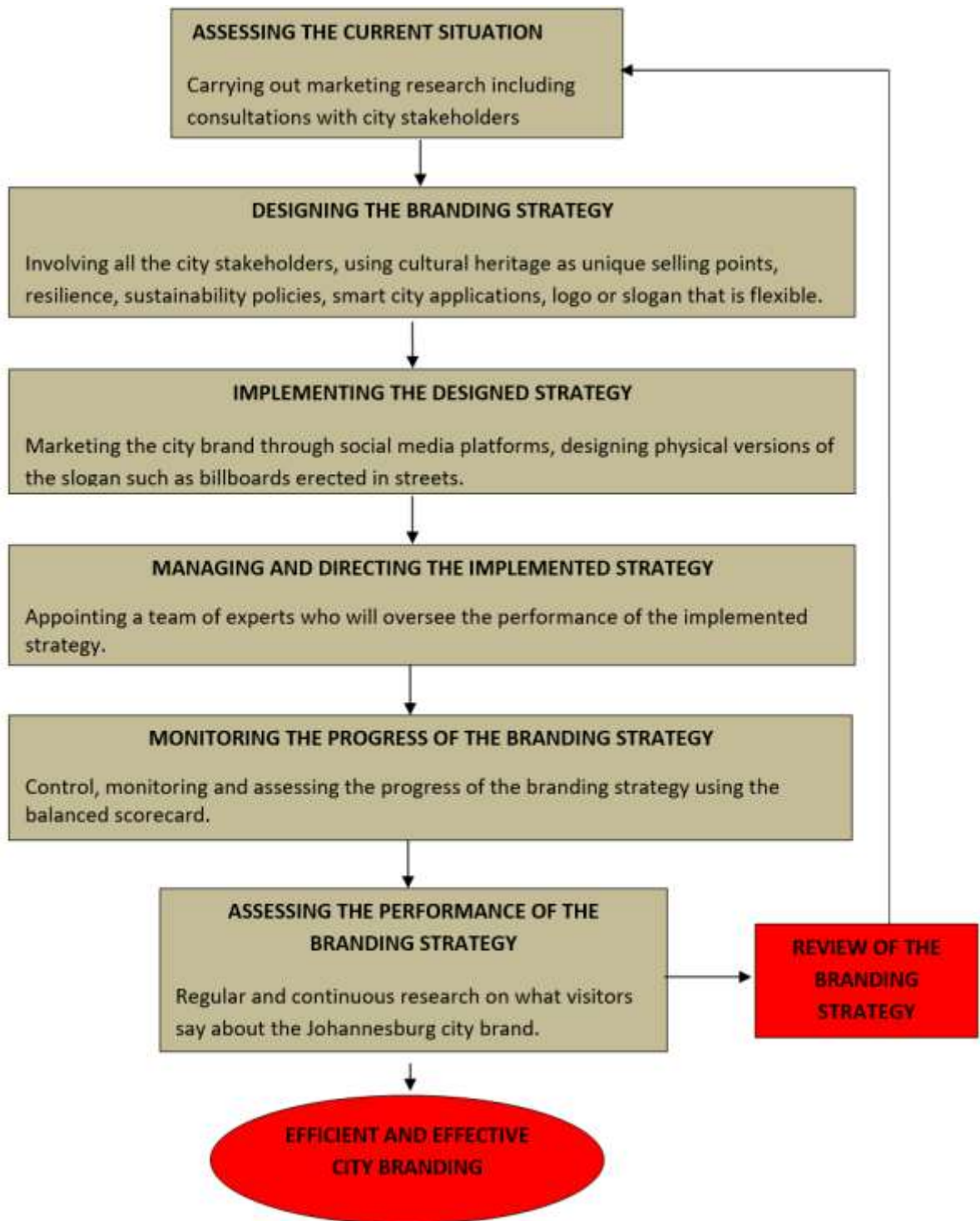


Figure 8.2: Final FBJ

Source: Author's own compilation

The suggested framework for branding the CoJ offers applicable guidelines, more specifically critical focus areas for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination. The FBJ is a consolidated outline focusing on the components and

elements that can influence efficient and effective city branding. The FBJ indicates a detailed overview of the different components and elements within each component, therefore, enabling understanding of the framework. The framework can be used by city branding practitioners to carry out branding projects and evaluate existing city branding projects. Figure 8.2 illustrates the framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination which was informed by the findings of the study, from other schema and from the literature review. The origins of each component and elements are explained in Table 8.1.

The FBJ components do not operate in solitude or as a complete package. However, it depends on the context of each city/destination and its characteristics. City branding practitioners should adapt it to their own context and at the same time taking cognisance that all the components can impact on efficient and effective city branding. Although the framework attempts to incorporate more components and elements than the reviewed models and frameworks in this study, city branding practitioners should still customise it to their own context.

While the framework illustrated in Figure 8.2 is not an exhaustive representation of all aspects that encourage the implementation of appropriate structures and processes for efficient and effective city branding, the study found aspects shown in Figure 8.2 to be critical in encouraging efficient and effective city branding in Johannesburg. The aspects proposed in the framework may be helpful in navigating the complex task of carrying out efficient and effective city branding. Practically, the FBJ may be of value because it considers different factors in encouraging efficient and effective city branding. The framework highlights a bottom-up approach rather than a top-bottom approach to city branding. The FBJ asserts that the achievement of efficient and effective city branding is subject to the implementation of appropriate structures and processes during city branding. By implementing appropriate structures and processes during city branding, city marketers are able to brand their cities truthfully and the city brand is able to represent the interests of all the city stakeholders and industries in the city. Thus, the suggested framework starts with the assessment of the current situation in the city. Through these assessments the city is able to identify its weaknesses, threats, opportunities and strengths to deliberate on the

direction it wants to go. These ingredients are the body of knowledge on city branding (Chapter 2, 3 and 4) and the results of the qualitative study (Chapter 7). The assessment of the current situation will enable the city marketers to set out structures to discuss and deliberate on the way forward. This study proposed selected interventions to encourage such discussions, such as interviews, workshops and group discussions as discussed in Chapter 2, section 2.6 and partially approved in Chapter 7, section 7.2.

Through these discussions, the city marketers are able to involve and collaborate with all the city stakeholders. Deliberation of the vision and core values of the city is done through these workshops and discussions. Because different city stakeholders have differing interests and activities, the city brand resulting from these discussions should embrace all these interests which will prompt support for the city brand from the different city stakeholders. When city stakeholders are confident that the city brand represents their interests, they will fully embrace the city brand. Through these discussions suggestions will be made concerning the core values of the city such as cultural heritage that should be promoted in source markets. This is most likely to represent the competitive advantage of the city brand over its competitors as it is coming from a variety of city stakeholders.

The FBJ also allows for the deliberation on how the city brand should be presented to the prospective visitors to the city. Through the suggested framework presenting the designed brand to the target market is critical to successful city branding and it must be communicated to the target markets through marketing action plans, marketing mix, use of a variety of communication tools, digital marketing and social media. The framework allows for the development of a slogan or logo that resembles the values of the city, and the design of the physical versions of the slogan which can also be marketed through billboards.

The framework considers managing and directing the implemented strategy which implies instructing, guiding, and overseeing the performance of the implemented strategy. This includes setting clear goals that the city wants to attain. It is crucial to determine roles, responsibilities, and relationships because it builds the roadmap for achieving goals set and clearly communicating the city's implementation plan so as to avoid confusion. Managing and directing also

involves delegating the work that is, determining who is responsible for what and when and setting deadlines because each task should have a timeline. When there is no delegation of tasks it creates confusion among the city marketing officials as to who is responsible for what and when. When there is confusion, it points out to the failure of city branding since there is no one responsible for managing and directing the city brand. The framework also allows the city to appoint officials to monitor and manage the city brand on a daily basis.

The FBJ is of value because it allows close monitoring of the progress of the branding strategy as it is crucial for efficient and effective city branding which can be achieved through the implementation of control methods and metrics to monitor and assess the progress of the branding strategy. Cities can monitor the progress of the branding strategy continuously. Cities can use performance measurement approaches such as KPIs, Brand Metrics, and traditional approaches such as budgetary control, benchmarking, and the balanced scorecard. However, the framework recommends that the balanced scorecard is the most effective approach to monitoring the progress of the branding project as it includes customers and learning, which offers a more balanced and broader focus other than finance.

The most crucial aspect of the FBJ is that it enables continuous research regarding the performance of the city brand. City marketers are able to assess the performance of the branding strategy which involves assessing what visitors say about their city experiences which are reinforced by the internet, media and through the participants' interaction. When visitors have an exceptional city experience they will recommend the city to friends and relatives and revisiting the city.

i) Outcome: Efficient and effective city branding

The suggested framework was discussed above to indicate who should be involved and what structures and processes should be implemented during city branding. It was indicated that all city stakeholders should be involved throughout all the stages of the city branding. The final result of the suggested framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination (See Figure 8.2): is (efficient

and effective city branding) increased visitation and prolonged length of stay by visitors.

Firstly, it is anticipated that the FBJ, aimed at guiding city marketers to brand the CoJ will lead to efficient and effective city branding of the city. Efficient and effective city branding is dependent upon the implementation of appropriate structures and processes and collaboration of city stakeholders and employing a city's natural sources of competitive advantages which is being ignored by the city marketers in Johannesburg.

Secondly, the envisaged outcome of the suggested framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination is efficient and effective city branding. The qualitative analysis of the current study pointed to non-involvement to passive involvement of city stakeholders in the city's branding. Furthermore, the results on the constructs used by the city for its branding indicated that the city is focusing on promoting the city as a 'World Class African City,' which is not the actual picture of the city. The result indicated that the city should use cultural heritage as its unique selling point as the city hosts a plethora of such attractions.

Thirdly, the final outcome of the suggested framework for branding the CoJ is increased visitation and prolonged visitors' stay in the city, which can promote socio-economic development and cultural heritage conservation in the city and South Africa at large. Economic benefits include money brought in by visiting tourists (foreign exchange earnings) visiting cultural heritage attractions in the city, employment creation for the local communities, and government taxes, while social benefits include the upliftment of local people's lives, infrastructural development, income and employment of the local people, education of the local people about the importance of cultural heritage resources. Cultural heritage conservation includes local people's awareness of the values of cultural heritage resources, provision of exceptional visitor experience and making sure that visitors behave responsibly at attractions. The development of the framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination is therefore anticipated to improve visitation to the city which ultimately improve the economic, social and the conservation of cultural heritage resources in the city and the country at large.

Finally, the suggested framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination proved applicability and usefulness despite the situation in the city although minor suggestions were brought up by the research participants. The framework still proves to be practically valuable as it enables efficient and effective branding of the city as a cultural heritage destination since it provides a comprehensive picture and identifies areas which are problematic.

The suggested framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination is viewed as a good guide for efficient and effective city branding and evaluating existing city brands, according to participants. The findings from this research study, clearly show the different components of city branding and the inclusion of all stakeholders in the city and the important components to be applied during the branding of the city. This validates the applicability and usefulness of the suggested framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination.

The framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination represents a significant difference from the other schema presented in Chapter 2. The framework's merits and drawbacks are presented next.

ii) Merits and drawbacks of the suggested framework

Following the above discussion, the framework is unique because of the following reasons:

- It presents components that emerged from the findings of the qualitative study in this doctoral research.
- It first considers the assessment of the city/destination's current situation regarding city branding.
- The framework incorporates more city stakeholders and indicates that all should be involved from the beginning of city branding till the end.
- The framework considers the city/destination's cultural competitive advantages as its unique selling point.
- The framework considers constant and continuous management, monitoring, and evaluation of the city brand because all are crucial for efficient and effective city branding.

- The framework is presented in a continuous format which shows that city branding is revolving and not a once-off activity.
- Additionally, the framework highlights the contribution of cultural heritage tourism as an industry providing business opportunities and branding at the same time.
- Furthermore, the framework provides the full scope and potential of cultural heritage tourism at the destination level from the perspectives of the city tourism stakeholders as they are the ambassadors of the city.

However, the framework has its own drawbacks because:

- It is a mere conceptual framework.
- Additionally, the framework has limitations to an extent regarding its operational utility and effectiveness in management terms.
- It must be noted that although the FBJ allows for the inclusion of all the city stakeholders in the city it is however difficult to consult and collaborate with all these city stakeholders
- The costs involved in consulting and collaborating all the city stakeholders is another challenge for implementing this framework.
- City branding requires changes in policies, culture and even the mindset. However, these changes in reality take time to effect hence, it poses some challenges that city marketers may face when they implement this framework as some city stakeholders may resist change.

It can be concluded that the merits outweigh the drawbacks hence, the framework is deemed applicable and useful to the CoJ.

8.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter reviewed and analysed the value and utility of the suggested framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination. Background to this study and aims and objectives and the need for a city branding framework was discussed in Chapter 1. Chapters 2, 3 and 4 reviewed the literature that provided guidelines for the development of the framework for branding the CoJ

(Chapter 5). Chapter 6 explained the methodology used in this study and Chapter 7 analysed the qualitative research findings.

Based on the results of the interview and FGDs, the FBJ is needed and can be useful in all the stages of city branding considering the perceptions of the city stakeholders. Furthermore, analysis of the results revealed that city stakeholders should be consulted throughout the branding process, and focus should be given to branding the city as a cultural heritage destination, a slogan, and a logo that speaks to the values of the city should be developed.

The findings of the entire research will be summarised in the next chapter including research recommendations, contributions of the study, study limitations and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 9:

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

9.1 INTRODUCTION

The concluding chapter of a thesis has to distil all the previous chapters to present a complete and critical argument that answers the research question(s), to state the research contribution that the research study makes to the body of academic knowledge and to outline recommendations for further study (Creswell & Creswell Baez, 2020). A research study's conclusions and recommendations make much theoretical, methodological, and practical sense after its findings have been discussed. The previous chapter, Chapter 8 discussed findings on validating the suggested framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination (Objective 5). This chapter draws conclusions, contributions, limitations, recommendations, and areas of further research from that discussion and explains each a topic informed by the study's secondary objectives. The primary objective of this study was to develop a framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination. This principal objective was serviced by six secondary objectives, the first four of which were theoretical and the remaining two qualitative, namely to:

- Conduct an in-depth literature review on branding as a city marketing strategy in a general context and in a cultural heritage context.
- Evaluate international best practices in city branding.
- Analyse the current situation in Johannesburg regarding city branding.
- Capitalise on extant literature elaborate on and suggest a framework for branding the CoJ.
- Qualitatively test the suggested framework for branding the CoJ; and
- Discuss the theoretical marketing implications and practical implications of the findings of the study project highlight its limitations and suggest avenues for future research.

This chapter reflects on how the research gaps identified in Chapter 1 have been addressed. The conclusions also assess the extent to which the secondary objectives were fulfilled hence the primary objective and the research question answered. Lastly, the contributions, recommendations, limitations of the study, and areas for further research are discussed.

Figure 9.1 below presents the flow diagram of Chapter 9 layout.

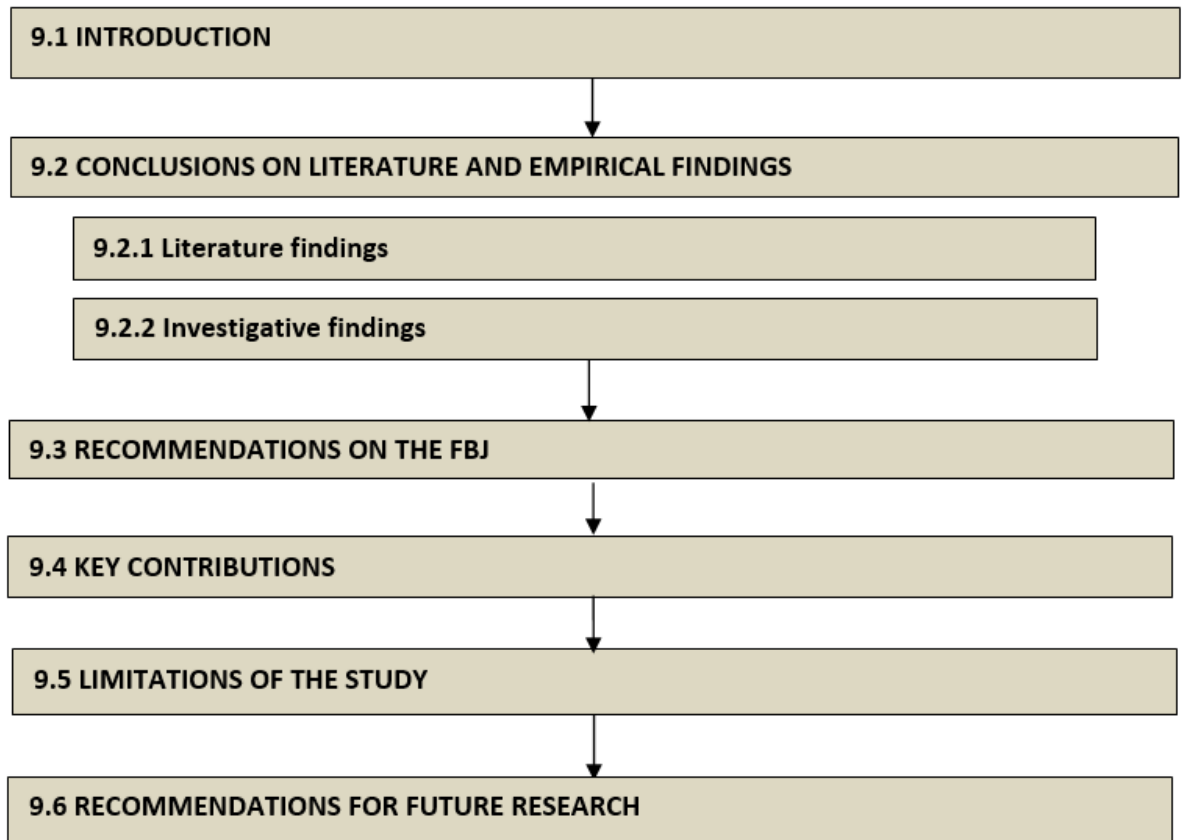


Figure 9.1: Flow diagram of Chapter 9 layout

The following section discusses the conclusions on literature and qualitative findings of the research.

9.2 CONCLUSIONS ON LITERATURE AND EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

Conclusions of this study are presented in the following subsections.

9.2.1 Literature findings

Literature review in Chapter 2 highlighted the importance of city branding to the contemporary city outlining its potential benefits, and challenges faced by city

branding practitioners during city branding. City branding frameworks /models were examined to understand the components that are crucial during city branding, hence extant literature examined in Chapter 2 therefore revealed the following:

- City branding has become popular throughout the world because it promotes a city's attractiveness and competitiveness. Although in recent times there has been an upsurge in city branding literature, many issues concerning the subject need understanding, and according to Lestari *et al.* (2022), there is still a lack of qualitative research regarding the appropriate structures and processes, especially as related to the developing world.
- To realise efficient and effective city branding, cities should employ their unique sources of competitive advantages in their branding initiatives. These unique sources of competitive advantages include the employment of cultural heritage during the branding of the city.
- Through the employment of cultural heritage resources, a city is able to reverse a negative or an inappropriate image to a more desirable one in source markets thereby attracting visitors to spend more time and money in the city. Through the employment of cultural heritage, a city can offer something different from what its competitors are offering because it is difficult to copy cultural heritage since it is unique to that city.
- Furthermore, city branding frameworks/models examined determined city branding components that might lead to efficient and effective city branding projects. From the review of the city branding frameworks/models it was found that city vision is important as it determines the direction with which the city wants to follow.
- The city branding frameworks/models also emphasised that city stakeholders including residents should all be consulted during city branding. Consideration of the target customer needs and wants, product portfolio that satisfies the needs and wants of the visitors, positioning and differentiation were all discussed as important component elements during city branding.

- Furthermore, deliberation of efficient and effective communication tools in presenting the city brand to the target market was emphasised as it allows the city to present the brand to the customers.
- Lastly, evaluating brand experience and brand evaluation was identified as an important component in the brand building process because it determines whether customers are happy or not with the city brand. The findings from the literature review were critical as they laid a foundation or the basis for the development of the FBJ suggested in this research study.

The review of literature in Chapter 3 sheds light on the critical structures and processes that other successful cities in the world implemented during their rebranding campaigns. These cities had to go back to the drawing board to assess the current situation regarding city branding. The cities had to consult with all the city stakeholders through workshops and interviews.

- Through the workshops and interviews they were able to deliberate on the way forward regarding the core values of the city, the most effective ways of presenting their city brands to the target markets, managing, and directing the city brand and monitoring the progress and assessing the performance of the city brand on the market.
- All the cities focused on the positive attributes of the city during their respective rebranding campaigns. A good relationship also existed between the cities and their residents. This was instrumental to the cities' successes regarding branding because city residents are walking-talking adverts and their belief and support of the city brand contributed to their success.
- The cities were branded in ways that their stakeholders found believable which reinforced the city brand as truthful. This was witnessed through word-of-mouth, advertising, public relations and through the design of graphics and physical versions of the slogans. Through these positive attributes, the city brands were reinforced. The cities had functionality and added value just like any other strong brands. Their unique sources of competitive advantages were based on the function of their geographic location for trade, employment, industry, and economy. Furthermore, their added value contributed to their distinctiveness as brands which were outlined in their culture, attractions, and

people. The cities were able to honour their past, and managed to merge it with their future plans so as to adjust to globalisation.

- The cities embraced new political climates, events, changes in attitudes and strived to cooperate to find consensus with their stakeholders. Through adapting to and embracing diverse cultures, stakeholders, and ideas; they evolved into strong city brands. The cities had clear identities and projected city brands that were consistently portrayed.
- There is no confusion among city stakeholders about the city brands or what city brands stand for, and the cities have something that is not available anywhere else. Through their brands, it is clear what the city brand is all about and what kinds of added value and attractions the city offers. This is real value and not perceived value. Because the cities were and are open to change, evolution, and inclusion, they will continue to attract many visitors to spend more time and money in their boundaries.

The need for developing a framework for branding the CoJ was also supported by the analysis of the Johannesburg situation regarding city branding in Chapter 4. Some cities such as Amsterdam, New York and Cape Town have been successful in positioning themselves as tourist destinations and their city brands are widely accepted by the public while the Johannesburg city brand is viewed negatively in source markets (See Chapter 3). Literature review in Chapter 4 revealed the following:

- Johannesburg has been carrying out city branding since 1990. During the 19th century, Johannesburg was branded as a mining city and business centre for Sub-Saharan Africa. In the 20th century, the city was branded and compared to world cities such as New York. The 21st century saw the city being referred to as a competitive city and most recently, the city was branded as a 'World Class African City'. All these efforts have seen more visitors travelling to the city but in transit to other safer South African destinations.
- Up to now, city branding is solely the responsibility of the municipal authorities in Johannesburg. In this regard, an inclusive and collaborative approach is seen as the most effective way of branding the city. It was also revealed that Johannesburg has a plethora of cultural heritage resources that it can

implement during city branding as its core values to attract visitors to stay for long in the city.

- This raised questions such as, what structures and processes should be implemented by the city marketers so as to realise efficient and effective city branding. However, considering the complexity of city branding, different aspects of city branding are currently being investigated. One of them is appropriate structures and processes for city branding which is expected to assist city marketers in realising efficient and effective city branding in Johannesburg.

As a result of this and in anticipation of filling the gap in literature described above the FBJ was developed. The value and utility of the suggested framework was tested on city stakeholders in Johannesburg. The FBJ that was suggested for the purposes of this study can be used as a guide for city branding practitioners and an evaluative tool for existing city brands.

The next sub section discusses findings and conclusions from the qualitative research conducted in this study.

9.2.2 Qualitative findings

Information from the extant literature was used to develop the FBJ which promotes the implementation of proper structures and processes for efficient and effective city branding thus achieving the primary aim of this research study and filling in the existing gap in the city branding literature. Subsequently, the suggested FBJ (Figure 5.2) was tested among the CoJ stakeholders (Chapter 7) to test its suitability and applicability (Chapter 8). In-depth interviews and FGDs were used as the research tools to assess city stakeholders' perceptions regarding the suggested framework. Summarised below are the key findings:

- Consulting all the city stakeholders during the branding process can be described as non-involvement which results in city brands that do not represent the interests of all the six stakeholders groups in the city.
- City stakeholders are of the view that there is limited implementation of appropriate structures and processes by the municipal authorities in the last city branding campaign.

- Analysis of city stakeholders' perceptions indicates that there is less consideration of public aspirations and local identities such as branding the city as a cultural heritage destination.
- Cultural heritage was recognised as the core values of the city which should be promoted. However, city stakeholders raised concerns about neglect exposed to these attractions by the city authorities. They advocated for proper maintenance and development of such attractions as they promote visitation to the city.
- Furthermore, city stakeholders believe that there is no inter-sector coordination during the branding of Johannesburg which leads to inefficient and ineffective city branding. This was supported by the fact that regarding the vision of the city, respondents had mixed perceptions. Some brought ideas that the vision of the city was to position the city as a leading, global, all year-round destination for business; customer-oriented city; Africa's leading business city; and to improve human and social realities by reducing poverty and enabling self-sustainability.
- The state of the city was a cause for concern for many respondents as they agree that the city's infrastructure and attractions are in a dire state which requires refurbishment, crime levels are high and overcrowding in the CBD is a sore in the eyes of visitors.
- Analysis of city stakeholders' perceptions relating to Johannesburg revealed that all the six groups of respondents (GTA, JTC, GATOA, resident's associations, JHF, and SATSA) had similar perceptions of Johannesburg that the city brand does not represent the core values of the city such as cultural heritage which can help change the negative perceptions in the source markets.
- Evaluation of the Johannesburg city brand revealed that the brand was confusing and was rather creating misleading interpretations, for example the city is regarded as a 'World Class African City. while others think that nothing compliments the city brand from the current city logo and slogan.

- Respondents believe that the logo of the city does not talk to the values of the city and neither does it represent any interest of the city stakeholders or any industry in the city.
- Analysis of the respondents' perceptions revealed that the appointment of officials who are going to monitor the city brand constantly and continuously is important as city branding requires close monitoring. The DMO in the city must take responsibility in this regard.
- Continuous assessment of the performance of the city brand on the market was mentioned as critical to determine the success of the city brand against the competition.

The issues discussed above support the need for a framework that speaks to the implementation of appropriate structures and processes for efficient and effective city branding. The FBJ is a good guide for city branding and can also be used for evaluating existing city brands. Through the findings of the Johannesburg case study, it can be concluded that the framework can give guidelines into what structures and processes city marketers should implement to realise efficient and effective city branding. This validates the value and utility of the FBJ.

The next subsection explains the recommendations suggested for the purposes of this study.

9.3 RECOMMENDATIONS ON THE FBJ

The sixth and final secondary objective of the study was to make recommendations and inform a framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination. The study recommendations emanate from the themes emerging in Chapter 7. The themes are based on the data from the case study (The CoJ). Because the theory was derived from the themes also, study recommendations should assist in the practical implementation of the developed framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination. The recommendations focus on what the city marketers/DMOs or city branding practitioners should do. However, this research study acknowledges that city marketers/DMOs or city branding practitioners have a role to play in facilitating collaboration among city stakeholders, and in fostering socio-economic

development and cultural heritage conservation. While the recommendations are contextualised to the CoJ, they could be helpful to other cities or destinations. The FBJ developed for this study is an assortment from which readers can add, remove, or adapt components to suit their own context. The practical recommendations to city marketers/DMOs or city branding practitioners are thus written in the second person.

i) Assessing the current situation

The study recommends that the city should carry out an assessment of the current situation in terms of branding in Johannesburg. This enables the city to identify areas of concern regarding city branding. Assessment of the current situation will enable a city to identify its strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats and the city's competitors. In Johannesburg, roads are potholed, litter lines the streets, storm drains are clogged, basic maintenance is lacking and there is overcrowding. The city should aim to minimise levels of crime and outbreaks of pandemics by collaborating with the police and the health department and improve the level of service delivery in this regard because no 'world class city' can be characterised by the above-mentioned factors.

However, this study recommends that a city needs to look good and function efficiently for its residents before it can successfully brand itself as a tourist destination. Respondents believe that the city's cultural heritage resources should be preserved, and new attractions built so that visitors can stay for long in the city.

ii) Designing the branding strategy

The study recommends that the city should consult all the city stakeholders before and during the designing of the branding strategy. Consulting all the city stakeholders is crucial for effective city branding because the stakeholders will embrace the city brand since they know that this is their product. City stakeholders should be involved in the branding process from the initial stages till the end. However, it is recommended that a core team lead the process though there is a need to inform all city stakeholders about the brand development. Small and medium-sized city stakeholders must contribute as well since they are the

ones who represent the brand at the touch point instead of considering only the city councils and key city stakeholders.

The study recommends that the city should create a slogan that speaks to its core values. It is pointless that the city is branding itself as a 'World Class African City,' yet it has bad infrastructure such as roads with potholes, spilling sewage and broken water pipes. This is not testimony to a world class city instead it is suggested that the city should rather be branded as a cultural heritage city because it hosts a variety of such attractions. Hence, the city should focus on providing good service to its residents and develop its infrastructure as well.

The study recommends that the city use a new approach to reposition Johannesburg. The approach should be based on the city's competitive advantage that it has over its competitors as outlined in the framework. Johannesburg offers cultural heritage attractions in abundance but is considered to have a negative image in source markets. This is because successful cities are those that employ their natural competitive advantages in their branding initiatives. Such a strategy could provide focus and integrate city stakeholders' interests and efforts. Doing this will create a symphony that harness the power of the message partners and stakeholders in the city. In light of Johannesburg's current problems, the city could benefit from a re-branding process using cultural heritage attractions. The importance of this exercise is that an appropriate branding strategy should be established to market the city brand and to ensure that the correct message about the city is communicated to the target market.

This study recommends that city branding requires significant investment in terms of infrastructure, human resources, and finance. In the study, resources are highlighted as critical attributes that could contribute towards the success of a branding project. If there is no infrastructure to support the branding project, the popularity of the brand might decline or diminish. The city should therefore upgrade its infrastructure and develop innovative tourism products to augment the existing products.

iii) Implementing the designed strategy

While the CoJ is not a novice in offering tourism experiences; given the negative perceptions associated with the city in source markets, the position projected by

the “World Class African City” slogan is not appropriate. The city’s infrastructure, attractions are dilapidated, and the crime levels are reaching alarming levels. For the city to position itself successfully, it is fundamental that the positioning is realistic at all times so as to avoid failure. The study recommends that the city should use cultural heritage in its branding projects, use popular social media platforms and physical versions such as billboards to promote the city.

The study recommends that the city should design a proper slogan or logo which will efficiently differentiate the CoJ from other cities. However, the slogan needs to represent all the sectors in the city and represent the values of the city so that all the city stakeholders will accept and embrace it. The existing slogan proves that the CoJ’s brand is confusing and not popular among city stakeholders which affect the city’s branding initiatives.

This study also suggests that the city should design the graphic representation of the city’s slogan which other renowned cities are using. These graphic representations can be used in the marketing of all the products and services of organisations in different sectors of the city.

iv) Managing and directing the implemented strategy

The study recommends that the city appoint officials who are going to manage and direct the branding project on a daily basis. This will reduce or minimise confusion regarding who must do what and when. Hence the city should appoint officials to oversee the branding project on a daily basis.

v) Monitoring the progress of the branding strategy

This study recommends that the CoJ should continuously monitor the progress of the branding strategy. Lack of monitoring of the city’s progress means that the city is not aware of its immediate competitors and what they are offering on the market. This will lead to the city’s failure to capitalise on its competitor’s weaknesses.

It is recommended that Johannesburg use management-based performance measurement methods such as the balanced scorecard in evaluating the performance of the city brand on the market as it offers city marketers a comprehensive view of the city’s overall performance.

vi) Assessing the performance of the branding strategy

The study recommends that the city should embark on a re-branding campaign because the city is viewed as bad in source markets. The city should assess visitors' perceptions regarding what Johannesburg offer as a tourist destination. The assessment should enable the creation of an image that is shared by the entire city and its stakeholders. Through this, the target market adaptation is easier.

The city should take advantage of the variety of cultural heritage attractions in the city and employ them in its branding initiatives, collaborate with the police to curb crime and develop its infrastructure. This will automatically enhance quality experiences in the city.

The achievement of the research objectives discussed in Section 9.2 enabled the achievement of the primary aim of the study, thus answering the research question. The research has outlaid the key components in building a framework that results in the implementation of appropriate structures and processes for efficient and effective branding of destinations. Furthermore, this knowledge has been ideally delineated through an exhaustive blended framework. This knowledge can be utilised to further achieve efficient and effective city branding, promote cultural heritage conservation, and improve the socio-economy of cities.

The following section discusses the key contributions of the current study.

9.4 KEY CONTRIBUTIONS

The following sub-sections discuss the contributions of the present study.

9.4.1 Theoretical contributions

The theoretical contributions are presented in three parts as follows:

i) Branding as a city marketing strategy in a general context and in a cultural heritage context

The review of literature in terms of branding as a city marketing strategy in a general context and in a cultural heritage context was used to explore past studies on city branding which laid a foundation for this research study. In Chapter

1, it was highlighted that studies on city branding in South Africa and Africa at large were lacking, hence the chapter presented further discussions on city branding which contributed to the academic body of knowledge in that regard.

ii) Best practices: learning from international experiences

The review of the best practices in city branding internationally was used to reveal response strategies, structures and processes implemented by some cities during periods of economic downturn. In response to these economic situations, the cities conducted rebranding strategies going back to the drawing board and consulting with all the city stakeholders so that they could come up with efficient city branding strategies. Some of these cities had to develop new identities and new slogans to attract investors, residents, and visitors. The City of Amsterdam was viewed as bad in its source markets and responded by building upon its unique assets and innovative strategies to attract a certain group of people. New York City experienced an economic downturn and had to promote its finance, real estate, and tourism industries. The strategy worked so well as it empowered the services industry and its workers. The City of Cape Town decided on promoting collaboration, partnership, and active citizenship in its strategy which primarily aimed at promoting a sense of responsibility among its citizens and government to position the city as a place of opportunity globally. Because Johannesburg is faced with high levels of violent crime, corruption, and outbreaks of diseases such as HIV/AIDS has to capitalise on what the City of Amsterdam, New York and Cape Town did to reposition it using its unique competitive advantages.

Because each city has its own characteristics the CoJ should go back to the drawing board, consult with all the city stakeholders and decide on the way forward in a collaborative way. Through the review of international case studies on city branding, new insights were revealed in this regard also contributing to the discussion of the subject being investigated in this research.

iii) A situational analysis of city branding in Johannesburg

A situational analysis of city branding in Johannesburg was performed by means of a literature review and also relying on the political, economic, social, information and communication technology, financial and human resources, general situation, and ecological indicators. Through the analysis of city branding

in Johannesburg, it was noted that the city should take stock of what has happened, what is happening and what should happen in future regarding the city's branding initiatives. The city should identify its competitive advantages through the consultation of the entire city stakeholder groupsto deliberate on the core values that represent a true reflection of the city. The city should also prioritise visitors' safety and security as this has been brought up as an inhibiting factor for visitors to spend more time and money in the city. Those deliberations will improve the city's image in the source markets. Another priority area is the deteriorating infrastructure and the cultural heritage attractions in the city. The city should focus on maintaining the general infrastructure and the cultural heritage attractions in the city. This enhances the visitors' city experience of the city and improving the general quality of life for its residents as they share the same space with the visitors. The assessment of the Johannesburg situation also contributed to the body of knowledge on the subject of city branding as it outlays what is happening and what should be done in Johannesburg regarding its branding.

iv) Suggesting a framework for branding the CoJ

Despite the fact that city branding has been studied over the last two decades, the subject is still evolving with increasing real-world activity but relatively limited theory. The subject is not thoroughly researched in an African context when compared to developed countries. As cities are competing for an optimal share of visitors, there is increasing real-world city branding activity but there are limited city branding qualitative theories in the South African context. As such, the fourth secondary objective of this research was to "capitalise on extant literature, elaborate on and suggest a framework for branding the CoJ. To achieve this objective, the researcher conducted an in-depth literature review on branding as a city marketing strategy in a general context and in a cultural heritage context. Inferring from the literature review, it is clear that city branding requires collaborative efforts from all the city stakeholders as their input is valuable for the city's progress. Cities should also capitalise on their unique competitive advantages such as cultural heritage resources as these are not easy to replicate. Therefore, city branding should not be seen as a "one size fits all" practice but should be seen as a way of differentiating the city from its competitors.

Improving a city brand calls for adjustments in terms of: its political, economic, social, information and communication technology, financial and human resources, and ecological systems in a city. The in-depth literature review conducted in preparation for the construction of the framework for branding the CoJ closed the gap in the literature regarding the conceptualisation and understanding of what should be considered when branding a city or destination. A successful city brand stands for the values and ideology of the city and endows the city with sustainable competitive advantages. Despite of the abundance of city branding frameworks and in-depth in literature, there is a dearth of such models in the South African context. As such, the creation of the framework for branding the CoJ is an addition to the body of academic knowledge. Besides the fact that the framework is not very exhaustive, according to the best knowledge of the researcher, it is still one of the most comprehensive frameworks on city branding designed from the city stakeholders' point of view.

9.4.2 Methodological contributions

The methodology employed in this study is unique in terms of the following:

The study makes a significant contribution in terms of the research instrument used to assess the perceptions of the city stakeholders regarding the suggested framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination. Since no city branding-specific interview/discussion guide for assessing city stakeholders' perceptions regarding branding could be found concerning the CoJ, a new interview/discussion guide had to be developed. Research instrument items were derived from extant literature, the cases of Amsterdam, New York, and Cape Town and from the situational analysis of city branding in Johannesburg. The instrument items that were tested and the trustworthiness of the items were confirmed. The research instrument can furthermore be used, adapted, and developed to suit other cities/tourism destinations.

The other important contribution is that this study explored the relationships that exist between the different components of the framework. It was revealed that the components of the framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination are all related to one another and affect one another. These findings can assist city marketers in successfully branding the city.

Furthermore, the study used a case study as a research design to gain in-depth information about the perceptions of city stakeholders regarding the suggested framework. Case studies are important because places gain more attention through publications, and governments obtain more knowledge about place branding from these case studies and therefore improve their policymaking practices on branding (Lu *et al.*, 2020). The authors further stated that in the long-term, knowledge gained from the case studies promote place branding development in the future as it inspires the governments to brand places in a better way, thereby solving problems of inequality and uneven development among cities in the long run.

9.4.3 Practical contributions

The practical or managerial contributions of this study are deeply rooted in the topic and the developed FBJ. The framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination has made a significant contribution to the practice of city marketing especially as it applies to Johannesburg, South Africa, and the developing world. Besides having natural and artificial attractions, African cities have a poor image and brand. Those cities could position themselves strategically to attract more visitors if they adopt the developed framework for branding the CoJ. A competitive city is one which embellishes the value of its unique resource legacy through its promotion. A city's success is created and not inherited because it does not grow out of the blue. Consequently, the framework for branding the CoJ can help cities to carry out branding efficiently and effectively. The framework enables a city to assess its branding projects as well.

Prior to this study according to the researcher's knowledge no such comprehensive academic framework existed in the South African context especially in Johannesburg which could help cities carry out city branding efficiently and effectively from the stakeholders' point of view. Therefore, the framework for branding the CoJ provides city marketers with guidelines for branding their cities and a diagnostic tool for assessing existing city branding projects. Evidence from Johannesburg where this framework has been tested has shown that the framework is beneficial to cities/destinations because it can

enable them to carry out efficient and effective rebranding from a stakeholders' point of view. In addition, given that the framework for branding the CoJ is rooted in city/destination branding and socio-economic theory, its validation in this study implies that both city branding and competitiveness projects should be integrated and managed as a single programme.

From a practical perspective, this study addressed the perceived ambiguity of carrying out city branding from a top-bottom approach. The study, therefore, enables city marketers to realise that carrying out city branding from a bottom-up approach is better placed to realise efficient and effective city branding.

Through the FBJ, city marketers are able to apply appropriate structures and processes during city branding which promotes efficient and effective city branding. For example, according to the tested FBJ, it was noted that

- city marketers should consult with all the city stakeholders;
- develop the city's infrastructure;
- apply the city's unique competitive advantages (cultural heritage);
- design a logo and slogan for the city brand that speaks to the values of the city while representing the interests of all the stakeholders and industries in the city;
- appoint officials that monitor the city brand on a daily basis; and
- assess the performance of the city brand on the market continuously.

In terms of strategic management and marketing, this study has practical implications for these fields. For a city to be successful, it is important to adopt and implement a strategic and comprehensive approach that promotes strong relationships between all city stakeholders involved. Implementing this framework can reinforce the relationship between the attractions managers where cultural heritage is preserved and offered and the development of a city brand and image. Another practical contribution of this framework is that it points out that efficient and effective city branding is realised through infrastructure development and better integrated marketing communications.

The recommendations sections provided further evidence for the practical contributions of this framework (see Section 9.4).

9.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The following limitations regarding data collection and measurement approach became apparent in undertaking this study:

- First, the study has inherent drawbacks relating to the methods used, i.e. in-depth interviews and FGDs. Therefore, the findings cannot be generalised.
- Second, because the data were only collected in Johannesburg and in the eight tourism organisations, the perspectives of the 24 participants regarding the suggested framework for branding the CoJas a cultural heritage destination despite representing various groups in terms of age, gender, or position in the city, do not paint a full picture but only gives an insight of what these perspectives are. However, if a more representative number of city stakeholders were involved, they would have painted a full picture.
- Third, only tourism city stakeholders were included in this study, and non-tourism city stakeholders were not included.
- Fourth, perceptions of tourists who visited Johannesburg in the past or never visited or who wish to visit are equally important as opinions of the other city stakeholders (DMOs, residents, tour operators, NGOs, and business organisations); the former did not take part in the interviews or FGDs. It can also be argued that if visitors were also involved in this research, they were going to contribute valuable information towards the testing of the suggested framework.
- Fifth, the data for the current study were collected during the month of April 2022 and reported in 2023. The data were analysed in 2022 and interpreted and written up in 2023.

The following section suggests future research emanating from the current study.

9.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Based on this research, the following can be recommended for future research:

- It is recommended that future research should examine the approaches adopted and tools applied in different cities and destinations with the aim of corroborating the research's findings.

- Because the FBJ was validated using data collected from a purposive sample comprising a limited number of city stakeholders, it is essential that it is further tested on a bigger sample with better representativeness in terms of city stakeholder groups. Most importantly, the city stakeholder groups should particularly be enlarged to include other non-tourism stakeholders in the city (Rebelo *et al.*, 2020; Gilboa & Jaffe, 2021).
- The framework was tested in Johannesburg only. Given the intense competition for residents, investors and visitors regionally and globally, and the value of this framework in helping them to carry out city branding and evaluating already existing projects, it is important that the framework is validated regarding managerial relevance within the broader context in other cities in South Africa, Africa and other developing countries (Belabas, 2023).
- The present study focused on the perspectives of city tourism stakeholders in Johannesburg excluding prospective visitors. However, if prospective visitors and those who have visited before were involved, they could have contributed valuable information towards testing the suggested framework. Hence, future research should include prospective visitors and those who have visited before as they form part of the target market.
- City branding is a complex and revolving process. That data were collected in April 2022 and only reported in 2023 means that much has happened in terms of changes in policies, culture and even the mind-set means that continuous research is required.
- The present study did not test the conceptual and operational value of the framework; hence, future research should test the conceptual and operational value of the framework in Johannesburg and other cities.

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APPENDICES

**APPENDIX A:
ETHICS CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE**



**COLLEGE OF ECONOMIC AND MANAGEMENT SCIENCE RESEARCH ETHICS
REVIEW COMMITTEE**

24 January 2022

Dear Mr Davis Muzeza

NHREC Registration # : (if applicable)
ERC Reference # : 2021_CRERC_051 (FA)
Name # : Mr Davis Muzeza
Student No#: 46462287

**Decision: Ethics Approval from
2022 to 2026**

Researcher(s): Mr Davis Muzeza; 46462287@mylife.unisa.ac.za; 0113661614 & 0783626230
College of Economic and Management Sciences
Department of Applied Management
University of South Africa

**"A Framework for Branding the City of Johannesburg as a Cultural Heritage
Destination"**

Qualification: PhD

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the Unisa College of Economic and Management Sciences Research Ethics Review Committee for the above-mentioned research. Ethics approval is granted for 5 years (**24 January 2022 until 23 January 2027**).

*The **low risk application** was **reviewed** by the College of Economic and management Sciences Research Ethics Review Committee on **17 January 2022** in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics and the Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment.*

The proposed research may now commence with the provisions that:

1. The researcher(s) will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.
2. Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study should be communicated in writing to the College of Economic and management Sciences Research Ethics Review Committee.

3. The researcher(s) will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.
4. Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of participants' privacy and the confidentiality of the data, should be reported to the Committee in writing, accompanied by a progress report.
5. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study. Adherence to the following South African legislation is important, if applicable: Protection of Personal Information Act, no 4 of 2013; Children's act no 38 of 2005 and the National Health Act, no 61 of 2003.
6. Only de-identified research data may be used for secondary research purposes in future on condition that the research objectives are similar to those of the original research. Secondary use of identifiable human research data requires additional ethics clearance.
7. No field work activities may continue after the expiry date **(23 January 2027)**. Submission of a completed research ethics progress report will constitute an application for renewal of Ethics Research Committee approval.
8. Permission is to be obtained from the university from which the participants are to be drawn (the Unisa Senate Research, Innovation and Higher Degrees Committee) to ensure that the relevant authorities are aware of the scope of the research, and all conditions and procedures regarding access to staff/students for research purposes that may be required by the institution must be met.
9. If further counselling is required in some cases, the participants will be referred to appropriate support services.

Note:

*The reference number **2021_CRERC_051 (FA)** should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication with the intended research participants, as well as with the Committee.*

Yours sincerely,

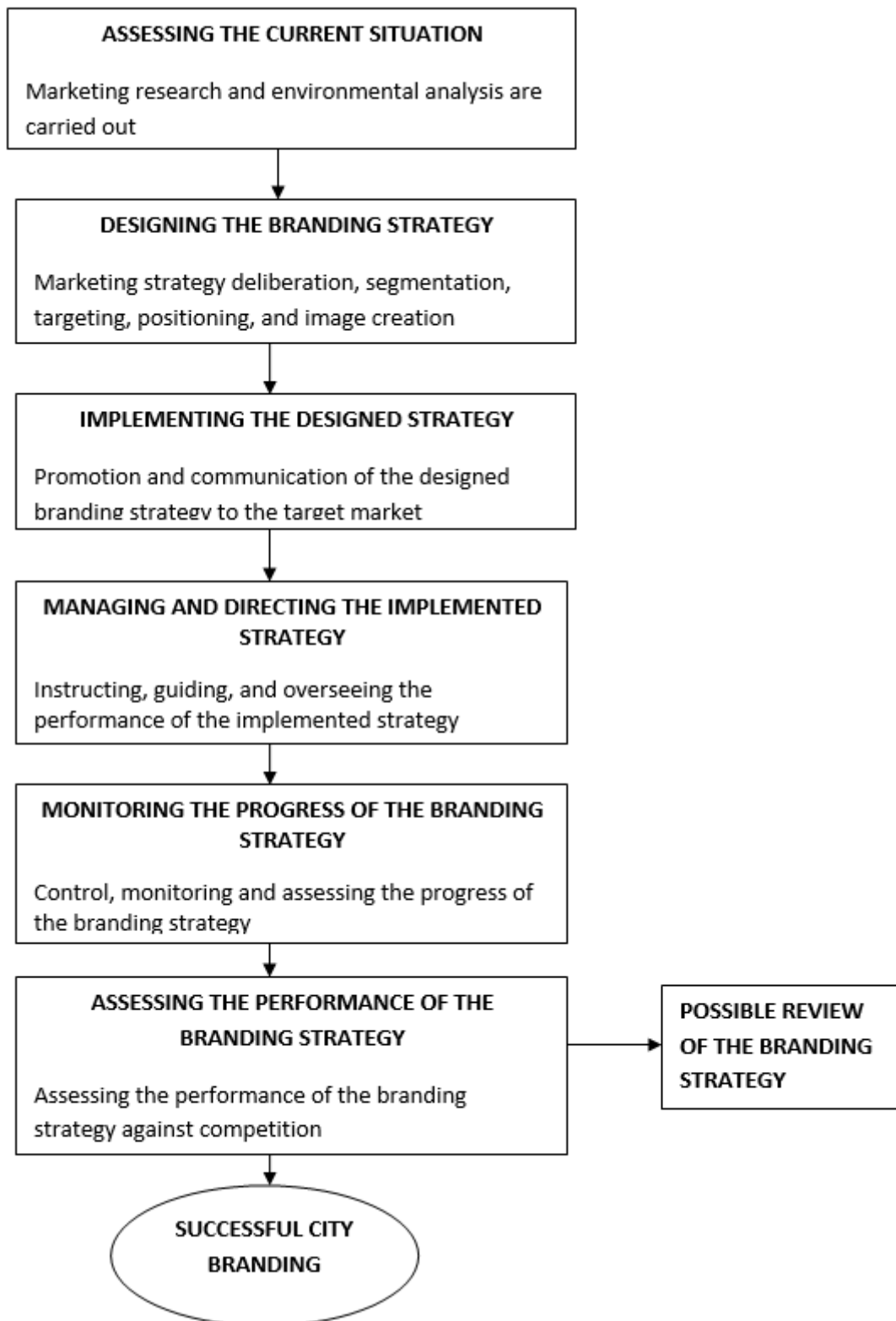


Prof Nisha Sewdass
Chairperson, CRERC
E-mail: sewdan@unisa.ac.za
Tel: 012 429 2795



Prof RT Mpofu
Deputy Executive Dean: CEMS
E-mail: mpofurt@unisa.ac.za
Tel: 012 429 4808

APPENDIX B
DISCUSSION AND INTERVIEW GUIDE



Participants: City stakeholders (Senior Managers at Gauteng Tourism Authority, Johannesburg Tourism Company, Registered tour operators with Gauteng Tour Operators Association, Chairpersons or senior members of Resident Associations in Johannesburg, Registered members of the Southern Africa Tourism Services Association, and Chairperson and researchers at the Johannesburg Heritage Foundation).

Research project: “A framework for branding the City of Johannesburg as a cultural heritage destination.”

Study Area: City of Johannesburg

Sample: Twelve (12) city stakeholders

Discussion: The aim of the focus group discussions is to explore the opinions and perceptions of city stakeholders in Johannesburg about the components for branding the City of Johannesburg successfully and the corresponding key components included in the template that has been drafted based on the suggested framework. This framework suggests six components, namely, assessing the current situation, designing the branding strategy, implementing the designed strategy, managing, and directing the implemented strategy, monitoring the progress of the branding strategy, and assessing the performance of the branding strategy. The participant is asked to consider the following questions and aspects and express his/her opinion on these.

(i)Background information

1. What is your role in this organization?
2. What do you think should be the role of your organisation in Johannesburg brand? How should your organisation be involved in the branding initiatives of the City of Johannesburg?

(ii)Assessing the current situation

1. How do you describe Johannesburg in short?

(iii)Designing the branding strategy

1. What should be Johannesburg’s brand? What do you think the procedures of decision-making should be?

2. How should the Johannesburg brand be complimented through a slogan or graphic or physical representation?

(iv)Implementing the designed strategy

1. How should the Johannesburg city brand be presented to its target market?

(v)Managing and directing the implemented strategy

1. Who should be responsible for the daily monitoring of the branding project for the city?

(vi)Monitoring the progress of the branding strategy

1. How should the Johannesburg city brand flair against competition? Who are these competitors?

(vii)Assessing the performance of the branding strategy

1. Howshould the Johannesburg brand’s target market view the brand? Has the city achieved its objectives?

(viii)The suggested branding framework

1. I have developed a framework for branding the city. How useful do you think the proposed framework would be in the branding of the city (in general) (branding components can be amended to suit any city or destination)?

2. How would this framework be useful and valuable in branding the City of Johannesburg?

3. Do you think that such a framework would improve the effectiveness and efficiency of Johannesburg’s branding as a cultural heritage destination?

4. Do you have any additional comments or ideas to incorporate to improve the suggested framework?

INTERVIEW GUIDE

Interviewees: City stakeholders (Senior Managers at Gauteng Tourism Authority, Johannesburg Tourism Company, Registered tour operators with Gauteng Tour Operators Association and Chairpersons of Residents Associations in Johannesburg).

Research project: “A framework for branding the City of Johannesburg as a cultural heritage destination”

Study Area: City of Johannesburg

Sample: Twelve (12) city stakeholders

Interview: The aim of this interview is to explore the opinions and perceptions of city stakeholders in Johannesburg about the components for branding the City of Johannesburg successfully and the corresponding key components included in a template that has been drafted based on the suggested framework. This framework suggests six components, namely; assessing the current situation, designing the branding strategy, implementing the designed strategy, managing and directing the implemented strategy, monitoring the progress of the branding strategy, and assessing the performance of the branding strategy. The interviewee is asked to consider the following questions and aspects and express his/her opinion on these.

(i) **Background information**

1. What is your role in this organisation?
2. What is your role in Johannesburg brand? How are you involved in the latest branding initiative for the City of Johannesburg?

(ii) **Assessing the current situation**

1. How do you describe Johannesburg?
2. What does Johannesburg try to achieve?
3. What does represent Johannesburg best?
4. What is the vision for Johannesburg? Has it been achieved?
5. What are the values?

6. What long-term strategies have you got to achieve this vision?

7. Who is the vision targeted at?

(iii) Designing the branding strategy

1. Who are the stakeholders involved in the Johannesburg city brand planning?

2. What is Johannesburg's brand? Why was it chosen?

3. Does the Johannesburg brand have a slogan or graphic or physical representation? Do these reflect values of the city?

(iv) Implementing the designed strategy

1. How is the Johannesburg city brand presented to its target market? Has the city been successful in doing so?

(v) Managing and directing implemented strategy

1. Are there officials responsible for the daily monitoring of the brand project for the city?

(vi) Monitoring the progress of the branding strategy

1. How does the Johannesburg city brand flair against competition? Who are these competitors?

(vii) Assessing the performance of the branding strategy

1. How does the Johannesburg brand's target market view the brand? Has the city achieved its objectives?

(viii) Branding framework

1. From your experience, is it important to brand the city?

2. Have you looked at previous Johannesburg branding projects and analysed their weaknesses?

3. Were any models or frameworks used in the analysis?

4. You say that Johannesburg is not attracting visitors to stay for long in the city. Is this the outcome of the analysis of the previous branding and their weaknesses?

5. Have you looked at the city's cultural heritage?
6. Have you tried to employ or consider cultural heritage in branding Johannesburg?
7. I have developed a framework for branding the city. Do you think the proposed framework would be useful in the branding of the city (in general) (branding components can be amended to suit any place)? Is it valid as a tool for successfully branding a city?
8. Would this framework be useful in branding of the City of Johannesburg?
9. Looking at the framework, are the components of the framework applicable to Johannesburg?
10. Is there anything missing in this framework?

APPENDIX C
PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET (IIS)

ERC Reference: 2021_CRERC_051 (FA)

DATE:

**TITLE: A FRAMEWORK FOR BRANDING THE CITY OF JOHANNESBURG
AS A CULTURAL HERITAGE DESTINATION**

Dear Prospective Participant

You are invited to participate in an in-depth interview conducted by Davis Muzeza under the supervision of Prof Cine Van Zyl, a Professor in the Department of Applied Management towards a PhD at the University of South Africa. We are inviting you to participate in a study entitled – A framework for branding the City of Johannesburg as a cultural heritage destination.

The aim of this study is to develop a framework for branding the CoJ as a cultural heritage destination. I am conducting this research to find out what the destination stakeholders in Johannesburg think about the branding of the city. You were selected to participate in this survey because of your expertise in city marketing and you will not be eligible to complete the survey if you are younger than 18 years.

I managed to get your contact details from the Gauteng Tourism Authority and would like you to participate in the study owing to your knowledge about destination marketing. Hence, I chose to conduct in-depth individual interviews (IIs) with senior managers/chairpersons/registered members from your company/organisation based on their expertise in the subject under investigation.

You are going to respond to questions that will reveal your perceptions about branding the city as a cultural heritage destination. The study involves audio/visual interviews using Microsoft Teams as per COVID-19 protocol. If you chose to participate in it will take up no more than 45 minutes of your time. You are free to decide the time you will be free to be interviewed.

You are further reminded that participation is voluntary in nature and that there is no penalty or loss or benefit for non-participation. If you do decide to take part,

you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a written consent form. You are free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason.

You will not benefit from your participation as an individual; however, it is envisioned that the findings of this study will promote successful marketing of the City of Johannesburg in the highly competitive market which will lead to increased visitation, and increased spending from visitors which lead to socio-economic prosperity of the city. Above all, this study will lead to a relatively positive image of the City of Johannesburg which has been tainted by high levels of crime and lawlessness, economic maladministration, and outbreaks of pandemics such as HIV/AIDS and most recently COVID-19 and ultimately promote tourism in the country.

We do not foresee that you will experience any negative consequences by completing the survey. The researchers undertake to keep any information provided herein confidential, not to let it out of our possession and to report on the findings from the perspective of an individual. The principal researcher, supervisors, external assessors, and the co-coder will have access to the information. However, the later have since signed confidentiality agreement reiterating that they will keep the information confidential. Privacy will be protected through the use of password protected files, encryption when sending information over the internet and paper-based data will be kept in a locked room and drawers. The interview will be recorded, and audio taped via MS Teams. Recordings will be conducted in a way that does not link participants' responses with identifying information. To realise this, participants will be identified by identifiers.

The records will be kept for five years for audit purposes where after it will be permanently destroyed, hard copies such as interview notes will be shredded, and audio recordings will be permanently deleted from the hard drive of the computer. You will not be reimbursed or receive any incentives for your participation in the survey. Participants will be informed of the findings or results through the thesis available in the repository at the University of South Africa available in the public domain.

The research was reviewed and approved by the College of Economic and Management Sciences' Ethics Review Committee. The primary researcher, Davis Muzeza, can be contacted during office hours at 063 004 0899 or 46462287@mylife.unisa.ac.za. The study leader, Prof C. Van Zyl, can be contacted during office hours at vanzyl@unisa.ac.za or 012 433 4615.

Should you have any questions regarding the ethical aspects of the study, you can contact the Chairperson of the College of Economic and Management Sciences' Ethics Review Committee, Dr Engelbrecht at engelm1@unisa.ac.za. Alternatively, you can report any serious unethical behaviour at the university's Toll-Free Hotline 0800 86 96 93.

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet and participating in this study.

Thank you

**APPENDIX D
LETTER OF CONSENT**

ERC Reference: 2021_CRERC_051 (FA)



CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY

I, ,confirm that the person asking my consent to take part in this research has told me about the nature, procedure, potential benefits and anticipated inconvenience of participation.

I have read (or had explained to me) and understood the study as explained in the information sheet.

I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and am prepared to participate in the study.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without penalty (if applicable).

I am aware that the findings of this study will be anonymously processed into a research report, journal publications and/or conference proceedings.

I agree to the recording of the focus group discussion.

I have received a signed copy of the informed consent agreement.

Participant name and surname.....

Participant signature.....Date.....

Researcher's name and surname.....

Researcher's signature.....Date.....

Witness's signature.....
Date.....



**APPENDIX E
CERTIFICATE OF EDITING**

EDITING AND PROOFREADING CERTIFICATE

22 Osche Street

The Reeds

Centurion

0157

06 December 2024

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This certificate serves to confirm that I have edited D Muzeza's thesis titled, **"A framework for branding the City of Johannesburg as a cultural heritage destination."**

I found the work easy and intriguing to read. Much of my editing basically dealt with obstructionist technical aspects of language, grammar and syntax, which could have otherwise compromised smooth reading as well as the sense of the information being conveyed. I hope that the work will be found to be of an acceptable standard. I am a member of Professional Editors' Guild.

Hereunder are my contact details:



Jack Chokwe (PhD – University of Leicester (United Kingdom))

Contact numbers: 072 214 5489

jackchokwe@gmail.com

Professional
EDITORS
Guild



**APPENDIX F:
GATEKEEPER LETTER**



P.O. Box 722, Newtown, 2113

28 September 2021

Contact: Ms **Snowy Mattera** (Interim Chairperson) Cell: 072 200 7704 Email:
snowyms@lantic.net

Mr Simphiwe Hlatswayo (Treasurer) Cell: 078 603 8373 Email:
mhaises@yahoo.com

This letter serves as permission for Davis Muzeza, PhD student at UNISA, Department of Applied Management, College of Economic and Management Sciences to conduct research at our association where he would be interviewing three of our registered members and discussing with at least two of our members in a focus group discussion.

His thesis is entitled "A framework for branding the City of Johannesburg as a cultural heritage destination"

Our organization will appreciate feedback or any report of the thesis at any time that suits

Mr Davis Muzeza. We will discuss the feedback received with the candidate.

The nominated registered members are as follows:

1. Mr Simphiwe Hlatswayo, cellphone :078 603 8373 Email:
mhaises@yahoo.com
2. Mrs PhumiKalala, cellphone 083 856 7812,
Email:KalalaPC@eskom.co.za

3. Mrs Esther Msibi , cellphone 082 728 3245, Email:
sesinqobile@gmail.com

4. Mrs Sophie Motsogi, cellphone 083 307 4390, Email:
jmttours@yebo.co.za

We have supplied four names in case one of them is not able to commit later on.

We wish Mr Davis Muzeza well in his research.

Yours Faithfully

Ms Snowy Mattera (Interim Chairperson)

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Snowy Mattera', is written over a light grey rectangular background.

**APPENDIX G:
SIMILARITY REPORT**

complete thesis for examination

ORIGINALITY REPORT

20%	18%	12%	9%
SIMILARITY INDEX	INTERNET SOURCES	PUBLICATIONS	STUDENT PAPERS

PRIMARY SOURCES

1	uir.unisa.ac.za <small>Internet Source</small>	2%
2	docplayer.net <small>Internet Source</small>	1%
3	hdl.handle.net <small>Internet Source</small>	1%
4	Submitted to University of South Africa <small>Student Paper</small>	1%
5	www.researchgate.net <small>Internet Source</small>	<1%
6	dspace.nwu.ac.za <small>Internet Source</small>	<1%
7	gtg.webhost.uoradea.ro <small>Internet Source</small>	<1%
8	Marios D. Sotiriadis. "Culinary tourism assets and events: suggesting a strategic planning tool", International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 2015 <small>Publication</small>	<1%