

**AN INTERNAL INTEGRATED MARKETING COMMUNICATION APPROACH FOR CITY
BRANDING**

by

REFILWE MARLENE MABULA

Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

**MAGISTER ARTIUM (COMMUNICATION SCIENCE): CORPORATE AND MARKETING
COMMUNICATION**

in the

DEPARTMENT OF COMMUNICATION SCIENCE

FACULTY OF THE HUMANITIES

at the

UNIVERSITY OF THE FREE STATE

BLOEMFONTEIN

FEBRUARY 2019

SUPERVISOR: DR LUCREZEA DE LANGE

CO-SUPERVISOR: DR DALMÉ MULDER

DECLARATION

I, Refilwe Marlene Mabula declare that the dissertation, *An internal integrated marketing communication approach for city branding* submitted for the Masters of Arts: (Communication Science): Corporate and Marketing Communication degree at the University of the Free State is my independent work, and that I have not previously submitted it for a qualification at another institution of higher education.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The culmination of this research dissertation would not have been possible without the grace and mercy of the Almighty Lord. Thank you heavenly father for igniting a spirit of resilience during the most difficult moments of this dissertation. Thank you for granting me the strength to continue working hard even when it seemed impossible to complete my research.

A sincere gratitude to the National Research Foundation for funding this research and to my employer, the University of the Witwatersrand, for partially funding my studies. Without the financial support, this study would not be possible.

To my supervisor, Dr L. De Lange and my co-supervisor, Dr D. Mulder, thank you for your continued support and your intellectual guidance throughout this research. Your academic insights were truly inspiring. It was a great honour to learn from you. Thank you for sculpting my intellectual thinking.

A heartfelt thank you to my guardian angels, my lovely grandparents, Mr Samuel Boikanyo Mabula and Mrs Kelatlhegile Emily Mabula. Mama and Papa, I owe all my academic achievements to the both of you. Your support through my studies has been immensely remarkable. Kealeboga go menagane.

To my aunt, Mrs Matshego Sylvia Sefoli, words cannot describe my gratitude to you. Mamanie, thank you for being a shoulder to cry on when the completion of this dissertation was gloomy. I could not have done it without your love and comfort. To my mother, Mrs Kelebogile Priscilla Moeca, thank you for your sacrifices in ensuring that I got a decent education. I hope I have now made you a very proud mother.

A special thank you to Mrs Neo Poole from the Sol Plaatje Municipality in Kimberley, for linking me up with all the key stakeholders/role players in the tourism sector. Thank you for assisting me with a kind heart. Modimo a go atise.

To all participants, thank you for the interest in my topic and for allocating me your time

during your busy schedules to assist me. Your willingness to talk to me was humbling. This research would not be possible without your responses.

Last but not least, to all my friends and colleagues, your words of motivation and courage helped me to finish this race. I am grateful for your advice throughout this process. Thank you for allowing me to vent when I was feeling distressed.

Thank you to Barbara Shaw, for her professional and sound editing. Your meticulous eye during the editing of this dissertation is highly appreciated.

Jermiah 29v11: For I know the plans I have for you, plans to prosper and not harm you.

ABSTRACT

The global competition amongst cities necessitates the need for cities to brand themselves. The practice of city branding is growing, with many cities pioneering unique ways to build their brands. City branding is becoming increasingly popular due to the numerous benefits that it holds for cities. The city of Kimberley has a rich history of diamond mining and the Big Hole is a popular tourist attraction in the city. Despite this strong brand asset, it appears that the strength of the city brand has deteriorated.

The study sought to answer the research question: *How can an internal integrated marketing communication approach be used to empower the tourism sector of Kimberley, and enhance the Kimberley city brand?* For this study, one research question and primary research objective was set. The goal of this study was to provide guidelines for an internal integrated marketing communication approach for the tourism sector of Kimberley. To attain this goal, the following secondary objectives were set: to determine the nature and scope of city branding and brand equity; to give an overview of the importance of an internal focus in integrated marketing communication; and to investigate the knowledge and experiences of the role players in the tourism industry of Kimberley regarding the brand Kimberley.

Considering the aim and objectives of the study, a qualitative approach was followed and a literature review and phenomenology were used as research strategies. The former was through a review of relevant literature on the main theoretical domains of the study and the latter through in-depth interviews to assess the knowledge of Kimberley's key tourism role players about the city.

Results suggested that there is lack of brand awareness of the Kimberley city brand and, amongst the internal stakeholders, the brand's identity is not clear. They also suggest that the city has a poor internal brand image that evoked negative brand attitudes, making it difficult for the city to build brand equity and strengthen its brand to compete with other cities. The same results suggest that there is there is poor management of the brand internally. Feelings of disheartenment emerged due to the non-integrated marketing communications in the city that explained the lack of brand awareness in the city.

The conclusions of the study indicated that there was a lack of internal collaborative partnerships amongst the role players to elevate the Kimberley brand due to the fact that the tourism sector did not operate as system. This also indicates that a lack of internal communications, internal branding and internal marketing in the city highlight its weak internal relationships. To address the identified challenges, participants suggested a number of interventions to improve the visual image of the city, by improving cleanliness and the city's dilapidated infrastructure. Since the tourism sector is services based, participants believed that the Kimberley brand can be improved if employees are empowered through customer training. The need to build strategic partnerships to propel the vision of the city was also highlighted. Moreover, as a first step to address the issues raised, much needed attention needs to be paid to the physical appeal of the city. From these conclusions, recommendations were supplied based on the "4 p's" of city brand management, namely, people, process, place and partnerships.

It is anticipated that this study will assist internal stakeholders in Kimberley on how to improve the city branding strategies in an effort to enhance the image of city.

Key words: Branding; City branding; Brand equity; Integrated Marketing Communication; Internal branding; Internal marketing; Internal communication; Phenomenology

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	ii
ABSTRACT	iv
LIST OF FIGURES	xi
LIST OF TABLES	xi
LIST OF ACRONYMS	xii
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW OF STUDY	1
1.1 BACKGROUND	1
1.2 RESEARCH PROBLEM.....	4
1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS.....	4
1.3.1 Primary research question	5
1.3.2 Secondary research questions.....	5
1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES.....	5
1.4.1 Primary objective	5
1.4.2 Secondary objectives.....	5
1.5 GUIDING ARGUMENTS.....	6
1.6 META-THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK.....	6
1.6.1 General Systems Theory	7
1.6.2 Constructivism as world view	8
1.6.3 Theoretical domain 1: Branding	10
1.6.3.1 <i>City branding</i>	11
1.6.3.2 <i>Internal branding</i>	12
1.6.3.3 <i>Brand Equity</i>	13
1.6.4 Theoretical domain 2: Integrated Marketing Communication.....	14
1.6.4.1 <i>Integrated Marketing Communication Mix</i>	15
1.6.4.2 <i>Internal Communications</i>	16
1.6.4.3 <i>Internal Marketing</i>	17
1.7 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	18
1.7.1 Research approach	19
1.7.2 Research strategy	19
1.7.3 Phase A: Qualitative data collection	20
1.7.4 Phase B: Qualitative data collection	20
1.7.5 Phase A: Data Analysis.....	20
1.7.6 Phase B: Qualitative explication of data.....	21
1.8 SAMPLING PROCEDURE	21
1.9 PREVIOUS RESEARCH CONTRIBUTIONS ON CITY BRANDING.....	22
1.10 DELIMITATIONS.....	27
1.11 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS	28

1.12 VALUE OF STUDY.....	28
1.13 STRUCTURE OF THE DISSERTATION	28
CHAPTER 2 BUILDING AN EQUITABLE CITY BRAND	31
2.1 INTRODUCTION	31
2.2 THE ORIGINS OF CITY BRANDING.....	32
2.3 CITY BRANDING DEFINED.....	34
2.4 ELEMENTS USED IN CITY BRANDING.....	37
2.4.1 Presence	38
2.4.2 Potential	38
2.4.3 Pulse	38
2.4.4 Pre-requisites	38
2.4.5 People.....	38
2.4.6 Place	39
2.5 MANAGING A CITY BRAND.....	40
2.5.1 Stage 1: What we are now?.....	43
2.5.2 Stage 2: What are our options?.....	44
2.5.3 Stage 3: What do we want to be?	44
2.5.4 Stage 4: What do we need to do?	45
2.6 CITY BRANDING STRATEGIES.....	47
2.6.1 Strategy 1: The Creative City	48
2.6.2 Strategy 2: The Experience City	50
2.6.3 Strategy 3: Travel Motivations	54
2.7 TECHNIQUES AVAILABLE FOR CITY BRANDING	54
2.7.1 Marketing Communications	55
2.7.2 Graphic Designing.....	55
2.7.3 Architecture and events	55
2.7.4 Branded Exports	57
2.7.5 Online and mobile marketing.....	59
2.8 BUILDING A SUCCESSFUL CITY BRAND.....	60
2.9 ADVANTAGES OF A STRONG CITY BRAND.....	61
2.10 CITY BRANDING CHALLENGES	68
2.11 BRAND EQUITY AND CITY BRANDING	71
2.12 BRAND EQUITY DEFINED.....	71
2.13 BRAND EQUITY COMPONENTS	74
2.13.1 Brand loyalty.....	74
2.13.2 Brand awareness	77
2.13.3 Perceived quality	80
2.13.4 Brand associations.....	84
2.13.4.1 Attributes.....	87
2.13.4.2 Benefits	89
2.13.4.3 Attitudes	91

2.13.5 Brand Image	95
2.14 ELEMENTS OF A CITY BRAND WHICH BUILD BRAND EQUITY.....	100
2.15 BRANDING A CITY THROUGH ITS IMAGE	102
2.16 MANAGING BRAND EQUITY	105
2.17 A CONCEPTUAL MODEL FOR BUILDING A CITY BRAND.....	105
2.18 SUMMARY	111
CHAPTER 3 INTERNAL INTEGRATED MARKETING COMMUNICATION	113
3.1 INTRODUCTION	113
3.2 IMC: A CONTEMPORARY APPROACH	115
3.2.1 IMC Defined.....	116
3.2.2 Factors which contributed to the development of IMC	119
3.2.3 Benefits of IMC	120
3.2.4 Marketing Communications Mix	123
3.2.4.1 <i>Direct Marketing</i>	125
3.2.4.2 <i>Events and Sponsorships</i>	126
3.2.4.3 <i>Advertising</i>	126
3.2.4.4 <i>Personal Selling</i>	126
3.2.4.5 <i>Sales Promotion</i>	126
3.2.4.6 <i>Publicity, public relations and word-of-mouth</i>	127
3.2.4.7 <i>Digital Media Marketing</i>	127
3.3 BRAND CONTACT POINTS IN IMC.....	128
3.4 COMMUNICATING FOR INTERNAL INTEGRATION IN ORGANISATIONS	130
3.4.1 Internal Communication.....	131
3.4.2 Internal Marketing.....	132
3.4.3 Internal branding.....	137
3.5 IMC AND BUILDING RELATIONSHIPS WITH STAKEHOLDERS TO BUILD BRAND VALUE.....	140
3.6 SUMMARY	143
CHAPTER 4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	145
4.1 INTRODUCTION	145
4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN	145
4.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	146
4.4 Research strategies	148
4.4.1 Phase A: Literature Review.....	148
4.4.2 Phase B: A phenomenological research strategy	150
4.5 DATA COLLECTION	153
4.5.1 Phase A: Data Collection	153
4.5.2 Phase B: Data Collection.....	154
4.6 DATA ANALYSIS AND EXPLICATION OF DATA.....	157
4.6.1 Phase A: Data Analysis.....	157
4.6.2 Phase B: Explication of data	157

4.7 SAMPLING PROCEDURE	159
4.8 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY	160
4.8.1 Supervision	161
4.8.2 Member Checking	161
4.8.3 Triangulation	161
4.8.4 Thick description	162
4.8.5 Peer Debriefing and Audit Trail	162
4.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS	163
4.10 LIMITATIONS	164
4.11 DIFFICULTIES IN CONDUCTING THE RESEARCH	165
4.12 SUMMARY	166
CHAPTER 5 PHENOMENOLOGICAL RESEARCH RESULTS	167
5.1 INTRODUCTION	167
5.2 DEMOGRAPHIC DESCRIPTION OF PARTICIPANTS	167
5.2.1 Ethnic groups of participants.....	168
5.2.2 Compliance with ethical requirements	168
5.3 INTERVIEW QUESTIONS	169
5.4 DATA EXPLICATION PROCESS.....	169
5.5 METHOD OF REPORTING	175
5.6 THEMES AND SUB-THEMES EXPLICATED FROM THE DATA	175
5.6.1 Interview findings regarding interview question 1.....	175
5.6.1.1 <i>Mixed opinions about Kimberley as brand</i>	175
5.6.1.2 <i>Strong brand assets</i>	177
5.6.1.3 <i>Brand association</i>	179
5.6.1.4 <i>Internal stakeholders are brand loyal</i>	180
5.6.1.5 <i>Lack of brand awareness</i>	182
5.6.1.6 <i>Unique brand features</i>	184
5.6.1.7 <i>Poor internal brand image</i>	186
5.6.1.8 <i>Lack of communication and engagement</i>	188
5.6.1.9 <i>Poor brand management</i>	189
5.6.1.10 <i>Lack of internal collaborative partnerships</i>	191
5.6.1.11 <i>Weak relationships among internal stakeholders</i>	194
5.6.2 Interview findings regarding interview question 2.....	195
5.6.2.1 <i>Negative brand attitudes</i>	196
5.6.2.2 <i>Disintegrated marketing communications disheartenment</i>	199
5.6.2.3 <i>Stakeholders feel they are not operating as a system</i>	202
5.6.3 Interview findings regarding interview question 3.....	203
5.6.3.1 <i>Effective brand awareness initiatives</i>	203
5.6.3.2 <i>Integrate efforts to build synergy</i>	205
5.6.3.3 <i>Improve the visual image of the city</i>	208
5.6.3.4 <i>Capitalise on city's culture and heritage</i>	212

5.6.3.5 Improved service delivery	214
5.6.3.6 Heighten internal branding and marketing initiatives.....	216
5.6.3.7 Enhance flow of internal communications.....	217
5.6.3.8 Conduct brand research.....	218
5.6.3.9 Update information and improve brand contact points	219
5.6.3.10 Promote brand through events.....	221
5.6.3.11 Transform and upgrade Kimberley brand.....	222
5.6.3.12 City brand leadership needed	223
5.6.4 Interview findings regarding interview question 4.....	224
5.6.4.1 Economic development and growth	224
5.6.4.2 Increased flow of investments	225
5.6.4.3 Job creation.....	226
5.6.4.4 More tourists and visitors	226
5.6.4.5 Infrastructure development.....	227
5.6.4.6 Publicity and international exposure	228
5.6.4.7 Improved quality of life.....	229
5.6.4.8 Empowerment and diversity.....	229
5.6.4.9 Positive brand associations.....	230
5.6.4.10 Contributions that stakeholders can make to add value to Kimberley brand.....	230
5.7 SUMMARY	240
CHAPTER 6 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	241
6.1 INTRODUCTION	241
6.2 REVIEW OF THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES	241
6.3 CONCLUSIONS RELATED TO RESEARCH OBJECTIVES	242
6.3.1 Conclusions regarding the first secondary research objective (RO).....	242
6.3.2 Conclusions related to the second secondary RO	244
6.3.3 Conclusions regarding the third secondary RO	247
6.3.3.1 Conclusions regarding interview question 1	247
6.3.3.2 Conclusions regarding interview question 2	250
6.3.3.3 Conclusions regarding interview question 3	251
6.3.3.4 Conclusions regarding interview question 4	256
6.4 RECOMMENDED GUIDELINES FOR AN INTERNAL IMC APPROACH IN THE TOURISM SECTOR OF KIMBERLEY TO IMPROVE BRAND KIMBERLEY	257
6.4.1 Recommendations related to the primary research objective	258
6.5 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY.....	261
6.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH	262
6.7 VALUE OF THE STUDY.....	263
REFERENCES	264
APPENDIX A: ETHICAL CLEARANCE	292
APPENDIX B: PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM	293

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1 : City brand hexagon (Anholt 2006)	37
Figure 2.2: Brand equity model adopted by Aaker (2008)	73
Figure 2.3: Aaker's model of brand equity (Aaker 1996).....	74
Figure 2.4: Brand switching amongst brand loyal customers (Elliot & Percy 2007).....	76
Figure 2.5 Brand awareness, salience and attitude leading to brand loyalty (Elliot & Percy 2007)	79
Figure 2.6: Mutual dependency of city branding and spatial quality (Kavaratzis 2004)	82
Figure 2.7: Brand equity model (Brandt & Johnson 1997)	83
Figure 2.8: Brand equity model (Keller 1998).....	84
Figure 2.9. The types of brand associations (Batey 2008).....	86
Figure 2.10: Model of Brand Equity Synthesis (Elliot & Percy 2007).....	93
Figure 2.11: Customer based brand equity pyramid (Keller 2008)	98
Figure 2.12: City image communication (adopted by Kavaratzis 2004)	103
Figure 2.13: A proposed conceptual model for building a city brand equity	107

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1: Conceptualisation of study	7
Table 1.2: Summary of contributions of previous research on city marketing and city branding (Kazançoğlu & Dirsehan 2014).	23
Table 2.1: City brand management model (Gaggiotti <i>et al.</i> 2008)	43
Table 2.2: Ps in city brand management (Gaggiotti <i>et al.</i> 2008)	45
Table 2.3: Key Questions for Developing a City Brand Strategy (adopted by Dinnie 2011)....	53
Table 2.4: Benefits of branding (Parkerson & Saunders 2005)	67
Table 2.5: City Branding Challenges and Solutions (Govender 2006)	70
Table 3.1: Benefits of IMC.....	121
Table 5.1: Delineating units of general meaning	172
Table 5.2: Extracted units of general meaning	173
Table 5.3: Clustering of units of meaning to form themes.....	174

LIST OF ACRONYMS

BRICS	Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa
CBD	Central Business District
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CRM	Customer Relationship Marketing
DFA	Diamond Fields Advertiser
DMO	Destination Marketing Organisation
IC	Internal Communications
IM	Internal Marketing
IMC	Integrated Marketing Communications
MEC	Member of the Executive Council
NC	Northern Cape
NCTA	Northern Cape Tourism Authority
NGO	Non-Government Organisation
QOL	Quality of Life
SKA	Square Kilometre Array
USP	Unique Selling Proposition
UK	United Kingdom

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW OF STUDY

1.1 BACKGROUND

A strong brand provides business value well beyond physical assets. This secret weapon is used by products, companies, services, individuals and also by cities. Cities are now continuously branding and rebranding themselves with the ultimate goal of improving their positions as destination hotspots, investment locations and places to study and live in (Parkerson & Saunders 2005). Every city needs a strong brand to successfully promote and communicate the city's vision and mission. According to Florian (2002) [in Kazançoğlu & Dirsehan 2014: 1], "cities have to develop original identities, and provide a unique experience in order to create a unique city image." The image and identity of a city brand (similar to a corporate brand) highlight the city's distinctiveness and is a core construct of a city brand. This image needs to be continuously marketed through effective branding strategies. A city brand is made up of six constituents, namely, place, presence, potential, pulse, pre-requisites and people (Anholt 2006). It is imperative for a city to position itself across all these six dimensions.

The city of Kimberley is the capital of the Northern Cape Province, South Africa, and is popularly known as the "diamond city" for its mineral resource, diamonds (SA Places, *n.d*). The discovery of diamonds in Kimberley was a significant find and a turning point, giving the city a lasting rich legacy. Despite this remarkable history and economic potential, the city of Kimberley is positioned number eight on the top ten cities in South Africa (South Africa Inspiring New Ways 2018) and it is not listed on the top 20 largest cities and towns in South Africa (Buzz South Africa 2018), even though it is the capital of the largest province in the country. The city of Kimberley is historically a mining town and is one of the only cities in the country with a tram, which first started to commute people in 1887 (Kimberley City Portal 2018). Today, the tram is used for tours around the Big Hole and the city. However, the state of the city is not always a pleasant sight for tourists. According to Beangstrom (2017), tourists visiting Kimberley's historic tram "are being exposed to taxi operators and commuters

relieving themselves in public.” This sight ultimately taints the image of the city for tourists. With the goal of improving the image of the city in order to promote it, city branding aims to create positive brand associations, which ultimately create brand equity for the city thereby improving its socio-economic standing.

Because of its history of diamonds, Kimberley is sometimes branded as the “city that sparkles”. This is contrary to some of the articles published in the local newspaper, *The Diamond Fields Advertiser* (DFA) [Wildenboer 2015], criticising the city’s lack of cleanliness and its poor tourism industry which has been described as “a shame to the city.” A well-known journalist and political analyst, Justice Malala, publicly brought the dismal state of the city’s tourism sector and infrastructure to the fore, describing the city, which is popularly known for its Big Hole Mine, as “just a hole” (Malala 2015), implying that the city is empty and has nothing more to offer and thus lacks value. Malala (2015) stated:

Kimberley, the provincial capital, is a mess. I arrived in town two weeks ago with my family and our hearts sank. We were there for the world-famous Big Hole and a few of the tourist attractions. We were deeply disappointed. First, the place looks shabby. The pavements are cracked, grass grows along most roads and the tourist attractions are poorly maintained. We went to the Big Hole, of course, and this was not too bad an outing, though the newly built parking and visitors’ centre could do with a grounds man. Grass is growing everywhere except the paved bits. The Rudd House, a historic building which most cities would kill to have in their midst and which could attract thousands of tourists a year, was locked and forlorn on a Saturday. The McGregor Museum and William Humphreys Art Gallery looked abandoned. Eh?

This statement by Malala reflects the lack of attention to the internal aspects, which contribute to the overall image of the city both visually and cognitively. The physical tourism attractions need to be of the same quality as promoted on marketing materials and deliver on that brand promise.

In an article published in the DFA (Wildenboer 2015) that further echoes Malala’s remarks on Kimberley, provincial spokesperson for the Democratic Alliance party, Boitumelo Babuseng, said that the “sparkling city” is rather a “shabby mess” which does not inspire and attract tourists to explore the province beyond the borders of Kimberley.

There are four offices dedicated to tourism in and around Kimberley, which could address some of the concerns raised by Malala (2015). These include the Sol Plaatje Municipality Tourism for regional tourism, the Francis Baard District Municipality, the Northern Cape Tourism Authority and the Department of Tourism and Economic Development, focusing on provincial tourism. Given the number of tourism authorities in Kimberley, a pivotal question to ask is: Are these entities' efforts integrated when it comes to improving the state of tourism in the city? Babuseng (in Wildenboer 2015) suggests a unified single entity to develop a strong tourism sector: "We need one unit with the capacity and the financial resources to do a good job and not the endless string of entities fumbling around in the dark" (Babuseng, in Wildenboer 2015: 3). The "one unit" proposed clearly indicates that there is a need for integration within these units to address the grievances raised within the tourism sector effectively.

City branding, as a marketing technique, is largely focused on the marketing of a reputable image of cities. The negative publicity of Kimberley in the media affects its image.

The Kimberley city brand, like any other brand, has a reputation, which is reflective of its image. This reputation is crucial in creating stakeholder engagements and building brand relationships. The relationship marketing of Kimberley as a city brand fosters long-term mutually and economically beneficial relationships with all stakeholders. Doorley and Gracia (2007) state that, just as people develop social capital, corporations and other organisations also develop reputational capital that helps them to build relationships and grow their organisations. Brand Kimberley must therefore build brand relationships by building its social and reputational capital through positive engagements with its internal stakeholders. In doing so, the city should be able to improve and grow its brand.

The tourism sector is largely dependent on the employees in the sector who are the single most important point of contact as they ensure that guests have a memorable visit. Employees in the sector could significantly contribute to the city's brand equity. As such, internal branding is part of the integrated marketing communications process. With internal branding, an organisation follows an inside-out approach, meaning that the branding process starts internally before it is externalised (Madhavaram, Badrinarayanan & McDonald 2005).

A process of internal branding starts with offering service quality within the industry and ensuring that this quality is reflected through all the key role players and employees. It is argued that a strong internal brand will enhance the overall city brand.

1.2 RESEARCH PROBLEM

The city of Kimberley is the capital city of the Northern Cape Province. The Northern Cape is geographically the biggest province in South Africa (Northern Cape Tourism Authority 2014). As stated previously, this city is famous for its mineral resource of diamonds, but the discovery of diamonds in Kimberley has not benefited the city, as the profits from the diamonds have not contributed sufficiently to infrastructure development in the city.

According to the Northern Cape Economic Development, Trade and Investment Promotion Agency (2012), the Northern Cape shows great potential for investment across a number of sectors, one being tourism. The tourism sector of the Northern Cape is vibrant and rich in culture and heritage. The province is also known for nature-based tourism and has received widespread media attention for hosting the Square Kilometre Array (SKA) Telescope (South African Radio Astronomy Observatory 2017). Despite the province's vibrant tourism, there is still a challenge in positioning the city of Kimberley as one of the top cities in the country. Without this position, it is difficult to attract investments to improve the city's infrastructure. It is therefore necessary to improve the city of Kimberley's branding in the tourism sector (accommodation facilities, entertainment facilities, local attractions, etc.). To brand the city of Kimberley successfully, the internal stakeholders of the city need to be an intrinsic part of the city branding strategy. What is known as the "diamond city" needs to be striking to attract people and investments into the city.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research problem mentioned above needs to be addressed through research questions, which could provide solutions to the problem. Wimmer and Dominick (2010: 16) suggest that "answering a research question or hypothesis requires a conceptualisation of the research problem and a logical development of the procedural steps." To address the research problem, a primary research question will be asked followed by the secondary questions.

1.3.1 Primary research question

How can an internal integrated marketing communication approach be used to empower the tourism sector of Kimberley and enhance the Kimberley city brand?

1.3.2 Secondary research questions

- What is the nature and scope of city branding and brand equity?
- What is the role of internal branding, internal marketing and internal communications in an integrated approach to marketing communication?
- How knowledgeable are the role players of the tourism industry in Kimberley about brand Kimberley and how do they experience brand Kimberley?

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The research objectives of the study were divided according to primary and the secondary objectives to focus the study.

1.4.1 Primary objective

The primary objective is to provide guidelines for an internal integrated marketing communications (IMC) approach in the tourism sector of Kimberley to enhance brand Kimberley.

1.4.2 Secondary objectives

A number of secondary objectives will be employed to address the primary objective. They are to:

- discuss the nature and scope of city branding and brand equity
- give an overview of the importance of an internal focus in integrated marketing communication
- investigate the knowledge and experiences of the role players in the tourism industry of Kimberley regarding brand Kimberley

1.5 GUIDING ARGUMENTS

The study will be directed by four guiding arguments that provide reasons for the use of key concepts and theories in the application of effective city branding. The guiding arguments are presented as hypothesis statements that guide the arguments, which will be presented in this study. According to Wimmer and Dominick (2010: 25), a hypothesis is “a formal statement regarding the relationship between variables and is tested directly.”The arguments are:

- 1.5.1** Guiding argument 1: City branding is essential to position a city in its stakeholders’ minds.
- 1.5.2** Guiding argument 2: A strong city brand builds brand equity for a city.
- 1.5.3** Guiding argument 3: IMC is an effective method of communication, which is able to deliver consistent, impactful messages to all the various stakeholders.
- 1.5.4** Guiding argument 4: The integration of all internal communication functions or activities plays an important role in establishing a strong city brand.

1.6 META-THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In light of the arguments stated above, the meta-theoretical framework of the study serves as a theoretical investigation of the research problem. This meta-theoretical framework is made up of the grand theory, worldview, theoretical domains and subfields within the theoretical domains. The grand theory of this study is the General Systems Theory and the worldview of the study will be constructivism. The two main theoretical domains of this study are branding and integrated marketing communications, with the subfields being city branding, internal branding, brand equity, marketing communications mix, internal communications and internal marketing. All these domains are focused on the objectives of the study. The table below (Table 1.1) illustrates the meta-theoretical framework of the study.

Table 1.1: Conceptualisation of study

Grand Theory	General Systems Theory	
Worldview	Constructivism	
Theoretical domains	Branding	Integrated Marketing Communication
Subfields within theoretical domains	City Branding Internal Branding Brand Equity	Marketing Communication Mix Internal Communications Internal Marketing
Theories/Approaches from the respective subfields within the theoretical domains	Symbolic interactionism theory Keller’s brand equity model Aakar’s brand equity model Customer based brand equity pyramid	Relationship marketing Customer relationship management Two-way symmetrical communication
Concepts	City management Urban governance City image communication Brand associations Brand image Brand Identity Competitive advantage Financial value Benefits Perceptions Loyalty	Message consistency Holistic marketing approach Synergy Stakeholder relationships Service quality

1.6.1 General Systems Theory

The General Systems Theory has been adopted as the grand theory of this study. The systems theory, founded by Ludwig von Bertalanffy (Wood 2004), views systems as integrated wholes. Von Bertalanffy’s years of biological research led him to the theory, which concluded that “organisms function and continue to exist as a result of organised dynamic interaction among other parts” (Wood 2004: 162). In essence, a general system is functional and effective when it is organised and has interrelated parts. Wood (2004: 163) defines a system in the field of communications as “a group of interrelated and interacting parts that function as a whole.”

In order to establish an internal integrated marketing communication approach to city branding, this study views the different parts of the tourism sector in Kimberley as interrelated. Communication therefore needs to be a two way process. This study will show the interdependence of the various parts of the tourism sector in Kimberley in terms of their marketing communication efforts and their need to be dependent on each other to become a unified whole.

Littlejohn and Foss (2008: 41) explain this phenomenon by describing systems theory as one of the communication traditions “which uses system principles to show how things in many different fields are similar to one another, forming a common vocabulary for communication across disciplines.” As explained by Littlejohn and Foss (2008), all the various stakeholders, in this case, in the tourism sector of Kimberley, need to have a common vocabulary, that is, a unified voice that is aligned throughout all their communication efforts. Constructivism, discussed below, will be relevant in unifying those voices.

1.6.2 Constructivism as world view

This study is approached from a constructivist world view. Constructivism explains the way in which people construct meaning (Wood 2004). It states that human knowledge is constructed through social interaction and is underpinned by symbolic interactionism. “It argues that humans construct meaning by using cognitive schemata to make sense of experiences” (Wood 2004: 312-313). Furthermore, constructivism poses questions, such as: how have the people in this setting constructed meaning?; what are their reported perceptions, ‘truths’, explanations, beliefs, and worldviews? (Patton 2002: 132). These are questions central to constructivism and are relevant to the research questions presented in this study.

According to Littlejohn and Foss (2008), constructivism investigates the manner in which human knowledge is constructed through social interaction. These authors assume that the identity attached to something is developed from the way in which people talk about that aspect and their own social experiences around that particular aspect. It can therefore be argued that perceptions are formed through personal experiences and within social interactions as people converse around the object or phenomenon and share knowledge

about it. For the key role players in the tourism sector of Kimberley, their knowledge of Kimberley is constructed through their interactions with the brand. Moreover, their perceptions and knowledge of the brand is further construed through their interactions with other people who have personal experiences with the brand.

The symbolic interactionism theory is concerned with the common set of symbols, which people use to construct their realities and understand their interactions (Patton 2002). Moreover, "it is a movement within sociology, which focuses on the ways in which people form meaning and structure in society through conversation" (Littlejohn & Foss 2008: 159). According to Patton (2002: 132), the central question around symbolic interactionism is "what common set of symbols and understandings has emerged to give meaning to people's interactions?" A number of assumptions are associated with symbolic interactionism. According to West and Turner (2010), the manner in which people assign meaning to symbols within social interaction is based on the meaning other people have for them, their interaction with those people and modifying their meaning through an interpretative process.

Symbols play an important role in communication (Littlejohn & Foss 2008; Wood 2004) and exist in everyday communication. Symbols define social standings, social interactions and the social representations of individuals. Through these symbols, which in a marketing context denote brands, people are able to develop various associations with the symbols as they assign meaning to them. According to Wood (2004: 23), "symbols allow us to name experiences which is the primary way we give meaning to our lives." In social settings, symbols allow people to have different meanings for various concepts (Littlejohn & Foss 2008). Therefore, associations play an imperative role in understanding the way in which people assign and form meaning. The manner in which people view brand Kimberley, as a symbol within their social standings, creates various associations with the city of Kimberley brand through numerous interactions with it among its internal stakeholders. This study will be led by two main theoretical domains, namely, branding and integrated marketing communications. These will form the backbone of this study and are pivotal in addressing the research question of how the tourism sector in Kimberley can be empowered through integrated marketing communications to enhance its city brand. The following section

discusses these two domains.

1.6.3 Theoretical domain 1: Branding

Marketing literature reveals that branding cannot exist without a brand and a brand cannot go without branding (Maurya & Mishra 2012; Ilmonen 2007). Branding is therefore the first step in creating a distinguishable brand for the city of Kimberley. The concept of branding, in the field of marketing, highlights the distinctiveness of the specific brand. According to Todor (2014: 59), “a brand cannot function without a strategy and strategic marketing’s role is to implement this strategy of branding or ‘brand building’.”

Stigel and Frimann (2006) argue that there is a distinct difference between a brand and branding. These authors explain that branding is an activity inspired by the characteristics of brands and the benefits of branding. Furthermore, branding is an activity used to establish, maintain and extend a brand based on the organisation’s desired identity, vision and mission (Kapferer 2004). As noted by Thellefsen and Sørensen (2013), branding is the integration of brand values by brand users into the brand so it is trustworthy. As such, a successful brand is the result of this branding process. Basu and Palazzo (2008: 337) state that a “branding narrative aims at generating a good reputation and delivering a consistent brand experience.” Branding guru, David Aaker in his book, *Aaker on branding: 20 Principles that drive success* (2014), elaborates on what a brand denotes:

A brand is far more than a name and a logo, it is an organisation’s promise to a customer to deliver what the brand stands for not only in terms of functional benefits but also emotional, self-expressive, and social benefits. But a brand is more than delivering a promise. It is also a journey, an evolving relationship based on the perceptions and experiences that a customer has every time he or she connects to the brand. Brands are powerful. They serve the core of a customer relationship, a platform for strategic options, and a force that affects financials, including stock returns (Aaker 2014: 1)

The city of Kimberley should strive to be more than a city brand and be the type of brand described by Aaker (2014) above. To create such a city brand, Rainisto (in Azevedo 2004: 1779), states that “branding is a natural starting point for place marketing, as it forces a place to determine the essential contents of marketing.” A discussion on city branding, a component of place marketing and a subfield of branding, ensues.

1.6.3.1 City branding

The economy of a place is crucial to the operationalisation of the place, its governance structures, processes and systems. One of the many aims of most cities is to direct investment by branding the city and promoting its image through various interventions to improve development within the city (Kavaratzis 2004; Parkerson & Saunders 2005; Ashworth & Kavaratzis 2007; Zhang & Zhao 2009; Dinnie 2011). These interventions may include human capital and resources, the education system, infrastructure development, business opportunities, tourism and residency, amongst others (Ashworth & Kavaratzis 2007; Zhang & Zhao 2009).

The importance of investment and a city's economic development were emphasised by the Premier of the Northern Cape, Sylvia Lucas (2014) at the BRICS (Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa) conference, which was held in Kimberley in October 2014. Lucas referred to Kimberley as the capital city of the Northern Cape while talking about the investment potential of the province at large. According to Lucas, the Northern Cape aims to contribute to the social and economic development of the country and it desires to bring economic prosperity through investment opportunities. Moreover, Lucas stated that the province is rich in mineral resources, which could be effectively utilised to advance the city by trading the resources. She further suggests that such mineral resources can attract private and foreign investment, improving the province's "voice and choice around the world" through economic growth (Lucas 2014).

According to Sevin (2014), the increasing investment in branding campaigns by towns, cities, regions, and countries is spurred by the need to establish a reputable image for them in the competitive global marketplace and essentially to define them to their respective target audiences. The growth of city branding over the years has become a popular activity within city management. Cities across the world are now moving towards this type of marketing for promotion purposes and to attract relevant investors, visitors and residents (Ashworth & Kavaratzis 2007). The branding initiatives which enhance the visual appeal of a city brand include anything from "striking logos and captivating slogans that feature in welcoming websites and advertising campaigns in national and international media," amongst other

initiatives (Ashworth & Kavaratzis 2007: 1). These initiatives are not only limited to “look and feel” branding or promotion but also include strategic branding initiatives such as internal branding.

1.6.3.2 Internal branding

In this study, it is argued that internal branding plays a role in building a strong city brand. This notion is formed on the basis that the strength of a brand, crucial in generating financial gains and economic benefits, needs to be harnessed internally before promoting it externally (Madhavaram *et al.* 2005; Berndt & Trait 2012). This argument is made on the premise that what is done for marketing outside should first be done inside the respective organisation.

The concept of internal branding which emerges from internal marketing (IM), is based on the idea that employees need to be motivated in their workplaces or duties to provide excellent quality services. They are brand ambassadors who build the brand from the inside, providing the same service rendered externally, internally as well. In doing so, employees within an organisation are also knowledgeable on the brand values and brand personality of their organisation. In service-oriented businesses, employees become the main stakeholder group in the service rendering process (Ouwensloot & Duncan 2008). By promoting brand values and goals internally, employees become internal customers of their organisations.

Internal branding has the ability to make employees understand their organisational brand by taking ownership of the brand and making sure that the brand is reflected in their daily responsibilities (Judson, Gorchels & Aurand 2006). Internal branding can therefore be defined as “the adoption of the branding concept inside an organisation to ensure that employees deliver the brand promise to the external stakeholders” (Foster, Punjaisri, & Cheng 2010: 401). This can also increase the enthusiasm and emotional attachment of employees, which subsequently leads to strong commitment to their companies.

Cities need to adopt a similar approach for building a strong city brand. Employees in Kimberley need to exhibit high levels of motivation and commitment to the city brand to deliver the brand’s promise effortlessly. When employees are committed to the brand, they can easily be aligned to Kimberley’s brand vision and identity, which they can “live up” to.

Internal brand commitment captures “the extent of psychological attachment of employees to the brand, which influences their willingness to exert extra effort towards reaching the brand’s goals, that is, to exert brand citizenship behaviour” (Burmam, Zeplin & Riley 2009: 266). Kimberley’s employees in the tourism sector can be motivated to go the extra mile in their duties if they are attached to the brand.

Malmelin and Hakala (2009) note that, for employees to be motivated, internal branding requires the support of an internal communications programme, which can inspire employees to support the brand vision. As indicated by Lloyd (2002: 65 in Kaplan 2017), internal branding is the “sum of a company’s efforts to communicate to existing and prospective staff that it is a desirable place to work.” Communication is therefore integral to internal branding as a vehicle to reach employees.

Internal communications (IC) is also an important driver of internal branding. IC plays a role in communicating the brand identity and culture to employees, thus bringing them closer to the organisation’s vision and making them more customer-focused. Customer centric employees are essential for building equity for the organisation’s brand. The concept of brand equity is introduced in the ensuing section.

1.6.3.3 Brand Equity

Strong brands are measured through the value attached to the brand. This value is described in terms of brand equity. Brand equity is determined by a number of factors including, but not limited to brand awareness, brand loyalty, brand association, perceived quality and brand image (Aaker 1998; Keller 1998; Aaker 2008). These elements contribute to building a successful brand. Ouwersloot and Duncan (2008: 48) add that a “brand’s success depends on retaining customers and good customer relationships lead to retention.” Brand equity is therefore established based on the consumers’ brand meaning (M’zungu, Merrilees & Miller 2010), and establishing good customer relationships to build strong brand equity for the brand.

According to Belch and Belch (2012), brand equity is an asset, which provides brands with the power to command a premium price from customers as well as investors. Kotler and Kaferer

(2008) note that these brand assets are the awareness and image components of a brand as perceived by the consumer. Therefore, brand equity is dependent on the consumer who places a certain value on the brand and, as a result, it is an incremental process that builds brands around customer segmentation (Rust, Zeithaml & Lemon 2004). In their brand equity equation, Duncan and Moriarty (1997) note that a brand can attain brand support through brand relationships, which are created through the various forms of communication.

Strong brand equity gives cities a firm position to compete in the global marketplace against other cities. For Kimberley as a city and a brand, building strong brand equity can improve the city's standing amongst other cities, making it more competitive thereby attracting more investments. Because city branding is an economically driven marketing activity, the role of building brand equity as part of a city's economic development strategy is crucial. The only way in which brand equity can be achieved is through an integration of various marketing communications techniques. The concept of integrated marketing communications, which is the second theoretical domain of this study, is discussed below.

1.6.4 Theoretical domain 2: Integrated Marketing Communication

Porcu, Del Barrio-García and Philip (2012: 326) define integrated marketing communication (IMC) as

the *interactive* and systemic process of *cross-functional planning* and optimisation of messages to stakeholders with the aim of communicating with *coherence and transparency* to achieve synergies and encourage *profitable relationships* in the short, medium and long-term.

Integrated marketing communication is concerned with the packaging, delivery, and the management of all other brand messages, which influence how customers and other stakeholders perceive the brand. The process of building a strong city brand through a branding strategy that highlights the distinctiveness of the city entails communicating the brand through various techniques of integrated marketing to targeted audiences or consumers (Ouwensloot & Duncan 2008).

IMC involves building a brand, creating and maintaining its relationships, as well as developing

consistent brand messages through various combined media, techniques and methods (Ouwensloot & Duncan 2008). IMC combines all the marketing and communication techniques to deliver consistent messages to all the stakeholders of an organisation. When communicating messages about brand Kimberley, an integrated approach needs to be followed to achieve synergy, whilst building relationships with stakeholders. All the various forms of communication need to be interrelated to be harmonious in response to a changing marketing environment (Grigorescu & Lupu 2016).

Belch and Belch (2012) attribute the growth of IMC over the past decades to its ability and power to develop and sustain both brand identity and brand equity. A company's identity is created based on the premise of how it wants its stakeholders to see it and this is done through IMC. To achieve brand success, every company strives for brand equity which, like brand identity, can be built through an integration of various marketing and communication techniques. These techniques are discussed below as the integrated marketing communication mix.

1.6.4.1 Integrated Marketing Communication Mix

Marketing communication is a collective term for all the various types of planned messages used to build a brand – advertising, public relations, sales promotion, direct marketing, personal selling, packaging, events, sponsorships and customer service (Ouwensloot & Duncan 2008: 9).

The overall objective of marketing communications (and marketing as its primary domain) is to build brands, which ultimately generates revenue for the brand or company concerned (Ouwensloot & Duncan 2008). In essence, “the more successful a company is at building its brand or brands, the more profits it will make and the greater its brand equity will be” (Ouwensloot & Duncan 2008: 9).

These messages are collectively referred to as the marketing communication mix or the IMC promotional mix (Ouwensloot & Duncan 2008; Belch & Belch 2012; Koekemoer 2014). These promotional techniques are used by branding and marketing strategists to ignite a desired favourable response from the targeted audience (Yeshin 2001).

Additionally, brand messages, through marketing communications techniques, are packaged to establish brand relationships with consumers. For Kimberley to gain and build effective relationships with consumers and to gain support for its brand, the IMC mix should be used to deliver brand messages effectively. Effective working relationships in the city of Kimberley are thus essential, both internally and externally, for maximum exposure across the province and country because “communication is used to engage and build relationships, so businesses can no longer afford ineffective communication” (Mulder 2015: v).

Modern day consumers are tech-savvy and thus require more than one technique to be convinced to buy into the brand. The integration of these marketing communication techniques sends impactful, clear and consistent messages to targeted audiences. A discussion on internal communications follows.

1.6.4.2 Internal Communications

The concept of internal communications, as a driver of the internal branding (see Section 1.6.3.2), was introduced earlier. Employees of a company are internal brand custodians. Internal communications can support IMC by reaching internal stakeholders and communicating brand messages internally to employees. This study will argue that IMC is an effective method of communication that ensures that consistent, impactful messages are sent to all the various stakeholders. A company’s stakeholders also include internal audiences, who are mostly employees, therefore brand communication efforts also need to be extended to employees. Internal communications is a form of communication that allows companies to communicate with their employees, consistently through impactful messages. The internal focus of the study highlights the essence of communicating with internal stakeholders when sending messages about brand Kimberley.

According to Fill and Turnbull (2016: 312),

the values transmitted to customers, suppliers and distributors through external communications need to be reinforced by the values expressed by employees, especially those who interact with these external groups.

These authors describe this form of communication as vital in motivating employees to

identify with the brand's identity and values. This means that messages to both internal and external audiences need to be consistent and congruent with each other to ensure impactful communication to all stakeholders.

For the tourism and services industry, it is particularly important for employees to have shared values with the organisation. Effective internal communications not only improve the organisational capability but also affect the delivery of customer services (Egan 2015). Additionally,

internal communications may be seen as a means of creating a more knowledgeable, democratic, training-oriented organisation, resulting in greater professionalism, greater empowerment and, ultimately, improved customer services (Egan 2015: 307).

Channelling brand communications internally is an "inside-out" approach to integrated marketing communications (Porcru *et al.* 2012). An "inside-out" approach, as the name suggests, refers to the internal planning, creation and execution of messages before selling the messages to consumers (Kerr, Schultz, Patti & Kim 2008).

1.6.4.3 Internal Marketing

The concept of internal marketing (IM) relates to an organisation's marketing practises to its employees (Dülgeroğlu & Taşkin 2015) to create brand conscious employees. According to Mishra (2010), employees need to be educated and have brand knowledge so they can contribute to making the organisation globally competitive. Extending marketing practices to employees is also important for cities, particularly in the services sector.

Mishra (2010: 185) believes that "in service organisations, frontline employees are critical to the success of the organisations as they are in direct contact with external customers." The practice of internal marketing recognises that employees need to be treated as internal customers (Mishra 2010) so that they become brand champions who understand the brand from within and who are able to share brand knowledge with external customers. IM aims to achieve service excellence by motivating employees so that they become customer-conscious (Mishra 2010). To brand a city successfully and improve its brand, employees need to be motivated to deliver the best service to their clients.

Hasaballah, Ibrahim and Abdallah (2014) and Makvandi, Aghababapoor & Mondanipour (2013) assert that employees are the most valuable organisational resources therefore “internal marketing must precede external marketing” (Berndt & Tait 2012: 82). A range of internal marketing activities can be used as an approach to build a spirit of service mindedness in employees (Mishra 2010). Successful execution of an organisation’s services is dependent on well-coordinated and aligned internal marketing activities, which ultimately promote the brand positively to customers (Berndt & Tait 2012).

Rafiq and Ahmed (2000: 449) define IM as

a planned effort using a marketing-like approach to overcome organisational resistance to change and to align, motivate, and inter-functionally coordinate and integrate employees towards the effective implementation of corporate and functional strategies in order to deliver customer satisfaction through a process of creating motivated and customer oriented employees.

Through IM, the focus is not only on delivering consistent messages, but also to reinforce employee behaviour, whilst promoting the company’s brand and policies to employees as if they are customers (Koekemoer 2014). By practising internal marketing in service organisations to heighten Kimberley’s city branding efforts, employees can effectively represent the brand. Furthermore, Makvandi *et al.* (2013) assert that when internal marketing is implemented in the services sector, employees gain competencies, which can allow them to enhance their performance.

However, Al-Hawary, Al-Qudah, Abutayeh, Abutayeh and Al-Zyadat (2013) note that these organisations first need to employ the right people who are satisfied enough to achieve customer satisfaction. The level of employee satisfaction is reflected in the state of customer satisfaction (Mulder 2008b). In essence, customers will only be satisfied when employees are satisfied.

1.7 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

According to Mouton (2001: 49), the research design of a study addresses a key question: “What type of study will be undertaken to provide acceptable answers to the research

questions?” It indicates a plan of how the research will be conducted (Mouton 2001). There are four types of research designs which can be undertaken to conduct research, namely, exploratory, descriptive, correlation and explanatory (Bless, Higson-Smith & Kagee 2006). This study will follow an exploratory design as it explores ways to improve the internal brand of Kimberley within the tourism sector in order to contribute ultimately to a stronger city brand. The major emphasis in an exploratory design is to gain ideas and insights (Churchill & Iacobucci 2009). The research will be implemented in two phases namely, Phase A and Phase B.

1.7.1 Research approach

The study will follow a qualitative research approach in both research phases. This approach is appropriate for this study as it provides a sensitive and meaningful way of recording human experiences (Bless *et al.* 2006) and allows the researcher to examine people’s experiences in detail (Hennink, Hutter & Bailey 2011).

1.7.2 Research strategy

Within the qualitative paradigm, two research strategies will be employed for the study, namely, a literature review and phenomenology. In order to make sense of the theories behind the arguments of this study, a review of the relevant literature will be conducted in Phase A. According to Onwuegbuzie, Leech and Collins (2012), the literature review is the most important step of the research process as it aims to answer the research questions. Furthermore, this process provides an interpretation of sources relevant to the study or topic under investigation, giving a greater understanding of key aspects of the study.

In Phase B of the study, phenomenology will be employed. According to Littlejohn and Foss (2008: 37), phenomenology is the way in which human beings come to understand the world through direct experience. Phenomenology is thus interpretative in nature and is based on how people interpret the world they live in. According to Patton (2002: 132), phenomenology, as a research strategy, has its disciplinary roots in philosophy, addressing central questions such as: “what is the meaning, structure and essence of the lived experience of this phenomenon for this person or group of people?” In this study, phenomenology will be used

to reflect on the way in which people in the tourism industry in Kimberley understand and experience brand Kimberley.

1.7.3 Phase A: Qualitative data collection

During the first phase, relevant documentation and literature will be used to collect the data for the literature review.

1.7.4 Phase B: Qualitative data collection

In Phase B, in-depth phenomenological interviews will be conducted. According to Hennink *et al.* (2011), this type of in-depth interview provides information on individual and personal experiences from people (in the tourism industry) about a specific issue or topic (city branding) and captures their individual voices and stories. A phenomenological interview schedule prepared by the researcher was used to guide the interviews. Groenewald (2004) proposes that a phenomenological interview schedule should be based on four elements, namely, experiences, beliefs, feelings and convictions. An adapted version of Groenewald's interview questions will be employed in this study.

1.7.5 Phase A: Data Analysis

Two types of data analysis techniques can be followed for Phase A of the study, which is a literature review. These include a "within-study literature analysis" and a "between-study literature analysis" as proposed by Onwuegbuzie *et al.* (2012).

According to Onwuegbuzie *et al.* (2012: 5), a between-study literature analysis "involves comparing and contrasting information from two or more literature sources", while the within-study literature analysis entails analysing the findings of bodies of empirical research. For this study, a within-study analysis will be employed. This form of analysis, unlike a between-study analysis, does not only analyse the empirical findings of a study but all the components of a study which include the title, literature review, theoretical framework, methodologies, discussion and conclusion (Onwuegbuzie *et al.* 2012). The literature analysis will be followed by the study of a specific or singular component of the literature sources. Through this, a critical review of the literature will be observed.

1.7.6 Phase B: Qualitative explication of data

In Phase B, data will be explicated for the phenomenological study. The explication of data will investigate the themes of the phenomenon under study by interpreting the data. Such a process, which is done thematically,

is one that looks across all the data to identify the common issues that recur, and identify the main themes that summarise all the views you have collected (Patton 2002: 440).

Codes will be developed from the data transcribed from the interviews. Codes refer to an issue, topic, idea or opinion. Coding therefore means using these codes as topical markers to index the data (Hennink *et al.* 2011). The data will be coded numerically according to the different themes and patterns, which emerge from the data. These codes will be narrowed down and categorised. The qualitative data explication will be done as per the steps suggested by Hycner (in Groenewald 2004). These are explained in Chapter 4.

1.8 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

For the phenomenological interviews during Phase B, participants will be selected using a purposive sampling technique. The sample will be drawn from managers of accommodation facilities, the local municipalities, businesses, entertainment facilities, tourism authorities, tour guides and attractions in Kimberley as well as other relevant role players in the tourism sector. The purposive sampling method will be used deliberately as selection is based on the researcher's judgement (Niemann 2002) that participants will have knowledge on the tourism sector that might be relevant to the objectives of the study. The Tourism Manager at the Sol Plaatje Municipality in Kimberley will also be approached to provide a comprehensive list of the prominent individual role players in the tourism sector in Kimberley because he/she is most knowledgeable about the tourism sector in Kimberley and will be able to direct the researcher to knowledgeable participants for the study. This list will include the internal stakeholder group of tourism in Kimberley and some who are involved with Kimberley from a provincial level. The participants will be selected based on their knowledge of the subject being studied, relevance to the project, their willingness to participate in the study, as well as their availability. They will be contacted via email and telephonically. In addition to the purposive sampling, a snowball sampling approach will also

be incorporated to recruit more participants when participants mention other role players in the tourism sector who might also be relevant to the study.

The sample size will be determined when thematic saturation is reached, thus a theoretical sample will be used. This means that interviews will continue until the topic is exhausted and the participants add no new information or perspectives on the subject (Groenewald 2004).

1.9 PREVIOUS RESEARCH CONTRIBUTIONS ON CITY BRANDING

An overview of studies relevant to the current study uncovered the key concepts and features of city branding. Previous research on city or place branding conducted in South Africa analysed destination branding image, tourist perceptions (Dreyer 2010), the influence of culture led city branding (Virasamy 2011), and urban branding which focused on the economic development of the inner city of Johannesburg (Mlangeni 2009).

A study almost similar to the current one was conducted to explore the perceptions and opinions of the residents of Pietermaritzburg on their town (Govender 2006). However, the focus of the study was within the business management domain, while the current study has an internal focus.

City branding, as an emerging field in marketing and urban studies, has limited empirical research, however, Table 1.2 below by Kazançoğlu and Dirsehan (2014) summarises these contributions and encapsulates international authors who contributed to the literature.

Table 1.2: Summary of contributions of previous research on city marketing and city branding (Kazançoğlu & Dirsehan 2014).

Researcher(s)	Research Subject	Contributed Research findings and Brand Dimensions
Van Limburg (1998)	Identification of important levels of attributes in city marketing	The important attributes for a city are found to be (in importance order): <i>Events</i> , history, shops and pubs.
Hankinson (2001)	Exploration of the role of branding for 12 cities in the UK	Organisational complexity and control, <i>the management of partnerships</i> , product complexity and the measurement of success.
Hankinson (2004)	Proposal of a conceptual model of place branding. This model is based on relational and network marketing paradigms for destinations	The relational network brand as a service-oriented approach, involves <i>stakeholder engagement</i> , infrastructure, access service, hygiene facilities (car parks, toilets, and open spaces) and the brandscape (destinations heritage), <i>media</i> (publicity, public relations, advertising) and service (retailers, hotels, events and leisure activities) relationships. The core brand involves brand personality, positioning and reality.
Trueman, Klemm and Giroud (2004)	Application of corporate identity methodology to the city of Bradford	The “communicated” <i>identity</i> matches the “actual identity”, local policy makers are to find common ground to build an “ideal” identity, negative media images that give the city a “problem” label in terms of a negative “conceived” identity, to develop a “desired” identity to meet the requirements of different communities.

Hankinson (2005)	Identification of brand images from a business tourist perspective in 15 English cities	Physical environment, Brand attitudes, People.
Laaksonen, Laaksonen, Borisov and Halkoaho (2006)	Measurement of city image in order to get consensus within target groups and managers from different sectors	Nature, Industry, Culture, Built environment, Atmosphere.
Trueman, Cornelius & Killingbeck-Widdup (2007)	Understanding of stakeholder perceptions that contribute to brand regeneration in Bradford, UK	<i>Positive assets</i> (e.g. environment, location, architecture, people and infrastructure), <i>Negative assets</i> (e.g. poor air quality, poor visual appearance, lack of cleanliness, transport problems, crime and poor facilities).
Martínez, Barrio-García, Zapata and Molina (2007)	Description of city image dimensions and the relationship between image and satisfaction of residents in Granada	<i>Architectural appeal</i> , urban appeal, heritage preservation, pollution problems, environmental commitment, social problems, commerce and tourism, importance of the university and citizen self-perception. The effect of city image on satisfaction is also shown using a structural model.
Cheng and Taylor(2007)	Development of branding strategies in Almaty (Kazakhstan)	Greenness, Cultural and ethnic diversity, Soviet-styled buildings, Leisure time activities.
Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2008)	Identification of the stages of place marketing development and understanding significant issues	Collective agreement on <i>place marketing</i> , Coordination and cooperation between all stakeholders, Expansion into other fields, Local communities' participation in place branding process, Measuring the place rankings.

Kavaratzis (2009)	Identification of eight components of an integrated city brand-management framework based on corporate-level marketing theories	Vision and Strategy, Internal Culture, Local Communities (local residents, entrepreneurs and businesses), Synergies, Infrastructure, Cityscape and Gateways, Opportunities (urban lifestyle, good services, education etc., financial, labour), Communications.
Freire (2009)	Identification of local people as the important factor for a place brand building process	Local people are a critical dimension in differentiating and selling the place brands.
Merrilees, Miller and Herington (2009)	Identification of key antecedents influencing city brand attitudes	Social bonds, sun and surf brand personality, business creativity, safety, nature, cultural activities, shopping facilities and <i>clean environment</i> are the major antecedents of <i>city brand attitudes</i> .
Kaplan, Yurt, Guneri and Kurtulus (2010)	Measurement of brand personality for city brands	The study reveals two new dimensions for <i>cities' brand personality</i> : Malignancy and conservatism.
Hankinson (2010)	Identification of potential research areas based on a thematic review of the mainstream branding and place branding literatures through cross-disciplinary study. Takes into account the views of practitioners and managerial applications	<i>Brand architecture</i> (well-served by hotels, attractive historical buildings), stakeholder management, brand funding and brand reality (match the brand experience to the brand promise).
Zenker, Knubben and Beckmann (2010)	Evaluation of the perception of the different target groups in the city of Hamburg	<i>Brand associations</i> strongly differ between the various target audiences to differentiate brand communication.

Brandt and Mortanges (2011)	Determination of student perceptions for Liege (a university town) and using BCM (Brand Concept Mapping) for cities	The results indicate that Liege is recognised for its nightlife, its young population and its historical heritage.
Hanna and Rowley (2011)	Development of a multi-level conceptual model of strategic place brand management	Brand evaluation; brand infrastructure relationships; place brand articulation; and <i>brand communications</i> .
Lucarelli and Berg (2011)	Identification and analysis of the main characteristics of city branding literature	Sales, promotion, regeneration, <i>marketing and branding of cities</i> .
Walker (2012)	Proposal for a relational branding communication process, based on Hankinson (2004) network relational branding for places	The residents' corresponding <i>constructs of image</i> , affect, position and brand identity is added to the conceptualisation of the <i>relational place branding</i> , except personality, positioning.
Kavaratzis and Hatch (2013)	Focus on the stakeholder participation in the creation, development and ownership of place brands	<i>Participatory branding</i> means all the stakeholders participating in place branding and investment, and two-way communication. Understand what stakeholders feel and think about their own place.

In addition to Table 1.2 above, previous research on city branding and destination branding conducted in South Africa include research by Ndlovu (2009) who conducted a study on branding to reposition the destination survey of key tourism stakeholders in Zimbabwe. However, because of its analysis of Zimbabwe's tourism stakeholders, this study took on a national branding focus.

Two studies related to the current study on city branding were conducted by Hemmonsbey (2015) focusing on the strategic value of sport to the Cape Town city brand and by Bothma (2015) which proposed a city branding framework for selected cities in the North West Province. Although both studies were on city branding, they focused on different sectors and stakeholders, that is, sport and residents. Moreover, while these studies both focused on internal audiences, that is residents and employees, neither focused on an internal integrated marketing approach to city branding. These studies provided minimal information on place branding with regards to integrated marketing communications theories and the importance of internal branding, internal marketing and internal communications. The current study addresses all these aspects within the tourism sector of Kimberley in two phases.

1.10 DELIMITATIONS

This study focuses on Kimberley only and therefore the findings of the study will not necessarily represent the situations in other cities. Moreover, it only focuses on internal branding, and not the total branding strategy. The guidelines developed in this study will be applicable to internal marketing activities only.

Furthermore, a specific population was identified for the study, which would be able to provide the best insight and knowledge of the tourism sector of Kimberley. These are people who have a direct link or influence on the tourism sector in terms of strategies, functioning and offerings. For these reasons, other residents of Kimberley were not studied as they were not role players and did not have a direct influence on the sector. This reason is also applicable to the tourists visiting the city. They have an economic influence however they are recipients of the tourism offerings. Studying residents and tourists would have nullified the objectives of the study.

1.11 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical considerations are an important aspect in a research study to ensure that ethical standards were met throughout the study (Pellisier 2013). The study was therefore presented to the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Humanities, at the University of the Free State.

In adhering to ethical standards, reliability and validity need to be factored in to ensure that the findings of the study are morally acceptable and can be trusted (Pellisier 2013). In an effort to enhance reliability and validity, supervision, peer debriefing, audit trail, member checks, thick description and triangulation were employed in this study. These are discussed in Chapter 4.

Confidentiality and anonymity of participants will be guaranteed to the selected participants to ensure that the study does not infringe on their privacy. Informed written consent to conduct and include the interviews as part of the study will be obtained from all the participants.

No form of concealment or covert observation will be used in this study. The participants will be clearly informed that the research is for degree purposes only. Participation in the study is voluntary and participants will not be offered payments or inducements to encourage their involvement in the project. These ethical considerations were reviewed by the Research Ethics Committee and the study obtained ethical clearance number UFS-HSD2016/1302.

1.12 VALUE OF STUDY

The study will contribute to the body of knowledge on marketing communication and city branding, and will present ways to improve city branding. Furthermore, the study will provide guidelines to the marketing communication industry, as well as organisations and governments involved with tourism on how to improve the brand of a city. The biggest contribution of the study will be the guidelines on how to use internal IMC to build a brand as these guidelines could be adapted to other industries to make a valuable contribution to the building of other types of brands.

1.13 STRUCTURE OF THE DISSERTATION

Figure 1.1 below illustrates the structure this dissertation will follow. The study will be structured according to six chapters. A brief synopsis of each chapter is discussed below.



Figure 1.1 : Structure of dissertation

Chapter 1 provided an overview and introduction to the study. This chapter introduced the background of this study, the research problem and the subsequent objectives in addressing the problem. Moreover, the meta-theoretical framework, which provided the guiding arguments, was also discussed. A synopsis of the research design and methodology was provided. Lastly, the impact and significance of conducting this study were discussed in this chapter. A brief description of the ensuing chapters is provided below.

Chapter 2 provides a review on branding, city branding and brand equity. An exposition of

branding and city branding will be provided, as well as their characteristics. This will be done as an introduction to the central focus of the study, namely, city branding. The section under city branding will present the different strategies that can be employed to successfully brand a city. A framework on how to communicate a city brand to its various stakeholders and the processes involved in doing so will also be provided. Furthermore, the chapter will explain why it is crucial for cities to brand themselves. The first section will be summed up by highlighting the distinct difference between city branding and the traditional forms of branding which are corporate and product branding. The second section of this chapter will review literature on how to build brand equity for a city. In Chapter 2, a review of the management of brand equity is also explored. The researcher will provide a critique of four popular models for branding equity and a discussion on which model is best suited for the needs of this study will be shared. Based on the discussion and critique provided, a model for building city brand equity will be conceptualised.

With the literature review on city branding in the preceding chapter, Chapter 3, *Internal integrated marketing communication* will explain the role of internal branding, internal marketing and internal communications within an integrated marketing communication approach. In doing so, the origin of IMC will be explained. This chapter will explore the various techniques of IMC, specifically, those relevant to this study.

In Chapter 4, the research design and methodology introduced in the first chapter are explained in greater detail. A discussion on how the study ensured its validity and credibility will take place followed by the limitations of the study as well as the ethical standards, which were followed.

The results of the study, which are an analysis and interpretation of the data, are presented and discussed in Chapter 5. The last chapter, Chapter 6, is the conclusion and recommendations of the study. This chapter will provide internal integrated marketing communications guidelines to improve city branding in Kimberley through the tourism industry. These guidelines will be provided in relation to the literature reviewed in the preceding chapters, the needs analysis of the tourism industry as well as the interpreted data. Emerging gaps from the study will also be recommended for future studies.

CHAPTER 2

BUILDING AN EQUITABLE CITY BRAND

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Cities, like commercial and product brands, need to follow a branding process to market and promote themselves for a specific strategic intention and to target specific groups. Since the introduction of city branding in the marketing framework, city brands have often been compared to products (Zhang & Zhao 2009). Similar to product branding, cities also need to highlight their distinctiveness from other cities. In order to do this, cities need to have a branding strategy to achieve their marketing objectives.

One of the failures of city branding is a lack of consensus on the city brand and the gap between image and reality (Kong 2012). For these reasons, a city brand must be clearly defined in the early stages of the process to establish brand identity (Kong 2012). Owing to the varied stakeholders, a city's brand identity not only constitutes the image of the city and its economy or distinct features, but also the belief systems of these stakeholders. The city brand needs to be representative of all its people, including the local residents, because the brand is their "sense of home" (Pike 2008: 186). They then can be effective brand champions within the identified brand communities. Brand champions and brand communities are key in the development of a destination brand identity (Pike 2008). Additionally, for city branding to be successful, Kazançoğlu and Dirsehan (2014: 1) suggest that "marketers should focus on the experiences of both residents and tourists" to define key target audiences and to tailor marketing messages and strategies around those target audiences.

Cities, like commercial brands, have the same financial objective of generating revenue for economic development. In the case of city brands, this can be achieved when a city has strong brand equity. Brand equity is the value attributed to the brand through various elements. In a competitive global market place, cities need to build brand equity to secure a stronger and better position than their competitors. Ultimately, strong brand equity can reap financial benefits for the city, contributing significantly to the local economic development of the city.

In the last section of this chapter, the concept of brand equity will be elucidated and a number of brand equity models will be discussed to serve as an introduction to the role and importance of brand equity. Lastly, based on the models presented and the literature discussed, a conceptual city brand equity model will be proposed.

This chapter focuses on objective one of this study, which is to discuss the nature and scope of city branding and brand equity. Two arguments will be presented in this section. Firstly, it will be argued, with supporting literature, that city branding is essential to position the city in its stakeholder's minds and, secondly, that a strong city brand builds equity for a city.

2.2 THE ORIGINS OF CITY BRANDING

City branding has become prominent within the highly competitive global marketplace. Many cities are increasingly making use of branding practices to promote themselves to relevant audiences, such as investors, visitors and residents (Ashworth & Kavaratzis 2007). The concept of city branding draws inspiration from concepts such as nation branding, destination branding, and region branding which fall under the umbrella terms of place marketing or place branding.

According to Ilmonen (2007), the concept of city branding became popular in the early 1990s when cities, regions and nations started creating brands for themselves. Because city and place branding are both geographical terms, they can be used interchangeably. The need for place branding was sparked by the neo-liberal turn of the 1980s that saw a growing demand for more effective management in the public sector (Ilmonen 2007). Kazaçoğlu and Dirsehan (2014) believe that place branding is a useful starting point for city branding because it focuses on residents' perceptions.

According to Parkerson and Saunders (2005), the research on place or city marketing can be drawn from three disciplines: urban development, tourism and marketing management. In urban development, place branding has been used as an urban governance strategy for managing perceptions about places. This is because their perceived identity is what people think of the economic development of the place and its spatial development (Eshuis & Edwards 2013). Tourism development, in any country, city or destination, contributes to the

economic development of the place in question. Zhang and Zhao (2009) state that tourism development is an important component of identity building and place marketing. Therefore, a place with good tourism resources will have a good economic standing.

Place, destination, nation and city branding are prominent within the field of tourism. Anholt (1998) describes the term “nation brand” as the sum of people’s perceptions of a country across the following six areas of national competence: exports, governance, tourism, investment and immigration, culture and heritage, and people, which are also part of his nation brand hexagon model.

A place consists of cities, attractions or destinations, which are promoted for tourism purposes. It is therefore difficult to separate a city from a place and nation, thus place branding is a constituent of nation branding. Place branding is about image construction, filtration and distillation of negative reputation if any. Based on Ritchie and Ritchie’s (1998) definition, revisited and reconstructed by Blain, Levy and Ritchie (2005: 337), destination branding is defined as

the set of marketing activities that (1) support the creation of a name, symbol, logo, word, mark or other graphic that readily identifies and differentiates a destination; that (2) consistently convey the expectation of a memorable travel experience that is uniquely associated with the destination; that (3) serve to consolidate and reinforce the emotional connection between the visitor and the destination; and that (4) reduce consumer search costs and perceived risk.

Place branding encompasses different branding techniques to promote a destination (Kazançoğlu & Dirsehan 2014). The objective of place branding or destination branding is to showcase unique destinations or places with the ultimate goal of creating a platform for that nation or city to compete in the global market. Strong brand associations are formed when a brand has been effectively positioned in the minds of consumers. Various attractions or places of interest are associated with different cities, for example, the Eiffel Tower in Paris, the Statue of Liberty in New York, Robben Island Prison, South Africa, Burj Khalifa, Dubai and Big Buddha, Hong Kong.

The practice of city branding highlights a city’s unique characteristics to distinguish it from

other cities, giving it a competitive advantage (Zhang & Zhao 2009). Hospers (2008: 226) states that

the convergence between cities and their competitive strategies has important consequences as small details such as the city's image, can be decisive in decisions taken by companies or individuals looking for a place to settle or to visit.

Hospers (2008) relates city image and city branding noting that creating a favourable image for cities is one of many goals of city branding. Vanolo (2008) concurs with Hospers stating that a city's image influences the decisions regarding location for investors, businesses and individuals, which affect the economic advancement of a city. A city image therefore needs to attract tourists, investors and residents. According to Moilanen and Rainisto (2009), an attractive city is one with unique advantages, special industrial clusters, and work culture or research traditions. In this regard, an attractive image for Kimberley can ultimately contribute to the improvement of the Kimberley city brand across the tourism and other sectors.

When discussing city branding from the realms of place marketing, place branding and destination branding as these forms of branding are interrelated, it is still important to clearly define city branding from the other types of place branding. A definition of city branding follows below.

2.3 CITY BRANDING DEFINED

City branding is generally understood as a whole set of actions to build the positive image of the city and communicate it among various target groups via visuals, narratives and events locally and internationally to gain a competitive advantage among other cities (Prilenska 2012: 12).

City branding is also described as a city's efforts, through various branding initiatives, to attract investments that foster economic development for the city (Zhang & Zhao 2009; Parkerson & Saunders 2005; Ashworth & Kavaratzis 2007; Kavaratzis 2004 and Dinnie 2011). City branding therefore has to be concerned with how the city's culture, history, economic growth and social developments, infrastructure and architecture, and landscape and environment can be delivered in one package to all people. Based on the above literature on brands, branding and place branding, a definition of city branding can be defined, for the

purposes of this study, as a marketing strategy used to create a favourable image, through numerous interventions, for the purposes of enhancing the profile of the city in order to reap economic benefits.

In light of the above definition of city branding, the following section addresses the question: why do we need to brand cities? City brands are similar to product brands because the academic and traditional definition, which denotes a brand as sign or symbol or trademark (Batey 2008) is also descriptive of cities as they also have unique characteristics which are only unique to that city. According to Ashworth and Kavaratzis (2007), the branding of cities is important in helping the city to distinguish themselves from other cities to improve their positioning, as the city's brand is an important asset for urban development. In the case of Kimberley, diamonds and the Big Hole are key features of the city's identity and image due to its historical background.

“Brands are omnipresent; and they penetrate almost every aspect of our lives” (Maurya & Mishra 2012: 122). In today's complex, competitive environment, brands define people, things and situations. Brands exist as commercial products, places or people (Eshuis & Klijn 2012). The 21st Century global and dynamic marketing landscape has shifted the conceptualisation of brands. Today brands do not only exist in tangible items, but they are also intangible. In a competitive marketplace, brands are essential for differentiating the various competitors. Specifically to city branding, the purpose of branding a place would be to separate it from other places (Ilmonen 2007).

The competition between cities for markets, opportunities and resources has intensified. As such, more cities are branding themselves (Zhang & Zhao 2009) in order to be competitive with other destinations (Kong 2012). A city brand should be a vehicle to broadcast the city's urban identity and it should be seen as an instrument to increase competitive capacity (Herget, Petru, Abrahám 2015).

If well designed and managed, a city's brand can first of all represent a strategic advantage over other competing cities, and furthermore be a social cohesion enhancement instrument (Ilmonen in Petrea, Petrea, Olău & Filimon 2013: 126).

Aside from attracting investments and tourists, the role of city branding is also pivotal for local authorities in terms of urban governance. City branding cannot be successful without the contribution from local authorities who play an integral role in developing governance and municipal policies. The branding of cities “enables a new level of quality within the local development policy in terms of comprehensiveness, creativity and flexibility” (Helbrecht 1994: 528). Additionally, Kavaratzis (2004) suggests that city branding has inspired local government to operate like businesses because the branding of places has always been a defining feature of the entrepreneurial modes of urban governance. The idea of cities operating more like business is defined by Ilmonen (2007) as “entrepreneurialism”.

Entrepreneurialism captures the sense in which cities are being run in a more business-like manner, and the practices that have been distinctive to businesses are seen also applicable in local government – risk taking, inventiveness, promotion and profit motivation (Ilmonen 2007: 33).

The concept of entrepreneurialism as a method of local economic development emerged in the early 1990’s when places were adopting the practice of place branding (Ilmonen 2007). During this time, places were using business concepts and models in urban management and urban administration (Ilmonen 2007). This served as a strategic mode to be competitive and to grow the economical hubs of their places.

According to Allan (2014), cities and their regions are the engines of economic growth. One aspect contributing to a city’s economic growth is tourism. “Tourism represents a relatively steady and fast-growing sector of the world economy” (Hergret, Petrů & Abrahám 2015: 119). The economic competition of cities in the tourism industry has becoming very intensive as the world economy goes global (Hergret *et al.* 2015).

There is a growing demand of tourism in developing cities (Hergret *et al.* 2015) seeing cities being more sophisticated with improvement in their infrastructure, offerings and services. Through these sophisticated services, offerings and infrastructure developments, cities are now continuously striving to grasp the attention of potential tourists (Hergret *et al.* 2015). Cities’ ability to grasp the attention of tourists means that they are able to get the consumers buy in of their brands, seeing an improvement in the development of the cities’ economy.

Hergret *et al.* (2015) are of the view that the developments in the international tourism market and growing public investments in destination marketing are significantly contributing to the importance of city branding.

2.4 ELEMENTS USED IN CITY BRANDING

A number of elements may contribute to building a city brand. Anholt (2006) developed a city brand hexagon, which constitutes of various dimensions of a city brand. Six elements are identified in the city brand hexagon namely; presence, pulse; potential; place; people and prerequisites. These six elements are used to rank a city and measure its performance in comparison to other cities.

CITY BRAND HEXAGON

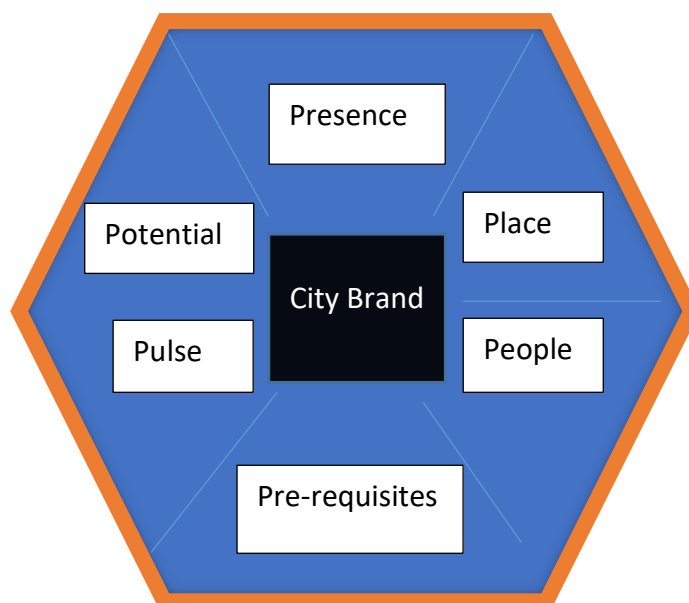


Figure 2.1 : City brand hexagon (Anholt 2006)

2.4.1 Presence

Presence, as an element used in city branding, refers to the global perception of the city and the impact it has on the world stage. Presence addresses the question of “how is the city felt within the global arena?” and “what significant contributions has it made to the world?” According to Herget *et al.* (2015), this element can measure the city’s global contribution in science, culture and governance. This could also be made relevant on a national level.

2.4.2 Potential

The concept of potential refers to the economic and educational opportunities in the city. Is the education system of a good quality? Are there job and business opportunities in the city? It relates to what the city can offer to its residents, which can make their stay in the city easy and pleasurable (Anholt 2006).

2.4.3 Pulse

Central to a city’s development, its residents, economic standing and infrastructure is its “heartbeat”. This is the pulse of the city, which refers to the vibrancy of the city. What are those exciting, fun activities, which feed into the “heartbeat” of the city? (Anholt 2006). This element “measures the perception of how exciting and vibrant the city is and if there are interesting things to do during free time” (Herget *et al.* 2015: 122).

2.4.4 Pre-requisites

Pre-requisites relate to the standard of living in the city. Essentially, this is the overall quality of life in the city. What is the quality of health facilities and accommodation in the city and are they easily accessible? (Anholt 2006).

2.4.5 People

The concept of people in city branding is linked to the local residents of the city. It is about the personality and perceptions of locals. How friendly are the residents of a city? Are they welcoming visitors, tourists, especially international tourists? (Anholt 2006).

2.4.6 Place

Place refers to the physical aspects of the city such as buildings, roads and recreation facilities, among others. This element addresses the question of the attractiveness of these aspects of a place (Anholt 2006).

Lucarelli's (2012) proposed city brand equity framework suggests additional city brand elements when building a foundation for city brand equity that are categorised according to history and heritage, artifacts and spatial plan, events and activities, processes and institutions and graphics and symbols.

History and heritage: This refers to the history and traditional festivities and celebrations of a city.

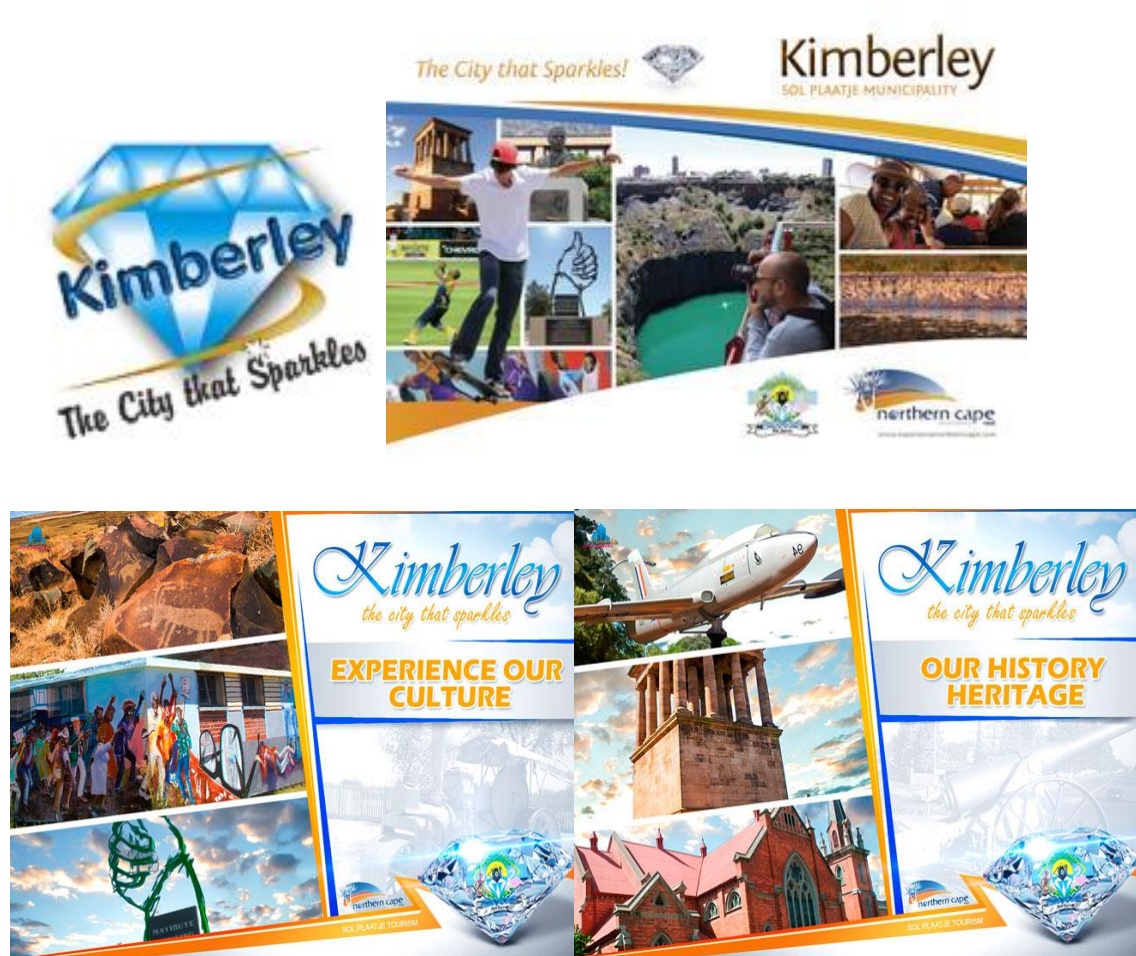
Artifacts and spatial plan: A city's landmarks such as museums, buildings or districts are defined under this category. The Mandela Bridge in Johannesburg can also be represented in this category under buildings. In Kimberley, the McGregor Museum is seen as landmark in the city.

Events and activities: This category includes festivals and sporting events. The annual cultural festival in Grahamstown and the Macufe festival, which takes place annually in Bloemfontein in the Free State, are examples of city events. The Soweto Derby, an annual soccer match between Kaizer Chiefs and Orlando Pirates represents sporting events. For Kimberley, the Maloof Skateboarding Festival and the Gariepfees were some of the main events on Kimberley's social calendar, which attract tourists.

Processes and institutions: This category includes the functioning and processes to manage a city, such as governance, consultation, marketing campaigns, strategies or techniques. For example, for major events such as the Gariepfees, which was hosted in Kimberley's CBD, the local municipality and other relevant authorities needed to be approached for permission and other arrangement to ensure that the right procedures are followed.

Graphics and symbols: These are included in all the marketing collateral, which are used to promote the city. Kimberley's marketing collateral often uses an image of a diamond, which

is representative of Kimberley being the city of diamonds. Below is a logo of the Kimberley city brand and examples of how it is used in various marketing collaterals.



The ensuing section will discuss the management of city brands in various stages.

2.5 MANAGING A CITY BRAND

There has been much debate as to whether cities, places or destinations can be defined and discussed under the same domain as product or corporate brands (Parkerson & Saunders 2005; Kavaratzis & Ashworth 2005). “Very little has been written about how place marketing and in particular the branding of places should be managed” (Hankinson 2007: 241). Anholt (2006) states that nations have always been brands, and cities like nations, are brands that need continuous management in order to ensure optimal brand success.

Morgan, Pritchard and Pride (2002: 4) claim that “places are potentially the world’s biggest

brands". Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2005: 510) believe that cities or places need to be promoted as brands to be "recognised as existing", "perceived as possessing qualities superior to those of competitors and consumed in a manner commensurate with the objectives of the city or place." However, Ashworth and Kavaratzis (2007) also state that city brands, like corporate brands, are different from product brands due to their inadequate traditional marketing frameworks. According to Zhang and Zhao (2009), cities are spatially extended products, they compete in the same way in which their products compete with each other and should therefore be treated as products which are marketed through various activities, e. g tourism and events.

Ashworth and Kavaratzis (2007) summarise the similarities between city branding and product branding by incorporating the characteristics of city brands, found in the literature of city branding and those of product brands as discussed by Balmer and Gray (2003). This is because city brands and corporate brands both have: 1) multidisciplinary roots, meaning that they can be traced to a number of fields or research domains; 2) they both address multiple groups of stakeholders, meaning they both have to engage with various types of people; 3) they both have a high level of intangibility and complexity; 4) they both have to take into account social responsibility to give back to the community; 5) both deal with multiple identities that differ according to the stakeholder; 6) they both need long term development.

This means that a city, like a product, is a brand because they both have "customers". In the case of a city, these are investors, tourists and residents who interact with the brand in the same way that customers interact with products through daily business transactions (Zhang & Zhao 2009). According to Kotler, Haider and Rein (1993), places are businesses with specific products and specific customers for those products and therefore they need to use their resources to enhance their competitive position in the global market place. In order to do this, cities require the tools of business management to establish the global forces that affect their business. Kotler *et al.* (1993) suggest that cities, like products or businesses, need to establish and operate a planning methodology and strategic market planning to respond to intensifying competition amongst places. Metaxas (2010) suggests that, to view cities within a strategic business management context, the vision, development strategies of the city and

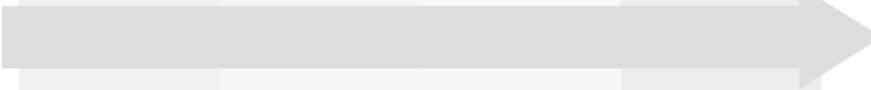
its local distinctive characteristics must be taken into account to ensure an effective marketing plan.

According to Gaggiotti, Cheng and Yunak (2008), the marketing of places can be understood as being similar to corporate branding. Ashworth and Kavaratzis (2009) argue that the concept of corporate branding is related to the concept of brand architecture, which analyses the relationship between a corporate brand and the individual brands that are offered by the corporate brand. They further state that some corporates manage their individual brands under the corporate umbrella while others choose to manage each individual brand separately. City brands are regarded as “sub brands” under the umbrella of the “nation brand” but Ashworth and Kavaratzis (2009) find this inappropriate due to the distinct differences between the two brands. Anholt (2002) however argues that, though nation brands may not be the primary brands, their managerial principles can be applied to sub-brands such as city brands.

Gaggiotti *et al.* (2008) propose a model (Table 2.2) for managing city brands. The goal of the model is to serve as a framework for building a city brand management model and to provide strategic direction for the development of the brand. This model can also improve the overall strategy and improve the quality of life for the residents of the city through local economic development that provides high quality jobs and generates wealth and investment.

Table 2.1: City brand management model (Gaggiotti *et al.* 2008)

WHAT WE ARE NOW	WHAT OUR OPTIONS ARE	WHAT WE WANT TO BE	WHAT WE NEED TO DO
PLACE	PROSPECTS	POSITIONING	PLACE
PEOPLE			PEOPLE
PROCESSES			PROCESSES
PARTNERS			PARTNERS



The city brand management model is based on a city’s current image, what options it has, what it aspires to be, and what it needs to do. The model has four stages, posed as questions, that are discussed below.

2.5.1 Stage 1: What we are now?

The first stage of the city brand model is a situational analysis in which the city’s authorities analyse the city’s current situation. This helps the city to leverage its tangible and intangible assets. The key elements for the situation analysis are: *place*, *people*, *processes* and *partners*.

The “place” element of the model refers to the spatial elements of the city, such as its physical geographic location, infrastructure, industries, transportation and other intangible element such as the heritage, culture and history, natural environment and the city’s economy (Gaggiotti *et al.* 2008).

The “people” element refers to the human capital. The human capital is the residents’ skills, talent (creativity) and education, which contribute to the economic development of the city (Gaggiotti *et al.* 2008). The human capital theory postulates that “people are the motor force

behind regional growth” (Florida 2003: 6). Furthermore, highly educated and productive people, and influential residents (celebrities and famous people) contribute to shaping the image of the city and to regional growth.

The “process” element involves the administration system within the local government. The process element involves the strategic orientation of the city, the judicial system, levels of integration between regional and global economies, the level of corruption, bureaucracy, environmental friendliness and the accepted norm of behaviour with regard to the economic and social development of the city. The “process” element basically looks at the managerial system of the city on different continuums (Gaggiotti *et al.* 2008).

“For a city brand to be effective it needs to represent all of its key stakeholders and it needs to remain viable and relevant over time” (Dinnie 2011: 36). The “partner” element refers to the group of people who contribute to the city’s development, such as corporations, non-government organisations (NGOs), local government, tourism and the local residents.

2.5.2 Stage 2: What are our options?

Stage two of the city brand management model deals with the identity that the city currently holds and whether it wants to maintain this identity (Gaggiotti *et al.* 2008). Due to the constant changing environments, which bring new threats and opportunities, cities need to have a number of options of where they would like to be and how they would like to be perceived by others. The second stage studies the various options available based on the situation analysis conducted in stage one. The options explored are evaluated using the selection criteria, which would enhance the city’s brand such as financial attractiveness, longevity of the preferred image and external opportunities of the chosen image (Gaggiotti *et al.* 2008). In doing so, strategic direction is created.

2.5.3 Stage 3: What do we want to be?

Stage three of the city brand management model refers to the “positioning” of the city – how the city wants to be seen in the eyes of others and what position it wants to maintain in the minds of its stakeholders (Gaggiotti *et al.* 2008). “Positioning is one of the aspects of a city brand that is, in addition to a corporate brand, the overall umbrella for the activities and

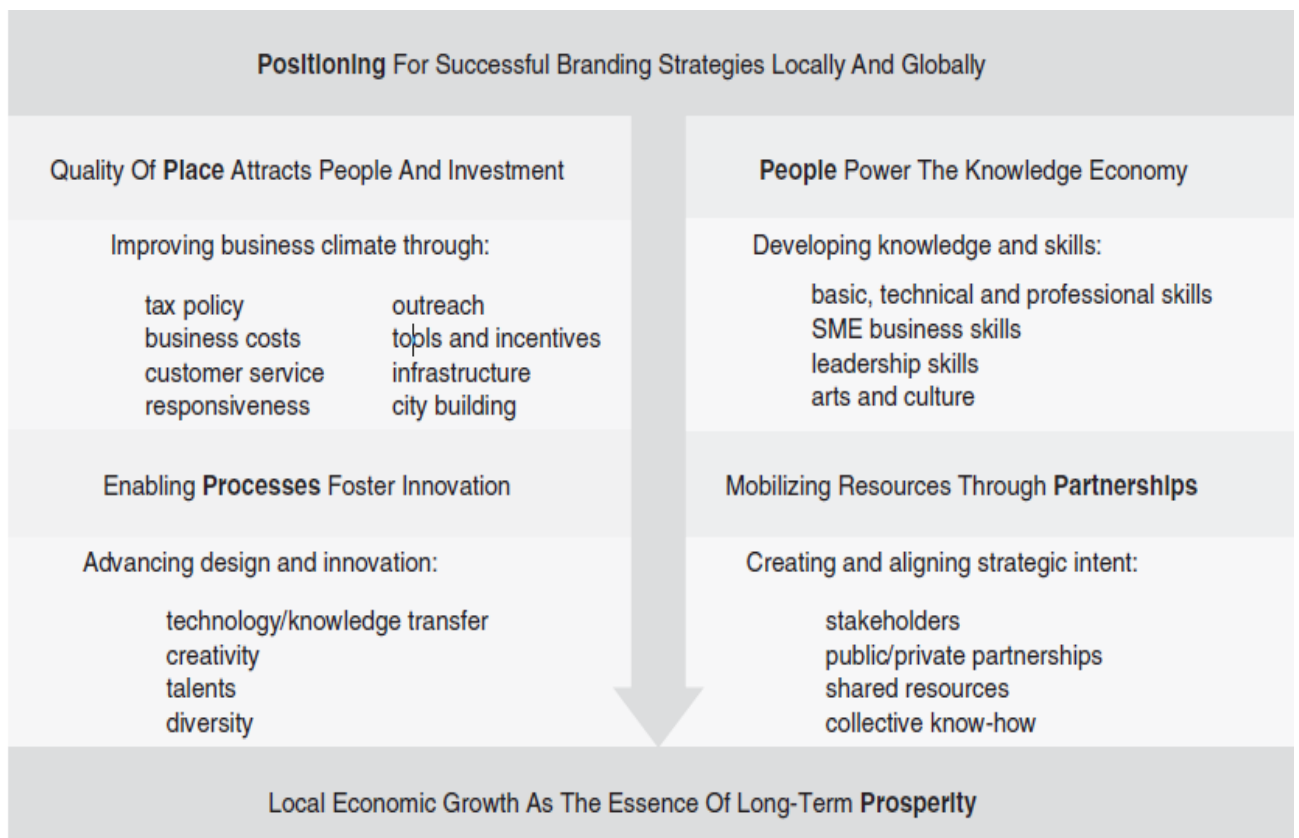
projects its vision, values, personality and image among many other dimensions” (Roll in Gaggiotti *et al.* 2008: 119).

2.5.4 Stage 4: What do we need to do?

The last stage of the city brand management model refers to what needs to be done to support the “positioning” in stage three; it deals with the city’s future intents (Gaggiotti *et al.* 2008). Stage four proposes a strategic direction towards achieving the city’s goals. In doing so, all stakeholders contribute to the implementation of a specific action plan by action area, place, people, processes and partners.

City branding strategy, based on the city’s positioning, should be designed according to the four dimensions as in Table 2.2 below to provide an effective management of the city brand.

Table 2.2: Ps in city brand management (Gaggiotti *et al.* 2008)



Place: The quality of a place attracts people and investment therefore, it is a goal of city branding to attract tourists, residents and investments. The attraction of investment

enhances a city's economic cluster. A city's competitiveness is analysed on the economic development of the city that is stimulated through the business sector. The business climate within the city, i.e. tax policies, business costs, customer service and tools, and incentives, together with the infrastructure and buildings contribute to the attractiveness of the city (Gaggiotti *et al.* 2008). Economic development within the city is driven through the business sector as local businesses create jobs and pay wages and salaries to their employees, and inject wealth in the city through exporting goods, thereby boosting local economic activities and growth. An economically advanced city also attracts knowledgeable workers to the city as the city's economy enhances the quality of life in the city and its image.

People: People are the driving mechanism behind economic growth through their skills (leadership, business, professional, basic and technical), innovation knowledge (arts and culture) and entrepreneurship (Gaggiotti *et al.* 2008). People are therefore the primary focus for economic growth. They are regarded as "brand ambassadors of their city" as they continuously interact with people from other cities. Dinnie (2011) believes that, in order to attract and retain knowledgeable residents, city policy makers and planners must improve the everyday experiences of residents in order to encourage their long-term commitment to the city. Quality of life in a city is enhanced by the basic requirements of living, working and playing in urban communities, such as affordable and accessible housing, transport, healthcare, education and training, retail outlets, leisure and recreation facilities (William *et al.* 2008, in Dinnie 2011).

Processes: The translation of creative ideas into innovative products and services is a process which adds to the economic value (Gaggiotti *et al.* 2008). Value is added through the efficiency of production processes, which utilise technology (knowledge), creativity, talent and diversity to advance design and innovation in various business areas, manufacturing or services enterprises. "Innovation stems from creativity; creativity in turn stems from the vibrant and diverse culture great cities foster" (Gaggiotti *et al.* 2008: 121).

Partnership: Gaggiotti *et al.* (2008) note that, in order to challenge an economic development strategy, a city needs to make use of its resources in two ways. Firstly, it needs to conceive and then act upon a common vision of the city's economic future. Secondly, all the relevant

stakeholders of the city should form new partnerships to implement the city's vision and brand strategy. Economic prosperity can be achieved when everyone works towards a common goal and mobilises their resources through partnerships and creating strategic intent.

2.6 CITY BRANDING STRATEGIES

Allan (2014) notes that, by 2050, 75% of the world's population will live in cities. The residents of these cities will become the main target of city branding strategies because the local economic development will be stirred by the cities' competitors. As such, Okanao and Samson (in Kong 2012) advocate a strategic management system when promoting the creativity of cities and their public spaces.

A strategy towards branding a city should have clear objectives. Because city brands are also product or corporate brands, they use symbols and logos as image building devices to distinguish themselves (Balmer & Gray 2003). However, Allan (2014) cautions that a city branding strategy should not only be about logos and slogans. Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2005: 3) agree, adding that "slogans and logos may be useful and practical instruments in a place branding strategy but they are not the strategy itself." A city branding strategy should provide a blueprint of how the city can be competitive in the distinct offerings and experiences it sells to its target audience (Allan 2014). Additionally, the notion of competitiveness in the strategy is based on the city's ability to attract and retain talent, business and institutions, and to leverage regional entrepreneurial capability, regional higher education, research and development, regional heritage, and cultural assets (Allan 2014).

Allan (2014) suggests that this brand strategy should inform the brand's value proposition by delivering on it, and being clear and consistent on the message of the proposition. Moreover, the strategy should also specify the targeted audience and the reason for choosing that audience, it should also specify the assets and attributes for the stakeholders, and leverage the distinctiveness of the city (Allan 2014).

The increasing competition amongst cities has led to cities intensifying their marketing approaches in order to develop the right strategies to brand the city successfully (Zhang &

Zhao 2009) by echoing a city's vision and mission.

According to Martinez (2012), many approaches or strategies to market or promote places are done by consultancy firms who replicate strategies and approaches and slightly modify them to apply them to other places. Ultimately, this leads to the standardisation of marketing strategies. Marketing strategies need to be unique to the place concerned and relate to the identity of the place in order to brand it uniquely from its competitors. "One crucial strategy within city branding is the creation of the city's identity which should be developed from a range of contextual variables such as history, demography, economy, politics and policies" (Zhang & Zhao 2009: 246). A city identity, like a corporate identity, articulates the city's ethos, aims and values, and creates a uniqueness that can help the city differentiate itself from other cities within the competitive environment (Van Riel & Balmer 1997).

Place marketing strategy consists of three major elements: (a) the development and enhancement of the place infrastructure and products; (b) the development and improvement of the place image or brand; and (c) the promotion of those products (Burgess, Kotler, Haider, Rein & Madsen in Sahin & Baloglu 2014).

According to Prilenska (2012), there are three forms of city branding strategies, which have gained popularity since the advent of city branding, namely, the "creative city", the "experience city" and "travel motivations", which target the tourism sector.

2.6.1 Strategy 1: The Creative City

A city is a residential place with a number of stakeholders and it is a physical space with a number of visions and values, which are unique to the city. Scott (2006: 7) highlights the competitive of cities today stating that "creative cities in the modern world are typically organised around production systems marked by shifting inter-firm networks and flexible labour markets."

The residents of a city play an important role in the economic development of the city through their unique skills and talents. Prilenska (2012) argues that the role of city branding is economic growth, and the driving force behind that are skilled, educated and productive

people. This indicates that, whilst other cities are targeting investments as the main source for economic development, others are capitalising on the skills sets of their residents to advance the economy.

According to Jurene and Jureniene (2017), the concept of creative cities was expanded by the end of the 20th Century with new approaches of “creativity” and “knowledge economy”. The authors state that these two concepts are central to the competitiveness of a city and can develop a creative economy, which is a combination of creativity and innovation (Jurene & Jureniene (2017). “Creativity is a search for new ideas, ability to see new solutions and see conventional matters in a different light. Meanwhile innovation is a way to use creative ideas” (Jurene & Jureniene 2017: 215). Vanolo (2008) cautions that cities should not only focus on attracting creative professionals and people in a quest to build competitive creative economies, but they should also focus on creating environments that are suitable for creative markets and industries.

The residents of a city form a stakeholder group, which may be neglected and under-valued during the city branding process. Their special skills, talent, education and entrepreneurial drive can contribute to the economic development of a city (Dinnie 2011) as well as to the creativity of the city. According to Florida (2002), the concept “creative cities” is based on the notion that the members of a city or community are the driving forces behind the innovative energy and cultural dynamism of an urban city.

Florida (2003) points out that the creativity, innovation, energy, skills, talent and education of the residents of a city, which are translated into economic development, are known as the “human capital”. The human capital theory is centred on the idea that creative people, can contribute to regional economic growth. There is a link between the economic prosperity of a city and highly skilled and educated members of that city (Scott 2006). The correlation between a city’s economic prosperity and skilled, educated residents was proven in a study of the Danish creative class (Lorenzen 2010). The study indicated that highly industrial and technologically advanced people relocate to recruit highly skilled employees who will fit with the company’s high-tech profile and image (Lorenzen 2010).

The “creative class” (Prilenska 2012; Florida 2003) are attracted by cities which are the hubs of technology, tolerance and talent. Innovation, education, openness and diversity are important in stimulating economic development (Florida 2003).

According to Florida (2003), certain patterns exist within the creative class:

- The creative class is moving away from traditional corporate, working centres to more creative centres, which are characterised by high-tech innovative industries.
- The creative centres are the driving and winning mechanisms of economic development. They consist of highly educated and skilled members who, through their skills and innovations, contribute to the regional economic prosperity. Furthermore, these people show signs of vitality, indicated by increases in regional employment and population.
- The successes of these creative centres are not due to urbanisation or mineral resources or poor governance systems, which have left local governments bankrupt in the process of giving tax breaks to increase entrepreneurship. The successes of these creative centres are based purely on the members’ choice of residence. They chose to reside there and are ultimately followed by innovative, high-tech industries. “Creative centres provide the integrated ecosystem or habitat where all forms of creativity – artistic and cultural, technological and economic – can take root and flourish” (Florida 2003: 9).
- Creative people are not attracted by urbanisation (transport facilities, schools, roads, malls, etc.) but by highly quality experiences, cultural diversity and an opportunity to validate their identities as creative people.

Creativity is important in propelling economic development within cities thus making the notion of “creative city” an effective city branding strategy.

2.6.2 Strategy 2: The Experience City

The “experience city strategy” has been adopted for cities, which are unable to attract the

“creative class” and therefore capitalise on the experiences the city has to offer people. According to Lorenzen (2010), these cities show a lack of potential to attract knowledge-based activities and have limited high tech industries (Prilenska 2012).

The “experience city” as a marketing strategy in city branding is aimed at constructing, staging and communicating a city’s unique experiences, which can be sold on the global marketplace (Stigel & Frimann 2006). According to Pine and Gilmore, “an experience occurs when a company intentionally uses services as the stage, and goods as props, to engage individual customers in a way that creates a memorable event” (1998: 98). Within the context of city branding, the engagement between a city’s experiences and its residents, create an “experience economy” (Stigel & Frimann 2006) in which residents “buy” these experiences. The relationship between residents and experiences creates an experience-product identity, which ultimately increases the value of the experience-product [city] (Prilenska 2012).

Stigel and Frimann (2006) argue that the “experience economy” has shifted away from the traditional representations of the economy to an economy in which consumers are investing through paying an additional price for products or services, which hold a special meaning for them. The driving force of the experience economy is therefore the experiences created by the city. Lorenzen (2010) argues that each city has its own unique “place-bound experiences” which are branded as products and the production and consumption of these “products” contributes to the economic development of the city.

Experiences exist as sensory, affective, creative, cognitive, physical and social identity, which are responses to a corporate stimulus. (Zarantonello in Kazançoğlu and Dirsehan in 2014). Parallel to this, Schmitt (1999) proposed five strategic experiences, namely, sensory experiences, feel experiences, think experiences, act experiences and relate experiences.

According to Kazançoğlu and Dirsehan (2014), a city provides multisensory experiences to residents through their daily interactions with the city. Residents’ experiences of the city exist on two continuums, passive experiences and active experiences. Passive experiences are experienced by passing through (e.g, hearing music through an open window) and active experiences are experienced by residents who go out looking for such experiences (e.g

seeking out activities).

Branding strategists can therefore capitalise on technology, knowledge, skills and experiences to brand their cities effectively using the cities' unique identities. In addition to this, branding strategists need to ask key questions (Table 2.3) before establishing a city branding strategy.

Table 2.3: Key Questions for Developing a City Brand Strategy (adopted by Dinnie 2011)

<p>Identity</p> <p>Who are we?</p> <p>What do we stand for?</p>	<p>Community assesses its shared assets, personality, desirable attributes and so on and selectively emphasises aspects of the city's place identity. Mechanisms and environment must be conducive to encourage community participation and support of the brand strategy.</p>
<p>Nominated outcomes</p> <p>What do we want to achieve?</p> <p>Who do we want to attract?</p> <p>How do we measure progress?</p>	<p>Integration and consistency of brand essence with city's development goals. Definition of segments the city is aiming to attract and appeal to. Selection of appropriate measures to monitor progress and assess return on investment. Resident participation in the selection of indicators is vital.</p>
<p>Communication</p> <p>How do we reach, and interact with our audiences in a creative and convincing way?</p> <p>How do we tell the story of our city with credibility?</p>	<p>Brand communications are no longer transmitting a message to a passive audience. Messages cannot be controlled. Consideration must be given to how selected audiences are reached and invited to participate in a dialogue about the city and its offerings. In addition to traditional media channels, there is increasing use of interactive social media for building the city brand.</p>
<p>Coherence</p> <p>How do we organise programmes and actions to achieve consistency and uniformity in communications?</p>	<p>A major part of implementation is to decide who will drive specific initiatives. Consideration must also be given to the big picture, that is, how consistent particular action items and activities are.</p>

2.6.3 Strategy 3: Travel Motivations

Visitors need a reason or motivation to visit a city or destination. Within the context of tourism, a motivation has been described as a “hybrid concept; a term borrowed from the individual orientation of psychology and applied to a specific domain of human action” (Pearce 1994: 113). Pearce (1994: 114) describes tourist motivation as “discretionary, episodic, future oriented, dynamic, socially influenced and evolving.” According to Ter Horst (2005) tourist motivation stems from psychological needs which are unconscious to the tourists and often unrecognised by the tourists themselves, whereas others equate motivation with the purpose of a trip or the choice of a holiday. Furthermore, Ter Horst (2005) states that motivation results from the need to escape everyday life. “Motivations are usually related to needs” (Charters & Ali-Knight in Sahin & Baloglu 2014: 244).

Many studies have attempted to identify or analyse the reasons or motivations behind a tourist’s choice of holiday, described as push or pull motivations (Yuan & McDonald 1990; Uysal & Hagan 1993; Crompton 1979). Crompton’s (1979) motivation model drew seven socio-psychological motives (escape, self-exploratory, relaxation, prestige, regression, kinship-enhancement, and social interaction) or push motives, which arouse the desire to travel. On the other hand, two cultural (novelty and education) or pull motives were suggested. These stem from the destination attributes perceived by a potential visitor (Correia, Oliveira & Silva in Sahin & Baloglu 2014: 244).

According to Baloglu and Uysal (1996), internal forces (push motives) that are intangible desires of the tourist and external forces (pull motives) that are tangible and based on the perceived image of the destination by the tourist are the driving forces behind tourists’ travel motivations. In addition to this, McIntosh and Gupta (1977) proposed four constructs of motivation: physical, cultural, interpersonal status, and prestige.

2.7 TECHNIQUES AVAILABLE FOR CITY BRANDING

Rainisto (2004) states that places can be branded through communication to develop a brand identity, which is attractive to the targeted audience. The question therefore is: how can this brand identity be communicated? Hildreth (2010) shares five techniques to brand a place,

namely, graphic designing, advertising and marketing communications, branded exports, and architecture and events. Additional techniques proposed by the researcher include mobile marketing and digital marketing.

2.7.1 Marketing Communications

Marketing communications is wide in scope and can send impactful and consistent messaging to targeted stakeholders. It includes a range of techniques, such as electronic and print advertising. Marketing communications is a vehicle for delivering a brand's strategic intent to its targeted consumers. "Communications is the hammer of marketers" (Hildreth 2010: 31). Advertising is also a great tool for promoting awareness within the city (Hildreth 2010). The city of Kimberley widely advertises its offerings in print media. The various marketing communication techniques are explored and discussed further in the next chapter.

2.7.2 Graphic Designing

Graphic designing includes combining a set of designs, imageries and logos which the city or place can identify with (Hildreth 2010). This element is a city's visual aspect that sets it apart from other cities. Graphic designing is particularly relevant to print advertising due to its visual appeal. Whatever a brand envisions to be in the eyes of the targeted audience, its vision needs to be communicated. With particular reference to place branding, places need to consider graphic designing when developing a repositioning strategy that often requires a complete rebranding of the corporate identity including logos, colours and symbols.

Hildreth (2010) states that there is a need for graphic designing in place branding, however it is only useful to a certain extent that is dependent on the main purposes of the design, for example, corporate identity revamp or brand strategy policies (Hildreth 2010). The city of Johannesburg effectively made use of this technique when they were undergoing rebranding. The city gained its brand when it lost its apostrophe and became "Joburg" (City of Johannesburg 2002). The new brand is representative of the city's cosmopolitan culture which is always at the edge of the latest trends. Additionally, it reflects Joburg's urban energy which is attractive to investors, tourists and residents.

2.7.3 Architecture and events

According to Hildreth (2010), building iconic world-class architectural structures and hosting some of the world's biggest events such as the Olympics or the FIFA World Cup is said to be a strategic tool for branding places. A number of buildings and other architectural features across the world are tourist attractions and can be associated with their cities. For example, the iconic Eiffel Tower can immediately be associated with Paris, the Statue of Liberty with New York, the Burj Khalifa, known as the tallest building in the world, with Dubai and the Big Buddha with Hong Kong. These architectural structures are an effective and immediate technique for city branding because of the associations made to the cities where they are located.

This is effortless and eternal branding for the city. As long as the structures remain in place, they will forever be tourist attractions, which are part of the cities' distinctive features. South Africa made use of events effectively for place branding when it hosted the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup. Given South Africa's pre-democratic history of apartheid as well as the 2008 xenophobic scourge in the country, hosting the World Cup improved the country's poor image on the global scale and locally. Furthermore, by being the first African country to host the world's biggest sporting event, South Africa was able to create a united Africa and curb negative perceptions. On a regional level, making use of events to brand places is particularly popular in tourism and destination branding where a city's culture, heritage and essence is promoted through an event.

Evans (2003: 1) claims that the designation of the cultural city and the use of the arts and entertainment as tools in urban regeneration is now a universal phenomenon, which has accelerated in the era of the "city of renewal". According to the author, the branding of cities through cultural events and festivals has "created a form of Karaoke architecture" (Evans 2003: 1). It is through tourism that events and festivals are integrated in the city's branding strategy because of the common characteristics that they share (Evans 2003).

The city of Kimberley also hosts a number of events annually, which market and promote the city. The annual Diamond and Dorings Festival is an arts festival that the city hosts every year during the Easter holidays. The festival is marketed extensively in print and electronic media and attracts a large influx of people into the city. Not only does it reap economic benefits for

the city, but it also creates a sense of vibrancy in the town whilst promoting the city's heritage and culture. A similar event is hosted in Bloemfontein annually, the Macufe Arts and Culture Festival, which is also aimed at promoting arts and culture. Cape Town, aside from the world renowned Table Mountain and its beautiful beaches, is also popular for its annual international jazz festival. The Cape Town Jazz Festival hosts a number of international musicians from across the globe and South Africa, attracting music lovers from different walks of life and genres. The branding of cities through events, culture and architecture is also effective as a form of internal branding.

2.7.4 Branded Exports

Branded exports, or brand exports, are representative of most place branding models. Although cities, nations and regions are actively exporting their commercial products, only a few of these places are known for their commercial products (Hildreth 2010). Owing to the fact that these commercial products do not carry their places names, little association is made with the place producing those products. Therefore, the role of branded exports as a promotional tool is paramount in city branding.

There is also a gap for cultural exports, which cities and places can employ to promote themselves further. Evans (2003), writing on hard branding the cultural city, states that arts and entertainment are used as urban regeneration tools to advance cultural cities. These are cities with entertainment facilities, sight-seeing, shopping centres, museums and "edutainment" centres, such as Disney World. "Hard branding" is defined as "a specific attempt to capitalise on 'commodity fetishism' and extend brand life, geographically and symbolically" (Evans 2003: 417) where the local distinctiveness and urban landscape of the city is highlighted. In doing so, the synergy between the symbolic and physical brand of the city is enhanced (Evans 2003).

Hildreth (2010) asserts that, although branding places through culture can be advantageous, launching famous and top export brands on the market, such as emerging BRICS countries, should be a top priority. This practice is only efficient, however, if consumers have positive associations with the brand that are created through strategic and creative interventions

(Hildreth 2010).

The notion and success of branded exports being dependent on consumer's positive perceptions and associations is parallel to the concept of country of origin, which is part of nation branding. Country of origin is centred on the idea that a country's reputation and global image can affect the sales of that country's products. The image of the country is a success factor of the exported products on the foreign market (Dichter, in Loo & Davies 2006). According to Gudjonsson (2005), "country of origin" is a part of a nation's effort to support, sustain and protect its brands. Many brands use the country of origin effect to promote their products to benefit from the country's positive reputation in the international arena to remain competitive within the global marketplace because "this form of nation branding has the clear purpose of using the nation's image to promote sales and exports" (Fan 2006: 2). A positive image will create strong brand associations with a product.

On the other hand, products from places with poor reputations, negative images or associations will have limited success in the global marketplace. Negative images can have a detrimental effect on a country's or city's product brands as these negative connotations are often the foundation of stereotypical knowledge of a place.

Products and brands from countries such as Germany are trusted and have financial success across the globe. Germany is associated with world-class luxurious cars such as Audi, BMW, Mercedes Benz and Porsche. This has contributed to its strong national brand image and positive reputation. "Country of origin" is therefore associated with nation image, which includes that of its cities because consumers' buying behaviour or decisions, especially within the international audience, is influenced by the consumer's perception of a particular country or city.

The concept of country of origin is synonymous with the concept of brand positioning as both concepts are centred on the idea of creating a certain perception or occupying a certain position within the minds of consumers. The relationship between country of origin and brand positioning is the unique characteristic of the country or brand that needs to be communicated to the consumer. The country of origin literature is still limited and thus

remains an underlying research area in place branding. Given this, it would be a worthy effort for cities to adopt an approach similar to the country of origin, a “city of origin” when developing and implementing a city branding strategy.

2.7.5 Online and mobile marketing

The use of online and mobile marketing, popular in the tourism sector, is gaining prominence amongst destination marketing organisations (DMOs). DMOs are now integrating communication technologies such as social media, digital marketing and mobile marketing to reach their consumers and promote their destinations (Fernández-Cavia & López 2013).

According to Fernández-Cavia and López (2013), the use of such communication has transformed into a professional activity by DMOs. The authors suggest that DMOs who have their own websites gain a presence on the internet (Fernández-Cavia & López 2013). In their study on the use of mobile applications for destination marketing organisations, the authors suggest that the changes, which have been introduced in the tourism sector by the popularisation of communication technologies are related to the operations in the sector. These include the sectors’ offerings and the level of interactions amongst the entities in the sector.

The advent of social media and the internet as a source of access to disseminate information has allowed tourists and others to be active participants on their social networks by sharing their travel and lifestyle experiences. These social networks are able to link people of common interests together (Koekemoer 2014). Social media networks, such as “blogs, virtual communities, wikis, social networking sites (such as Facebook), multimedia channels (such as YouTube and Flickr), enable travellers to share their voyage experiences whilst offering information for future travellers” (Fernández-Cavia & López 2013: 99).

In addition to the benefits of social media, the use of mobile marketing also presents its own benefits. Koekemoer (2014) notes that the recent description of mobile marketing is different from that of the 1980s, before the use of mobile devices became popular, which was associated with billboards. Mobile marketing includes a range of marketing tools such as SMS marketing, email marketing, mobile websites (websites designed specifically for mobile

devices) and web applications, which facilitate the booking procedure for accommodation, activities and other activities (Koekemoer 2014).

2.8 BUILDING A SUCCESSFUL CITY BRAND

The evolution of cities as brands has led to the Anholt-GMI City Brand Index in which the effectiveness of branding activities of cities is assessed. The City Brand Index measures the successes of a city brand in comparison to other cities and also indicates its competitive strength (Anholt 2006).

Ilmonen (2007) provides *four guidelines* to build a city brand successfully. Firstly, a city brand needs to *build on actual and realistic conceptions* in order to set realistic objectives deliver on the brand that it promises particularly if a city brand carries a slogan. For example, Kimberley describes itself as “The City that Sparkles” therefore the city must live up to its slogan across its various brand elements. A brand misrepresentation means the city runs the risk of misleading its consumers and stakeholders.

The second guideline, proposed by Ilmonen (2007), suggests that, for a city brand to be successful, it needs to be based on *commonly shared views* that refers to shared perceptions of a brand amongst groups of people. If these perceptions resonate with the city’s identity, then the city has been successful in strategically communicating its brand. Additionally, the notion of common shared views means that the various constituencies of a city brand should have aligned messages. Their communication should send similar messages across various spectra and have a shared strategy with common goals.

A third guideline for branding a city is to make sure that the *city brand is credible* for both internal and external audiences (Ilmonen 2007). From an internal branding perspective, city branding is “concerned with identity building and strengthening the pride of the residents living in a place” (Ilmonen 2007: 34). Through this, the city is able to create an attractive environment, which is appealing to the local residents and can attract new residents, tourists and businesses in future (Ilmonen 2007). On the contrary, external branding, as the name suggests, is aimed at directing marketing communications to external audiences, such as visitors and potential investors. External branding is concerned with the promotion of local

products and services to those audiences to generate and boost sales.

As a final guideline, Ilmonen (2007) cautions that, though the promotion of local goods is beneficial for a city, cities should be built by *promoting the unique features* and characteristics of the city and not its daily features. The unique features highlight the city's uniqueness and it is often those features which are promoted in the city's marketing collateral.

2.9 ADVANTAGES OF A STRONG CITY BRAND

The practice of city branding, when implemented successfully, has benefits for cities. A strong, successful brand is able to 1) give meaning; 2) add value; 3) distinguish or differentiate; 4) create a visible manifestation; 5) be intrinsically striking and 6) create an audible impression (Blackett 2009). For a place brand, "having a strong and positive brand is a critical tool to compete with other nations, regions and cities" (Kaplan *et al.* 2010: 1290). Keller (2013) identifies the marketing advantages of strong brands as:

- *Providing greater loyalty.* If consumers are happy with a particular brand, they will consume more and become loyal to the brand. A strong brand is one that has strong positive brand attitude that result in brand preference (brand loyalty) over time (Elliot & Percy 2007). Loyalty towards a city is shown by the residents or other city stakeholders' pride and psychological or emotional attachment towards the brand (Kazançoğlu & Dirsehan 2014). Therefore, happy customers are satisfied stakeholders who are reluctant to switch brands by investing or even moving to another city.
- *Less vulnerable to competitive marketing actions.* A strong brand, which secures a firm positioning within the marketplace, is able to handle aggressive marketing strategies and tactics from competing brands. Places compete aggressively against each other (Anholt 2006) and a strong city brand with a firm positioning will be less vulnerable to the aggressive market place. A firm position is a response to the competitive threats of competitors. In the context of place branding, brand positioning is therefore "a strategic tool which may and should be used in the process of managing an administrative unit" (Janiszewska & Insch 2012: 10).

- *Less vulnerability to marketing crises.* This means that the brand is stable enough to handle negative publicity from the press or public and is able to cope with the pressures of emerging brands, which pose a threat to it. For a brand to survive the pressures from marketing crises, it should possess a strong brand equity to secure its position in the competitive market place, which, like a firm brand position described above, is a “defensible asset” which is hard to defeat (Neal & Strauss 2008b).
- *Strong brands have larger margins of economies.* A city brand with a large economically sound reputation reflects a strong brand, as its strength is reflected in its economy (Keller 2013).
- *More inelastic consumer response to price increases.* Loyal consumers remain loyal during price increases and do not respond drastically to price increases. When brand value (brand equity) has been created through brand loyalty from consumer attachment or satisfaction, consumers will continue buying the brand irrespective of price increases (Romaniuk & Nenycz-Thiel 2013). The reason for inelasticity in response to price increases can be attributed to the fact that, when it comes to brand loyal consumers, brand value exceeds brand costs.
- *More elastic consumer response to price decreases.* Strong brands have an advantage in this respect because, when prices decrease, brand consumption increases leading to elasticity in consumer responses (Keller 2013). The idea of brand loyalty, based on customer satisfaction and brand value, means that consumption of the brand will increase further when prices drop below the normal price. An example of this phenomenon in city branding, with specific reference to the tourism industry, would be when the number of tourists in a specific city increases when hotel fees are reduced, especially for those tourists who have visited the city before. When tourists are satisfied or like a destination, they are most likely to return to that destination when travel costs are reduced.
- *Strong brands have greater trade cooperation and support* amongst local businesses that assist in the implementation of city strategies. The objective of city branding is to

attract investment and develop a city's economy through various sectors and initiatives and therefore local businesses form an inherent part of the city's branding strategy.

- *Strong brands have increased marketing communication effectiveness.* The effectiveness of a marketing communications strategy can be measured in terms of the response to the message by measuring the impact of the message on the receiver (Keller 2013). For a city brand, marketing communications effectiveness is measurable through various associations, which build city brand equity and through the stakeholders' buy-in to the brand.
- *Strong brands have possible licensing opportunities.* Investment interest for a city brand creates economic wealth through the licensing of its brands. Licensing opportunities available serve as an indication of a credible brand and reflects its strength.
- *Strong brands have additional brand extension opportunities.* A city brand is made up of various constituents: presence, place, pulse, prerequisite, people and potential, as per Anholt's (2006) city brand hexagon. Brand extension, in the case of a city brand, can occur when the city brand constituents are marketed using the city's name or image and, to a certain extent, its branding strategies.

The branding of strong brands such as city brands also create benefits for cities, which are not economic or financial. According to Dinnie (2011), cities do not only offer the economic advantages of urban concentration, but they also offer residents emotional and social benefits and share information on activities, which interest them. "Cities also create opportunities for residents in terms of employment, housing, education, social mobility, transportation as well as business opportunities" (Dinnie 2011: 9). Resident satisfaction is the ultimate goal of city branding (Dinnie 2011). The author adds that city branding, similar to the goals of branding, also aims to create preference and loyalty amongst its various stakeholders. City branding can therefore be a "strategic tool for increasing consciousness and city pride" (Ilmonen 2007: 35) amongst the residents.

The practise of place promotion or city branding, in particular, is increasingly being employed by local governments to attract residents, investors and tourists (Petrea *et al.* 2013: 125; Andersson & Ekman 2009). Kavaratzis (2004: 70) believes that the practise of city branding is

a means both for achieving competitive advantage in order to increase inward investment and tourism, and also for achieving community development, reinforcing local identity and identification of citizens with their city and activating all social forces to avoid social exclusion and unrest.

In an opinion piece with leading researchers in the city branding field on the future of place branding, Kotler (2004) suggests that, when it comes to place branding, there must be adequate opportunities for its citizens to pursue and advance their own skills and interests. A city with strategic branding initiatives can offer its residents advantages as it encourages residents to contribute to the improvement of the city. When cities have developed a desirable brand image and brand identity, they can attract more residents and people to the city (Rainisto 2004).

The rise of globalisation and technology in the 21st Century has intensified the competition for resources due to an increase in mobility of resources and people. Lebedenko (2004) states that the branding of places was provoked by globalisation, human technologies and post-industrial economies. According to Kotler (2004: 12), “people and resources can easily abandon a place that is troubled or failing, and people and resources can easily move to places which offer growing opportunities.” City branding can therefore create a competitive advantage in order to retain its residents and enhance its resources (Kotler 2004). Rainisto (2004) adds that, for a place to survive and manage the intensity of the global competition, those responsible for city branding need fresh ideas and should offer good advice. City “branding can help places to move to a more sophisticated level in their place marketing practices” (Rainisto 2004: 14). The branding of cities differentiates them from other cities and accentuates the uniqueness of the city (Rainisto 2004). Van Ham (2004) states that places, which do not follow a branding process, encounter challenges when they need to attract economic and political attention. In this regard, the branding of cities provides the advantage of making the process of attracting attention from various sectors easier.

Additionally, the branding of cities, when done properly and strategically, can contribute to the economic development of the city, as cities are seen as economic assets and building blocks of the city's nation's economy (Rainisto 2004). According to Yananda and Salamah (in Purwanti 2017), cities are contributors to a nation's economic development as many income generating activities are located in cities. Therefore, an effective city branding strategy is able to build a highly competitive city, which can be a destination for moving capital, modern manufacturers, talent, technology, tourists, events, and citizens with high-income (Yananda & Salamah in Purwanti 2017).

Successful city branding requires good leadership from its top management to protect the image of the city during tumultuous times because bad city management can negatively affect the city's image (Rainisto 2004). "Without talented leadership, a place cannot successfully make use of its resources and capabilities and risks losing its development and market position" (Rainisto 2004: 14). City branding therefore enables a city to make use of its resources and skills optimally to secure its place/position in the market. Moreover, it is a competitive source for increasing competitive advantage (Bidgoli, Arani & Bidgoli 2014).

Morgan, Pritchard and Pride (2002: 19) note that "places are the world's most under-realised brands." Tourists want to spend their income in a place that appeals to their emotions and has conversational capital (Morgan *et al.* 2002). City branding is thus beneficial for the tourism sector of a city because it makes the city attractive for tourists.

Owing to the fact that city branding is concerned with promoting the city, it has the ability to create a favourable perception of the city in the minds of the targeted stakeholders (Bidgoli *et al.* 2014). According to Ashworth and Kavaratzis (2007: 521), "it is in people's minds that the city takes form through the processing of perceptions and images about the city."

"City branding can be the most important aspect of prosperity of a city" (Bidgoli *et al.* 2014: 169). A good city brand, as a result of good branding strategies, is able to inspire its stakeholders through the attachments they have with the brand (Sharifi, Jandaghian & Shireh Paz in Bidgoli *et al.* 2014). It is therefore important for a city brand to be well designed and thought out with its various stakeholders in mind.

City branding also manages the city's reputation. City branding is a powerful and vital tool to halt possible city degradations in the future. According to Anholt (2007), every place has a reputation just as products and companies have images, and this reputation can be positive or negative and can come out in a complex and random way. As such, cities practise city branding to establish a positive reputation for themselves in the global market place (Sevin 2014). In the case where a place has a negative reputation, place branding can be used to deal with negative perceptions to change a place's image (Hildreth 2010).

In Table 2.4 below, Parkerson and Saunders (2005) summarise additional benefits of branding based on the classical branding literature.

Table 2.4: Benefits of branding (Source: Parkerson & Saunders 2005)

Author	Benefits
Cohen and Basu (1987)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Encoding and retrieval cues • Heuristic cues for evaluation and choice decisions
Doyle (1989)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Facilitate consumer choice process and make it more effective
Feldwick (1991)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Trustworthy badge of origin • Promise of performance
Murphy (1992)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identification functions • Added value • Intangible value • Credibility guarantee

Branding is able to motivate brand purchase or consumption due to its *functional, sensorial* and *expressive or emotive* benefits (Batey 2008). Functional benefits refer to the results offered for using the particular brand, for example, a hair product may promise longer lasting hair colour, a toothpaste manufacturer may promise whiter teeth and fresher breath. These benefits often become the basis for competition amongst brands as they are easily imitated. The city of Kimberley cannot offer residents efficient transport systems, such as the Gautrain, due to a lack of infrastructure development or alternative transport systems.

Sensorial benefits refer to the physical experiences of a brand, such as the feel, taste and smell (Batey 2008). These experiences can be anything from the ambience of the city, the culture or personality of the city, the activities in the city, or the culinary experience in the city. These benefits are particularly relevant to the tourism industry, which is an experience based sector.

Expressive benefits help consumers to express and define themselves and contribute to their sense of identity, for example, people who define themselves as “classy” would choose to wear the Chanel brand and drive a Mercedes Benz (Batey 2008). These benefits also instil a

sense of pride in consumers who are associated with a certain brand. People residing in various cities in South Africa use the name of the city where they live to describe themselves, for example, people from Cape Town are “Cape Townians”, those from Johannesburg are “Joburgers” and those from Kimberley are “Kimberlites”. These names express their sense of identity with their city.

Emotional benefits, which are similar to expressive benefits, refer to the positive feeling created in consumers as a result of using a brand. The benefits of brands discussed above are also applicable to city branding. Although city branding is beneficial for many cities, there are also challenges to the concept.

2.10 CITY BRANDING CHALLENGES

Although city branding and corporate branding show similarities, Kaplan *et al.* (2010) note that branding cities is a more complex process due to its human associations and geographical factors. Given this complexity, place branding is not as easy as it sounds (Hildreth 2010). Ilmonen (2007) agrees that branding a place is a difficult task. According to Ilmonen (2007), the challenge presented by branding a city is a direct consequence of a city’s diverse groups, interests and multitude realities therefore it is a complex task to brand these realities and diverse groups under one name or package. Sevcik (2011) also highlights the difference between city branding and conventional branding by noting that cities are more complex and have dynamic and diverse stakeholders and this requires a more comprehensive and inclusive approach to city branding. Ilmonen (2007) concurs that the branding of places is more difficult due to a complex web of stakeholders. The challenges can also be related to negotiating for local participation, the historical identity and association of a city and the intangibility of cities that makes it difficult to sell cities as products; it is only the city’s image, which can be improved (Ilmonen 2007).

According to Sahin and Baloglu (2014), country branding has diverse groups of stakeholders making city branding more difficult. “Branding a city is both a rational and emotional engagement with place, aesthetics and everyday life” (Gammack & Donald 2007: 45). These engagements are achieved through the associations that various stakeholders have with the

city brand. Brand messages may get lost when communicating with many different groups (Sahin & Baloglu 2014). It is therefore important to have segmented markets for branding countries. City branding provides a solution to the problems which arise from the many broad appeals of country branding because it “can be viewed as product customisation for certain segments” (Sahin & Baloglu 2014: 243).

Due to potential conflicts amongst country, region and city brands, brand confusion may occur (Sahin & Baloglu 2014). The targeted audiences may not be able to differentiate between the three brands if messages are not being delivered effectively. For city branding to be effective, competitive and sustainable, it is essential for all the different stakeholders to be integrated and be partners when implementing the city branding strategy (Paskaleva-Shapira in Sahin & Baloglu 2014). This integration of the various city brand partners and stakeholders can contribute to an internal branding strategy for a city brand. The development of an internal brand of a city is a continuous effort for cities (Hildreth 2010).

Sahin and Bakoglu (2014: 243) caution that “city branding must be considered carefully as it may cause more serious challenges than the benefits it provides.” Govender (2006: 32) notes the challenges faced by cities when branding themselves and how to respond to these challenges. The author provides a synthesis of challenges noted by Matson (1994) and solutions to these challenges discussed by Haider, Kotler and Rein (1993).

Table 2.5: City Branding Challenges and Solutions (Govender 2006)

Challenges	Solutions
1. Cities are increasingly at risk as a result of the accelerating pace of change in the global, political and technological environment.	1. Cities need to establish a strategic vision to face these challenges.
2. Cities are increasingly at risk as a result of normal processes of urban evolution and decay.	2. Cities need to establish a market-oriented strategic planning process to face these challenges.
3. Cities are facing a growing number of competitors in their efforts to attract scarce resources.	3. Cities must adopt a genuine market perspective toward their product and consumers.
4. Cities have to rely increasingly on their own local resources to face the competition.	4. Cities have to build quality into their growing programs and services to compete with other places.
5. Slow down in level of capital investment.	5. Cities need skills to effectively communicate and promote their competitive advantages.
6. Increasing customer sophistication.	6. Cities need to diversify their economic base and develop mechanisms for flexibly adapting to changing conditions.
7. New city/region entrants.	7. Cities must develop and nurture entrepreneurial characteristics.
8. Pressure on communities to perform.	8. Cities must rely more on the private sector to accomplish their tasks.
9. Clutter and company postures.	9. Each city needs to develop its own unique change process as a result of differences in the city's culture, politics and leadership.
10. Product proliferation and difficulty of achieving differentiation.	10. Cities must develop organisational and procedural mechanisms to sustain place development and maintain momentum once it has begun.

2.11 BRAND EQUITY AND CITY BRANDING

It is argued in this study that a strong city brand builds brand equity for a city. Powerful and strong brands secure a city a firm position amongst its competitors and also improves the value of the brand while ultimately improving the financial performance of the brand. This is discussed below as brand equity. The concept of brand equity is discussed within traditional marketing and branding literature. City brands, like other brands, can be defined according to their corporate marketing paradigms and literature (Parkerson & Saunders 2005; Kavaratzis & Ashworth 2005). The traditional components and elements of corporate branding can be applied during the process of building brand equity for a city.

A number of academics have argued whether the practices, theories, models and concepts of product and corporate branding are transferable to cities (Parkerson & Saunders 2005; Ashworth & Kavaratzis 2007). The application of product branding theories to place branding became popular during 1990 (Baker 2007). Stigel and Frimann (2006) believe that it is not possible to transfer corporate branding philosophy to cities because it is difficult to uncover the identity and mentality of a city but, on the other hand, Anholt (2007) argues that traditional branding concepts can be transferred to the concept of city branding. Adopting traditional branding practices to build brand equity is a starting point to build an equitable city brand.

2.12 BRAND EQUITY DEFINED

Brand equity is a defensible asset because it cannot be defeated by competitor actions (Neal & Strauss 2008b) as “brand equity is the capacity of a branded product or service to earn more benefits than the unbranded competitor in the same product/service category” (Nath & Bawa 2011: 135). This means that brand equity is derived through “branding activities” which are able to create a formidable brand for cities.

The process of branding is an inherent part of building brand equity (Keller in Rajasekar & Nalina 2008). Consequently, branding, as a marketing strategy, can build brand equity to create competitive advantage. Brand equity, which enables a brand strategy to succeed, is the set of assets and liabilities linked to the brand (Aaker 2008). Kotler and Kapferer (2008)

define brand equity as the current financial value of the flow of future profits attached to the brand itself (the potential future contribution linked to the name in the current distribution context). Brand value or brand assets are not defined and limited to the financial value only but also include the added value of the brand. For city brands, brand value can reap economic benefits by attracting investments into the city as well as residents and visitors. Brand value constitutes both added and financial value. The presence of “value” in the above definitions indicates the crucial role of brands in sustaining financial leverage and their positions in the marketplace. Added value and financial value are correlative benefits for firms, consumers, cities, residents and investors. The elements of a brand which contribute to added value ultimately lead to financial value. When consumers associate with the brand, brand knowledge is developed which leads to the consumption of the brand, thus contributing to increased profits (financial value). Subsequently, brand knowledge of the city of Kimberley brand can lead to economic development of the city if people identify with Kimberley and can associate it with the city brand.

Financial value creates added value for firms when consumers associate with a brand due to its competitive prices. Price, in this context, thus becomes an added value of a brand. Financial value and added value are therefore core elements of brand value, which is an important component in defining and measuring a brand asset. The accrued value (financial and added value) of the impact on the customer market, product market and financial market builds brand equity (Keller & Lehman 2006). Accrued value thus signifies brand assets. According to Kotler and Kaferer (2008), brand assets are the awareness and image components of a brand known as brand equity from the customer’s point of view. Brand assets are essential for cities to be globally competitive.

The notion of customer based brand equity emerges from the idea that brand value (equity) is dependent on the consumer and, as a result, is an incremental process to build brands around customer segmentation (Rust *et al.* 2004). Cities need to recognise that their residents and other internal and external stakeholders are their customers who can buy into the city brand. Brand equity is therefore established based on the consumers’ brand meaning (M’zungu *et al.* 2010). “Brand meaning refers to the customers’ dominant perception of the

brand” (M’zungu *et al.* 2010: 607). The perceptions of internal stakeholders about the Kimberley city brand informs their brand meaning. These perceptions include the mental links between images, names and cognitions in the consumers’ minds (Wilson, Bengtsson & Curran 2014).

Traditionally, brand equity has been studied from two perspectives: the consumer based perspective and the financial based perspective (Rajasekar & Nalina 2008) however, Keller and Lehman (2006) identify another perspective, “company based brand equity”. A number of components make up and build brand equity. Four of the most commonly used models that identify these components are illustrated below in Figures 2.2, 2.3, 2.7 and 2.8. The brand equity models are discussed in light of the first secondary objective of the study, which is to discuss the scope and nature of city branding and brand equity. Through a discussion and review of these models, a synthesis of the various components or elements, which build brand equity is provided. These elements, which build brand equity, provide directions to consider when building brand equity for cities. These models formulate a city brand equity model, which could be applied to build a strong brand equity for the city of Kimberley brand.



Figure 2.2: Brand equity model adopted by Aaker (2008)

Another model of brand equity is proposed by Aaker (1996) and includes perceived quality and other proprietary brand assets (Figure 2.3).

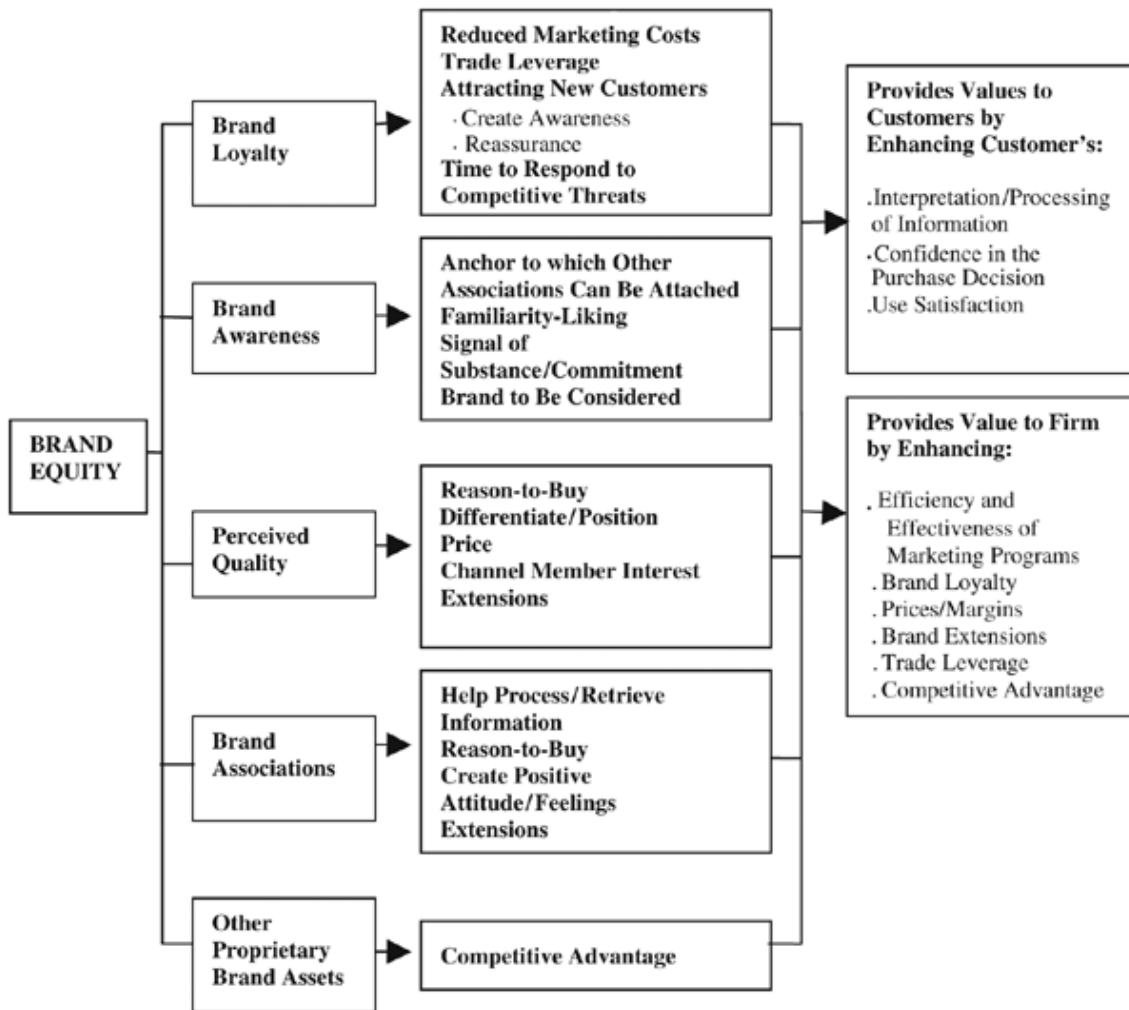


Figure 2.3: Aaker’s model of brand equity (Aaker 1996)

2.13 BRAND EQUITY COMPONENTS

Brand equity comprises four main elements including brand loyalty, brand awareness, perceived quality, brand associations and other proprietary brand assets (Aaker 1996). These elements are discussed below as per the brand equity models in this section.

2.13.1 Brand loyalty

Whilst firms always want to attract new customers to increase revenue, it remains important to retain the current customers who are brand loyal. Brand loyalty is the customers’ trust in the brand, which leads to repeat purchases. Brand loyalty is a result of strong positive brand attitude, which, over time, leads to a preference for the brand (Elliot & Percy 2007). According

to Olivier (in Matthews, Son & Watchravesringkan 2014), there are three dimensions to brand loyalty, namely, *cognitive*, *affective* and *conative*. The first two dimensions are connected to brand associations as they involve emotions and knowledge about the brand. The final dimension of brand loyalty entails a commitment about a product, which leads a consumer to repurchase (Olivier in Matthews *et al.* 2014). Conative or behavioural brand loyalty is a desirable outcome of customer based brand equity where the objective is to build brand value for customers to continue purchasing the brand (Romaniuk & Nenyož-Thiel 2013).

In city branding, the theory of brand loyalty is tested through the current stakeholders of the brand: investors, residents and local businesses. Consumers and the various brand stakeholders are important entities in the brand equity building process and overall branding process because “the key to brand profits is in the consumer’s mind” (Hofmeyr & Rice 2000: 2). Brand loyal stakeholders retain their investments, remain in the same city and do not take their businesses elsewhere. Brand loyalty, from a city branding perspective, is evoked by the stakeholder’s satisfaction with the city in various sectors, for example, social services, education, safety and security, and economic development, among others. Satisfied stakeholders of a city are brand loyal consumers who are reluctant or resistant to switch between brands (Elliot & Percy 2007; Aaker 2008) and other cities. Brand loyalty is ultimately paramount in building brand value as loyal customers are instrumental in generating future sales and thus profits (Klopper & North 2011). For cities, these profits can ultimately contribute to the local economic development in the city. Loyal stakeholders of a city can benefit from their loyalty when infrastructure, education and health systems in the city improve as well as job opportunities.

Loyal customers provide competitive advantages by reducing marketing costs (Aaker 2008) as it is costlier to attract new customers than to retain loyal customers. In addition, loyal customers are a significant entry barrier to competitors (Klopper & North 2011; Aaker 2008). An entry barrier to competitors makes it difficult for loyal customers to break away from their brands, making it difficult for competitors to entice them away as significant resources are required when entering a market of existing customers (Aaker 2008). Earlier in the chapter, Kazançoğlu and Dirsehan (2014) suggested that brand loyalty, from a city branding

perspective, is a city's residents' or other city stakeholders' pride, psychological or emotional attachment towards the brand. Additionally, in the context of brand equity, these attachments could also relate to brand associations, which make it difficult for residents (consumers) to switch to another city (brand).

Brand switching amongst brand loyal customers has perceived risks. This is illustrated in Figure 2.4. Repeat purchases of a brand do not necessarily indicate brand loyalty. Brand loyalty is assured only when customers are highly satisfied with the brand, making their perceived risk of switching low. However, vulnerability may occur when switching costs are low (Elliot & Percy 2007). Repeat purchases, in the case of city branding, would be measured through the number of continued investments in the city by investors, the number of returning tourists to a city or the various destinations in a city.

Satisfaction	
Low	High
Frustrated	Loyal
Switchable	Vulnerable

Figure 2.4: Brand switching amongst brand loyal customers (Elliot & Percy 2007)

According to Aaker (2008), there are competitive advantages, which come with loyal customers. The author states that a large satisfied customer base creates an image of a brand as an accepted, established and successful brand and thus provides reassurance to other customers, thereby attracting more customers to the brand. Lastly, Aaker (2008) argues that brand loyalty allows time for firms to respond to competitive threats by matching or neutralising the competitor's offering. For a city's residents, loyalty to a city brand could also indicate a level of comfort as they have familiarised themselves with the functioning, amenities, people, governance and infrastructures of the city. Residents' satisfaction (low frustration) with a city brand would result in less vulnerability to switching between brands

(cities) which is also an indication of the high levels of loyalty.

2.13.2 Brand awareness

Brand awareness, as a component of brand equity, “provides a sustainable competitive difference” (Aaker 2008: 158). It is almost impossible for a brand to gain value if it does not have awareness. Brand awareness plays a pivotal role in consumer consideration for brand usage in which other brand associations can be formed as well (Klopper & North 2011). Aaker’s brand equity model (1996: 9) illustrates brand awareness as familiarity and liking of the brand, and as a substance, that the brand carries and which raises awareness of the brand. The Brandt and Johnson brand equity model (Figure 2.7) illustrates familiarity and awareness as two separate components of brand equity whereas Aaker’s brand equity model (Figure 2.3) describes familiarity under brand awareness. A consumer’s brand awareness indicates the consumer’s level of knowledge regarding the brand and therefore brand awareness is used as a measure for brand knowledge (Smutkupt, Krairit, & Khang 2011). Brand awareness is a component of brand knowledge and part of the brand building process, which appeals to consumers’ internal responses, cognitively and affectively (Zarantonello, Schmitt & Jedidi 2014).

According to Yousaf, Zulfiqar, Aslam and Altaf (2012), brand awareness is important in promoting a product effectively to differentiate the product from those of its competitors. Brand communication establishes brand awareness and can be achieved through brand elements such as logos, slogans, packaging, symbols, characters, advertising and promotion, sponsorships and event marketing, publicity and public relations, and outdoor advertising (Keller 2013).

A combination of brand communication and other marketing activities, such as internal branding and internal marketing, can build a strong city brand, which is vital in building brand equity for a city. In their study on brand awareness in the service sector, Conradie, Roberts-Lombard and Klopper (2014) found that internal marketing is just as important as other forms of marketing in creating positive brand awareness. They concluded that effective internal marketing results in employees offering excellent service to other employees and improves

service to external customers.

A brand needs to be viewed from all angles, not only external attributes but internal attributes and associations as well (De Chernatony 1999). Internal marketing should be directed particularly towards employees in the city who can promote the city brand values and mission to external stakeholders. Employees serve as a point of contact with external audiences. To make a city brand successful, it is therefore important that they understand the brand first before selling it to others.

According to Christadoulides and Chernatony (in Attri, Urkude & Pahwa 2011), a successful brand is an identifiable brand which is representative of high brand awareness. Keller (2013) asserts that a brand, which has high brand awareness, has a competitive advantage and states that there are three advantages of brand awareness: *learning advantages*, *consideration advantages* and *choice advantages*. Learning advantages relate to the fact that consumers create a brand node in the process of creating brand awareness as they have to learn and store certain brand associations. The second brand awareness advantage, consideration, relates to the idea that consumers must consider a brand before making a purchase. As such, “increased brand awareness increases the likelihood that the brand will be a member of the consideration set” (Keller 2013: 74) before a purchase is made. The last advantage of brand awareness, choice, is centred on the notion that high levels of brand awareness can affect choice among the brands in the consideration set (Keller 2013).

Brand awareness is created in the ways in which consumers remember a brand. These are *recognition*, *recall*, *top of mind* and *dominant brand* (Aaker, in Klopper & North 2011). Recognition, as a type of brand awareness, refers to the familiarity and liking of the brand by the consumer. Recall refers to the consumer’s memory to recall the brand. Keller’s (1998) brand equity model also illustrates brand recognition and brand recall as a form of brand awareness (Figure 2.8).

Brand awareness eventuates when the brand is at the top of the mind of the consumer, being the first brand to be recalled by the consumer amongst other brands, and a dominant brand means that the consumer is aware of a certain product or service category. Yousaf *et al.*

(2012) refer to this as consumer's "share of mind" and further asserts that a highly recognisable brand usually has the highest sales in comparison to its competitors. The idea of brand awareness existing in the consumer's mind (Yousaf *et al.* 2012) can be linked to Keller's (2013) viewpoint that brand awareness is related to brand node or trace in the consumers' memory. A high degree of brand awareness is indicative of a powerful brand. Powerful brands provide a significant competitive advantage, as pointed out by Elliot and Percy (2007), making brand awareness a valuable asset.

According to Aaker (2008), brand awareness provides a sense of familiarity, which drives the buying decision. "Familiarity involves a primitive sense of knowing without the need for specific details" (Schacter, in Elliot & Percy 2007: 86). The notion of familiarity is related to recall as a brand with substance is easier to remember. Secondly, brand awareness is a signal of presence, commitment, substance and attributes as a brand's support is based on the substance it gratifies, for example, Apple Mac carries an element of substance in terms of quality and a presence of technological innovation hence the brand's success. Lastly, a competitive advantage of brand awareness is a brand saliency. Brand saliency determines whether the brand is recalled at the point of purchase (Aaker 2008). Ehrenberg *et al.* (in Elliot & Percy 2007) argues that a salient brand is one that creates associations with the consumers' specific needs. Figure 2.5 below illustrates the relationship between brand awareness, brand saliency, brand attitude and brand loyalty.



Learning occurs

Associations build

Preference forms

Figure 2.5 Brand awareness, salience and attitude leading to brand loyalty (Elliot & Percy 2007)

The above figure illustrates the purchase facilitation process in which knowledge and recognition of the brand exists which leads to the brand being recalled at the purchasing point (salience). This process of building loyalty and preference is similar for many consumers in

tourism sectors who choose destinations based on their knowledge of the chosen destination. The process ultimately culminates with them building associations with the destination and having loyalty towards that place. Once a perceived quality and image is formed and consumer satisfaction occurs, brand loyalty follows as the brand becomes the consumer's trusted brand in a specific category of needs. Figure 2.5 also relates to Macdonald and Sharp's statement (in Smutkupt *et al.* 2011: 96) that, "without brand awareness, brand attitude and brand image cannot be formed".

2.13.3 Perceived quality

Perceptions play a pivotal role in the consumer decision-making process. Consumers need a reason or motive to consume certain products or services. Perceived quality is therefore the "reason to buy" the product and this is related to the price they are prepared to pay based on its perceived quality. Similarly, Zeithaml (1988) suggests that perceived quality is the customer's assessment or complete evaluation of the superiority (quality) of the service or product and the excellence of such. The concept of "perceived quality" is prominent within the fields of relationship marketing as brand loyalty (Figure 2.5) is the end product or ultimate goal of relationship marketing (Loureiro 2013). Perceived quality, as illustrated in Aaker's model of brand equity, differentiates the brand from other brands and assists in brand positioning. Perceived quality carries influential power, which is associated with a number of attributes (Aaker 2008). The influence of perceived quality on consumers' buying decisions serves as an important brand asset as it "drives financial performance through the price premium that consumers are prepared to pay" (Klopper & North 2011: 38).

Concomitantly, Tybout and Calkins (2005) assert that well-known brands affect how people perceive the brand. Premium brands are likely to be viewed as expensive, high quality or exclusive and this also determines the price consumers are willing to pay for a specific brand. In affirmation of the preceding, a study with three groups of MBA students was conducted to determine how much they were willing to pay for a pair of 18 carat gold earrings with two 0.3 carat diamonds, unbranded earrings, branded earrings from Walmart and branded earrings from Tiffany. The average price they were willing to pay for the unbranded earrings was \$550, the average price for the Tiffany brand was \$873 and a shocking \$81 for the Wal-Mart

branded earrings (Tybout & Calkins 2005). The study revealed the power of brand perception and perceived quality and the role it plays in pricing, supporting Aaker's (2008) viewpoint that perceived quality has an effect on financial performance as the sales are dependent on what the consumer perceives the quality of the brand to be. This describes the financial value (asset) perceived of the brand equity. The notion of premium price on brands is also prevalent in non-product brands such as city brands and other forms of non-consumer brands. The manner in which consumers perceive certain cities determines how they value that city and the price premium they place on that city. World-renowned tourist attractions and some of the world's famous cities are likely to be perceived to be a better tourism experience than those that are not as well known. As mentioned earlier, these perceptions ultimately lead to loyalty and this builds brand equity.

A study of brand equity in an online context revealed the dependence of internet banking brand equity on brand loyalty and the perceived risk in ensuring optimal financial success (Loureiro 2013). The findings of the study indicated that online benefits contribute positively in building trust. Consequently, this made trust an essential indirect antecedent of internet banking brand equity. Trust in the quality of services offered by the bank builds brand loyalty as consumers are confident of their internet banking services that reinforces positive awareness and associations with the bank brand and thus enhances the quality evaluation process of the online banking services. The study indicated the interrelationships of trust, brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty in building internet banking brand equity in which brand awareness and perceived quality are mediators between trust and loyalty (Loureira 2013). This relationship is parallel to the relationship illustrated in Figure 2.5 above (Elliot & Percy 2007).

The perceived quality of a brand could also be studied in correlation with the overall brand credibility. This idea extends the notion of trust having an impact on perceived quality. Positive brand perceptions enhance the credibility of a brand. In their study on the antecedents of green brand equity, Fong Ng, Butt and Khong (2013) studied the influence perceived quality and credibility on consumer perceptions towards a brand green image, green value and green equity and conclude that perceived quality has a positive incremental

influence on brand credibility.

Though the above examples are mostly applicable in commercial or product branding, it is worth noting the role trust plays in perceived quality. For city branding, the notion of perceived quality might not be entirely attributed to price, but to the quality of life (QOL) a city can offer its residents and other relevant stakeholders. This concept is also a factor in the fierce competition between cities as they compete for tourists, investments and residents (Riza, Doratli & Fasli 2012). The feeling of satisfaction comes with the quality of life that a place can offer to its stakeholders. Additionally, Riza *et al.* (2012) suggest that this satisfaction with the quality of a place is influenced by the image of a city or place. For a city brand, the image of a city can influence the perceived quality of place. The relationship between quality and image, within the context of city branding, is further emphasised by Kavaratzis (2004) who argues that the spatial quality of a city contributes to the image of the city. This, in turn, creates an effective city branding strategy, which is able to attract investments and improve the spatial quality of the city (Kavaratzis 2004).

The figure below illustrates the mutual dependency of city branding and spatial quality.

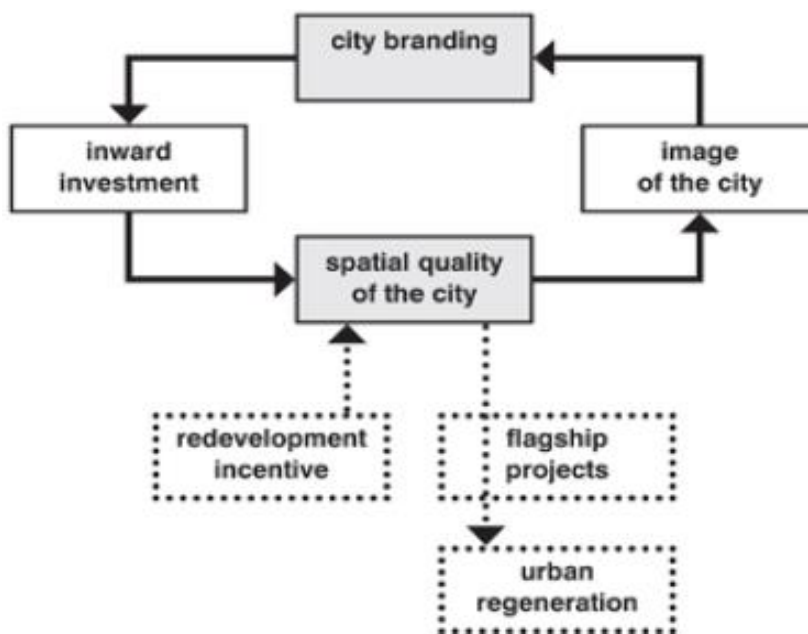


Figure 2.6: Mutual dependency of city branding and spatial quality (Kavaratzis 2004)

Branding initiatives, such as redevelopment incentives, flagship projects and urban regeneration have an impact on the spatial quality of the city (Figure 2.6). These, in turn, advance economic prosperity within the city. Economic prosperity and advancement affirms strong brand equity, which is a result of a strong city brand.

Despite the effect that perceived quality carries on brand equity, it is overlooked as it remains absent on other brand equity models (Brandt & Johnson 1997; Keller 1998).

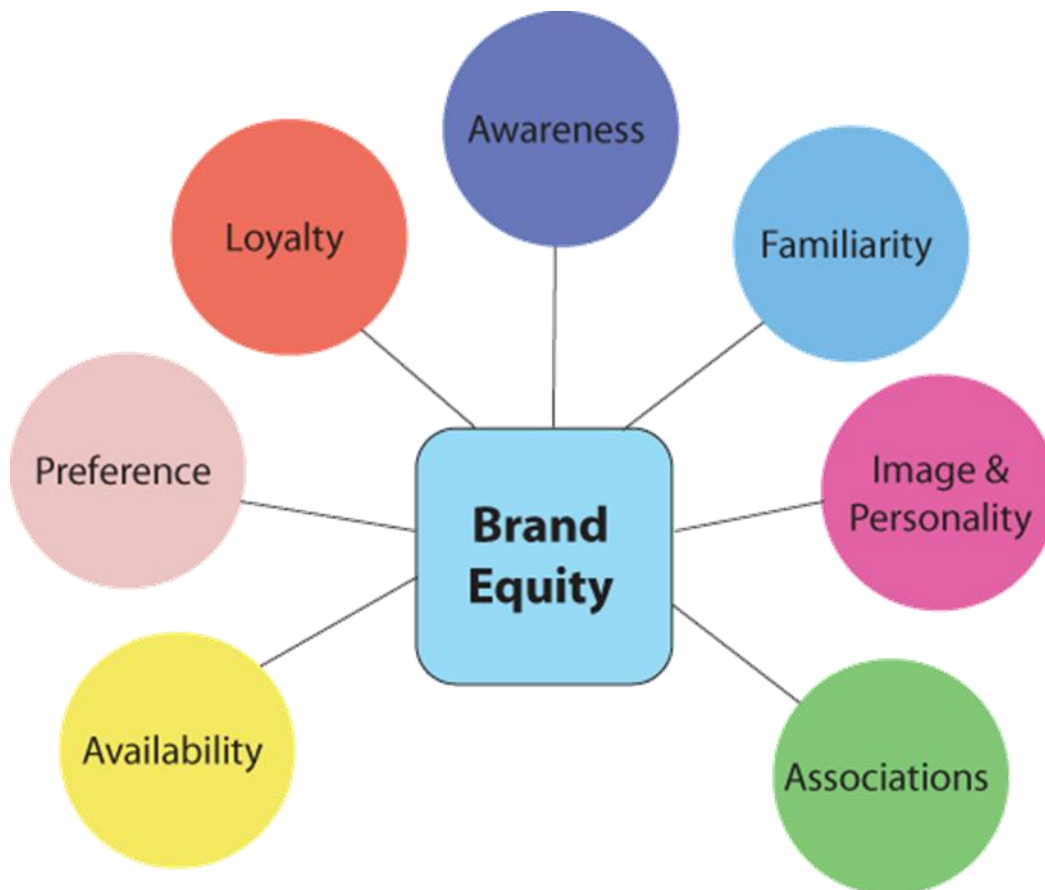


Figure 2.7: Brand equity model (Brandt & Johnson 1997)

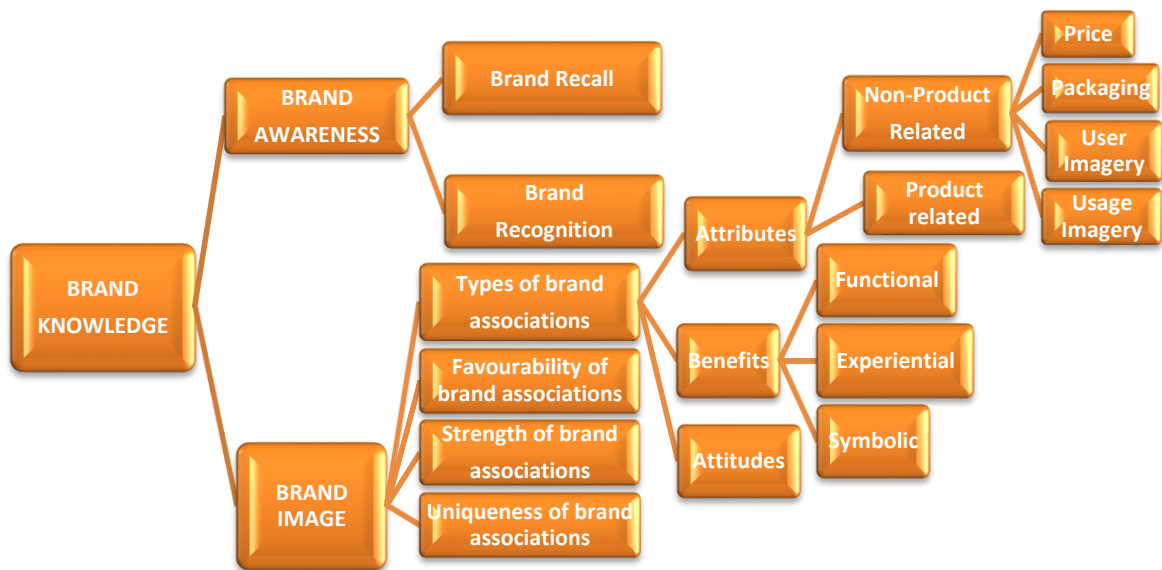


Figure 2.8: Brand equity model (Keller 1998)

2.13.4 Brand associations

Brand associations are attributes associated with the brand (Aaker 1991; Aaker 1992; Aaker 1996; Keller 1998). Brand association is described as a separate component of brand equity in Aaker's (1998) model of brand equity, whereas Keller (1998) illustrates brand association as a component of brand image. According to Klopper and North (2011), brand associations are tangible attributes, which may be linked to the product benefits, which are intangible attributes such as culture, skills and human characteristics within the organisation.

According to Rahman (2013), brand associations range from functional attributes to non-functional associations like feelings and images. Rahman (2013) makes a special reference to corporate associations stating that they range from corporate ability associations, such as innovativeness and trustworthiness, to corporate social responsibility associations, such as sponsorship of charities. Cities are viewed from a perspective of a corporation and thus the same corporate associations are applicable. In the case of a city brand, additional associations could include service delivery, public management, reputation, education systems,

cleanliness, infrastructure, transport systems and safety among others.

Additionally, Klopper and North (2011) further suggest that brand associations create positive attitudes towards the brand and ultimately assist in building brand equity. Brand associations are any mental linkages to the brand (Tuominen 1999). Similarly, Aaker (1991) argues that a brand association is triggered by the extent to which a brand is able to “retrieve” associations from the consumer’s brain. Based on the viewpoints shared by Tuominen (1999) and Aaker (1991), a brand association is a cognitive representation of the brand through experiences and engagements with the brand. The same idea is applicable for a city brand. One of the objectives of this study was to investigate the knowledge of the key role players in the tourism sector of Kimberley in relation to the city brand. This was done through gathering their experiences of the brand and how they associate with it from their various positions. Therefore, brand associations are part of the consumer based brand equity due to the network of brand associations formed in the consumer’s memory (Keller 2013). Brand association, as a component of brand equity, helps processing and retrieving information about the brand, provides a reason to buy the brand whilst creating positive attitudes about the brand (Aaker 1996). As a result, brand associations are a firm foundation for strong brands and thus, “the heart of brand-building” (Aaker & Joachimsthaler 2009: 263).

The notion of brand association, which provides a reason to buy the product is supported by Koll and Von Wallpach (2014), who explore whether brand association drives consumer responses. In their study, they conclude that high brand association positively relates to brand response and thus positive associations are key assets in driving consumers (Koll & Von Wallpach 2014). Moreover, their study concludes that brands may enjoy positive responses even though they are not linked with management intended associations (Koll & Von Wallpach 2014).

A number of brand associations exist when the brand is remembered. These include product or non-product attributes, functional, experimental, symbolic benefits, customer benefits, uses, product classes and competitors (Tuominen 1999; Aaker 1992; Aaker 1996; Rahman 2013; Keller 2013). These types of brand associations are extended by Batey (2008: 116) who argues that brand associations take up many different forms from “concrete to the abstract,

from the conscious to the unconscious, the direct to the indirect”. Indirect associations occur as a result of other associations, they comprise chain linked associations where one association is the result of another. Direct associations, on the contrary, do not exist as a result of another element, they occur between two elements, e.g., the immediate association with the Mercedes Benz is a car and not class or luxury, which would be indirect associations. Figure 2.9 below illustrates the main types of brand associations (Keller 1998, Batey 2008).

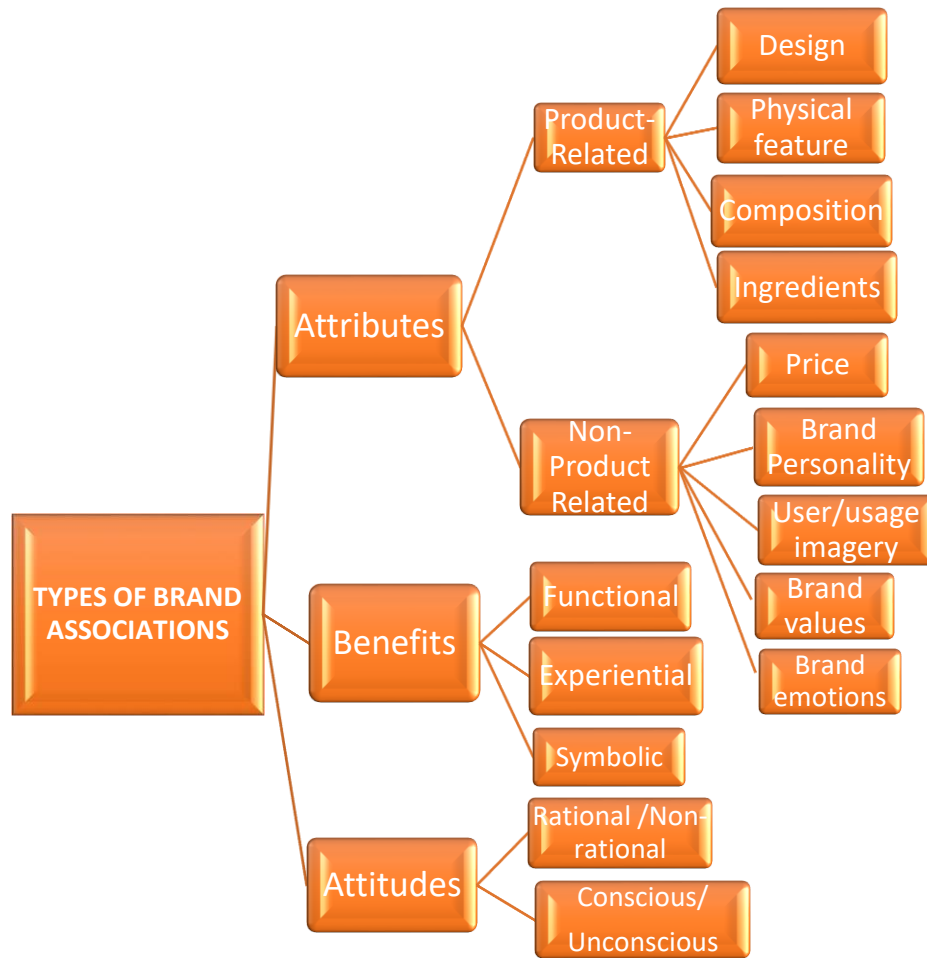


Figure 2.9. The types of brand associations (Batey 2008)

2.13.4.1 Attributes

Attributes are the first types of brand associations and the most tangible associations (Faircloth, Capella & Alford 2001). They are descriptive features that characterise a product or service and give consumers an opinion or viewpoint of the product or service and the process involved in its purchase or consumption (Keller 1993). Brand attributes are therefore perceptual and the value, essence or importance of a brand is determined by the consumer's perception of that brand (Faircloth *et al.* 2001).

According to Keller (1993, 1998, 2008) and Batey (2008), brand attributes exist on two levels, product related attributes and non-product related attributes. Brand attributes are distinguished according to the tangible (product related) and intangible (non-product related) elements of the brand. Consumers form attachments with brands based on various evaluations and perceptions of the elements, in which they ultimately form emotional attachments and associations with the brand. Park, MacInnis, Priester, Eisingerrich and Iacobucci (2010) believe that these emotions are evoked when there is a strong degree of attachment because emotions are an integral part of a brand and its prominent factors. For a city brand, non-product related attributes can specifically occur in the hospitality sector, which is mainly service driven, and product related attributes can be linked to the goods sector of the tourism industry and other industries with a potential influence on the city brand.

Product related associations are created according to the physical composition of the brand including the design and ingredients which affect product performance (Batey 2008). Subsequently, these become part of the trade exercise of the consumer before purchasing a product or service (Neal & Strauss 2008b). These associations are relevant as they influence the purchase decision and form a basis for brand loyalty (Aaker 2008). Additionally, product related associations provide consumers with the product or service function (customer benefits) which they actively seek during the brand consumption or brand usage process (Aaker 2008; Keller 1998). Product related attributes are therefore tangible elements associated with a brand. These attributes are distinguished on the basis of the need for the product to work, to allow customisation or product versatility and personalised usage of the

product (Keller 1998).

Non-product related attributes are extrinsic or external because they do not have any effect on product performance, thus they have an indirect relation to product or service performance and the purchasing decision. Non-product related attributes are thus key in purchasing decisions or “*buy-in*” decisions of certain brands, such as city brands, destination brands and others, because such brands do not have the advantage of look, feel and taste eminent with product brands. These attributes are based on how the brand will deliver its promise to its consumers. (Neal & Strauss 2008b). Non-product attributes constitute of five elements, namely, price, brand personality, user/usage imagery, brand values and brand emotions (Keller 1993; Keller 1998; Batey 2008).

According to Keller (1998), user imagery refers to the type of people who use the product or service and usage imagery refers to where and in which situations the product or service is being used. Typical associations of brand users are classified according to demographic (sex, age, race and income) and psychological factors (political institutions, possessions) and typical associations of usage situations that are based on time of the day, week, month or year and the location of the situation, e.g., is the product or service usage taking place inside or outside the house or the type of activity referring to formal or informal usage (Keller 1998).

User and usage imagery attributes can be formed directly and indirectly through consumers’ experiences, contact with brand users and target market depiction through marketing communications (Keller 1993). In the case of a city brand such as Kimberley, usage and user imagery refers to the various contact points where consumers (stakeholders) come in contact (brand contact points) with the brand. These become increasingly important for internal branding as well, and need to be considered when adopting an integrated marketing communication approach to city branding. The role of brand contact points in internal branding and integrated marketing approach to send consistent messages is further reviewed in Chapter 3. Brand attributes or attachments for a city brand are a result of the emotional ties between people and places (Baker 2012). These contact points could be experienced through the infrastructure of the city, education system, governance, municipality and even the friendliness of the residents of the town. The contact points are also covered under

Anholt's (2006) city brand hexagon which illustrates the six city brand elements.

Price, as a non-product related attribute, forms part of the marketing mix and hence its inevitable importance in marketing. According to Kotler (in Jain 2009), the traditional marketing mix, "4 p's" is from the seller's view of the market and therefore the introduction of the "4 c's" of marketing, studies the market from the consumers' viewpoint. Within tourism management or tourist products, price is a crucial aspect of the marketing mix because it directly produces revenue for the organisation (Fyall & Garrod 2005). Price, as a non-product attribute, is important in the purchase process, however it has no effect on product performance (Keller 1998). Arguably, price is an important attribute with regard to the formation of brand perceptions regarding the value consumers place on the product or service and their desire for the brand. Rajaseker and Nalina (2008) postulate that price or value is included due to consumers' perceived balance between the price (value) of a product and its use, which explains why some brands have higher brand equity because of their price value.

Price is used as a criterion for segmenting product knowledge in a specific market or category (Batey 2008: 117). Therefore, price is an "important attribute association because consumers often have strong beliefs about the price and value of a brand and may organize their product category knowledge in terms of the price tiers of different brands" (Blattberg & Wisniewski in Keller 1993: 4). Other non-product related attributes are specifically relevant to place branding, where places have their own personalities or ambiance, emotions and values, for example, "Paris is not just a city, it is a city of romance" (Eshuis & Klijn 2012).

2.13.4.2 Benefits

The second types of brand associations are brand benefits. Brand benefits are the rewards or advantages which occur as a result of consumption of the brand. According to Batey (2008), benefits describe how a brand can solve problems and make a consumer's life easier, enjoyable and more fun. Benefits are therefore the personal value and meaning that consumers attach to the product or service (Keller 1993). Brand benefits may be distinguished according to three different categories based on their motivations: functional, symbolic and

experiential benefits (Park, Jaworski & MacInnis in Keller 1993). Functional benefits occur as a result of another benefit or product attribute (Batey 2008). Functional benefits motivate purchase behaviour as the functional benefit is often what the consumer is seeking in order to solve a particular problem or avoid the occurrence of one and are therefore increasingly easy for competitors to copy, e.g., tooth whitening agents or products which all communicate the same benefit (Batey 2008). Functional benefits are the more intrinsic advantages of product or service consumption and they usually correspond to the product-related attributes because they have an effect on product performance (Keller 1993).

The second category of benefits, experiential benefits, relates to the feeling consumers get as a result of consumption of the product or service that corresponds to both product-related attributes as well as non-product-related attributes. Experiential benefits satisfy experiential needs such as sensory pleasure, variety, and cognitive stimulation (Keller 1993; 1998). Batey (2008) describes experiential benefits as sensorial benefits, which relate to the physical experiences such as a product's look, taste, texture, smell among others. These benefits are particularly prominent in the services sector and destinations where the core of the business is to sell and promote a certain experience to tourists.

The last category of benefits is symbolic benefits. Symbolic benefits relate to more extrinsic advantages of product or service consumption and therefore correspond to non-product related attributes because they have an effect on product or service consumption. Symbolic benefits relate to the need for social approval and self expression where there is a need to receive a "badge" of approval because of socially visible products (Keller 1993). Symbolic benefits are described as self expressive benefits in Aaker (2008). Similar to symbolic benefits, self expressive benefits provide a vehicle for consumers to express themselves and define their identities through the purchase and consumption of product and service offerings, e.g., expressing a rebellious and free spirited personality by riding a Harley-Davidson (Aaker 2008; Batey 2008). The symbolic and self expressive benefits become important in the worldview of the study, constructivism which is underpinned by the symbolic interactionism theory (Littlejohn & Foss 2008). These symbolic benefits enable consumers to assign meaning (Littlejohn & Foss 2008) to various elements of their experiences and construct their own

realities of their interactions with the brand within their own social circles (Patton 2002). The brand benefits are always perceived in a positive way as there is an added advantage that comes with the consumption or usage of the product or brand. On the other hand, consumers may develop an attitude when consuming a product or service. A review of brand attitudes follows in the next section.

2.13.4.3 Attitudes

Attitudes are the last types of brand associations. “An attitude is an overall favourable or unfavourable evaluation of a product or service” (Jobber & Fahy 2009: 68). Brand attitudes are a component of brand knowledge which affects consumer internal responses, cognitively or affectively (Zarantonello *et al.* 2014). Attitudes are a function of the beliefs that consumers have towards a brand, the degree to which the brand possesses certain attributes and what the consumers’ judgment of these beliefs are that indicates the desirability of the brand (Batey 2008). As such, it is important for brand attitudes to have a direct effect on brand image which ultimately has an indirect effect on brand equity (Faircloth *et al.* 2001). The beliefs of consumers, based on their evaluative judgment, may be positive or negative towards the product or service. Brand attitudes play a very important role in the purchase decision making process (Jobber & Fahy 2009). These attitudes have a direct effect on brand image which includes the consumer's perceptions and associations (Aaker 1991; Keller 1993).

Brand attitudes are consumers’ affective responses (favourable or unfavourable) to a brand. Figure 2.10 illustrates the importance of brand attitude in creating brand equity. The figure also illustrates the objective and subjective characteristics of brand associations which determine the consumers’ attitudes towards the brand. Ultimately, all these elements contribute to brand equity and need to be considered when branding cities with the objective of creating a strong city brand.

The concept of brand attitudes, which could be positive or negative, is also intertwined with reputation. In place branding, reputation plays an important role in the competitive market in which places compete:

Places compete in attracting visitors, residents, and businesses. A place with a positive

reputation finds it easier to vie for attention, resources, people, jobs, and money; a positive place reputation builds place competitiveness and cements a place as somewhere worth visiting (Morgan *et al.* 2011: 3).

According to Morgan and Huertas (2011), in traditional or commercial marketing, a brand with a firm and genuine equity is able to create and build emotive associations which ultimately become a powerful identity benefit. This creates positive brand associations and contributes to a positive perceived reputation. The authors state that “a strong brand has a positive reputation” (Morgan & Huertas 2011: 151). Essentially, a positive reputation for cities can increase their competitiveness with other cities and build a hub of goodwill. All these are possible with a favourable attitude towards a brand. Figure 2.10 below illustrates how brand attitude affects the functional and emotional realm of consumers to build brand equity. When it comes to cities and destinations, brand attitudes are also a strong determinant of whether tourists will revisit a certain destination or place. Brand attitudes also determine brand loyalty, which is an indicator of a strong brand and an important construct of building brand equity.

BRAND ATTITUDE

Knowledge and assumptions about brand (beliefs and importance)

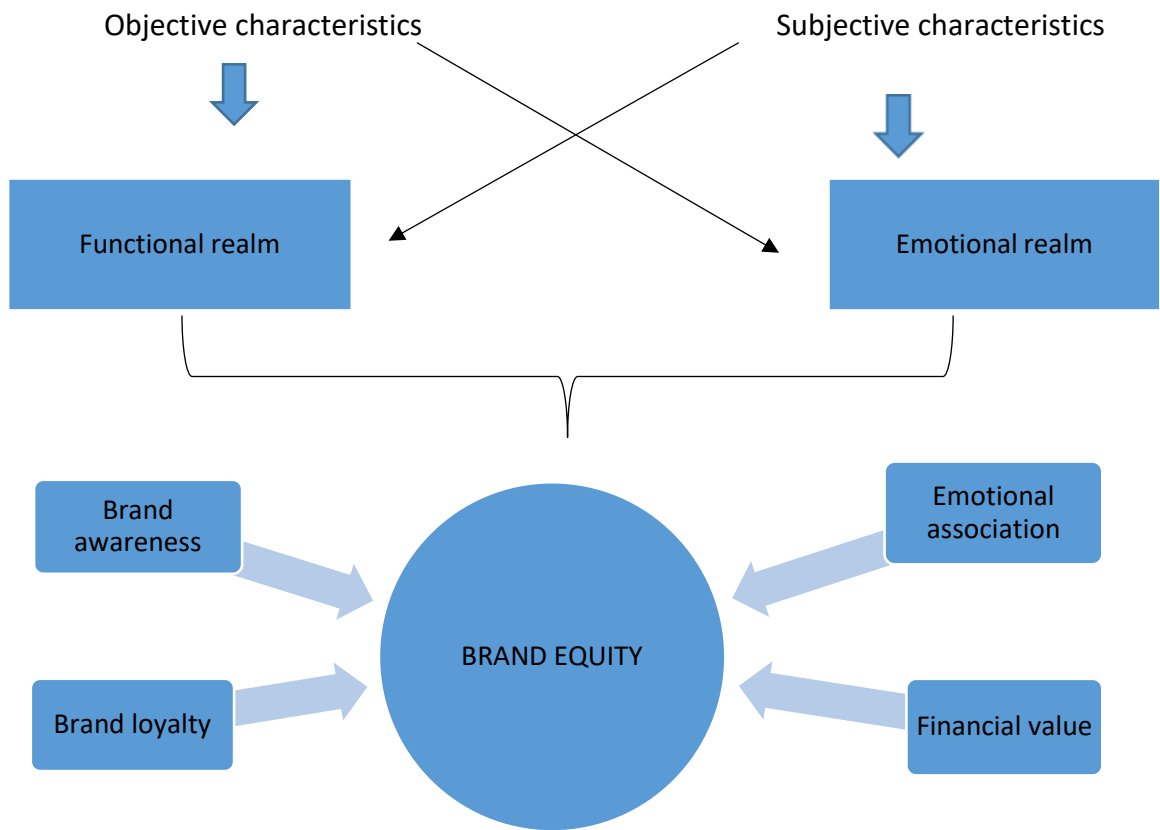


Figure 2.10: Model of Brand Equity Synthesis (Elliot & Percy 2007)

A positive brand attitude is thus pivotal in building strong brand equity (Elliot & Percy 2007). Farquhar (1989) argues that brand attitude plays a pre-eminent role in representing brand equity. Brand equity is also a result of brand attitude, consequently, brand attitude equals brand equity (financial value) because the target markets' attitudes towards the brand determine the brand success (Elliot & Percy 2007). The Model of Brand Equity Synthesis (Figure 2.10) illustrates the importance of brand attitude in driving brand equity. The figure also illustrates the relationship between brand attitude and brand equity in which knowledge and assumptions about the brand form objective and subjective characteristics. When looking at the the model, brand attitude is illustrated as an umbrella which covers all the aspects of

brand equity. A brand may possess high awareness and a negative brand attitude, therefore brand awareness alone does not equate to financial value that builds strong brand equity. Therefore, a favourable brand attitude is required to enjoy positive emotional associations. The distinction between objective and subjective characteristics of a brand is reflective of the consumers' cognitive understanding of a brand which is understood according to the functional or emotional realm which defines the social psychology of brands (Elliot & Percy 2007).

Batey (2008) asserts that, where brand attitudes are determined by rational and functional elements, consumers are more likely to express their attitudes and provide reasons for them. The functional realm of brand attitudes may be related to beliefs of product related attributes (Zeithaml 1988). On the contrary, where attitudes are determined by symbolic and emotional reasons, consumers are often unaware of the reasons behind their attitudes and motivations towards the brand (Batey 2008). The emotional realm of brand attitudes is relatable to non-product related brand attributes (Rossiter & Percy, in Keller 1993).

The effect of brand attitude on brand equity is inevitable and clearly describable. However, in order to understand the nature of brand equity, it is important to measure the components that lead to it. One way to measure brand attitude is through the expectancy-value model which is regarded as the best model of attitude by consumer behaviour researchers (Elliot & Percy 2007). The expectancy-value model states that "an attitude towards an object, brand or product, is the sum of everything we know about it, weighted by how important those beliefs are to us" (Fishbein & Ajzen, in Elliot & Percy 2007: 120,121). The expectancy value model views attitudes as a multiplicative function of consumers' salient beliefs about products or services (Keller 1993).

Brand attitudes determine brand choice, which forms the basis for consumers' actions and choices. The basis for attitude formation stems from product related attributes and functional benefits or beliefs about non-product related attributes and symbolic and non-experiential benefits (Keller 1993; 1998). The different types of brand associations, alongside brand attitudes, contribute to brand image (Keller 1993) as perceived by the consumer.

2.13.5 Brand Image

A brand with no image is equivalent to a blind-folded brand or a brand in a dark room because consumers are not able to see it and therefore cannot define it. Moreover, the brand itself cannot develop its identity, making it essentially meaningless. Brand meaning, which is the “mental links between names, images and cognitions in a consumer’s memory” (Wilson *et al.* 2014: 131), is crucial in the formation of brand image. Additionally, brand meaning is created through the lens of perception over time (Wilson *et al.* 2014). The formation of brand image is a psychological process in which the consumer accumulates brand knowledge. Ligas and Cotte (1999) note that, within the social environment, consumers have their own individual meanings of the brand that they bring to social situations. Brand meanings are individualised according to different symbolic interactions with the brand and “are developed through the interchange amongst three environments, marketing, individual and social” (Ligas & Cotte 1999: 610). Brand image is therefore formed through numerous social interactions with the brand.

Brand image is made up of the consumers’ perceptions or views of the brand, product, service or, in this case, city and is arguably on the receivers’ side. Image, within the area of city branding, is studied from two image perspectives, the internal image and the external image (Vanolo 2008). Brand image, in place branding, underpins every transaction between the brand and its consumers (Anholt 2008). Therefore, city branding cannot be practised without image construction, image analysis or the management of a city brand. On the contrary, while brand image is on the receivers’ side, identity is on the sender’s side (Kotler & Kapferer 2008). Brand identity therefore precedes brand image in terms of brand management (Kotler & Kapferer 2008) to specify the brand’s meaning, aim, and self-image. In terms of brand management, identity precedes image. According to Neal and Strauss (2008a: 176), “brand identity is the image that your company desires for your changing marketplace.” Therefore, brand identity and brand image are related. Riza *et al.* (2012) define identity as a brand’s obvious distinction which is visible at first sight and is powerful in creating images in the minds of those who do not know the brand or unfamiliar to the brand. Accordingly, the authors add that the identity of each city, made up of images and various associations, is unique. Brand

image is made up of different types of brand associations and the favourability, strength and uniqueness of these brand associations (Keller 1993). Therefore, “city branding is mainly based on three key attributes, which are image, uniqueness and authenticity” (Riza *et al.* 2012: 294). Cities, like any other brands, need to have an identity which will represent the core values, mission and vision of the city.

Favourability of brand associations refers to how the brand associations are evaluated according to the satisfaction of consumers. Favourable brand associations contribute to a positive brand attitude due to the attributes and benefits which satisfy consumers’ needs (Keller 1993). However, brand associations do not result in consumption or purchase decisions (Keller 1993).

Strength of brand associations is determined according to the strength of connection to the brand node which is dependent on how information is encoded and how the brand image is stored (Keller 1993, 1998).

Strength is a function of both the amount or quantity of processing the information receives at encoding (i.e., how much a person thinks about the information) and the nature or quality of the processing the information receives at encoding (i.e., the manner in which a person thinks about the information (Keller 1993: 5).

Feldwick (2002) defines brand strength as the level of consumers’ attachment to a brand. Strong brand associations ultimately lead to a strong attachment. For a place brand, “having a strong and positive brand is a critical tool to compete with other nations, regions and cities” (Kaplan *et al.* 2010: 1290).

Uniqueness of brand associations refers to the “unique selling proposition” of brands which distinguishes the brand from that of other competitors and may not be shared with other brands (Keller 1993). A brand needs to be unique in order to secure a favourable position in the minds of consumers thus creating a strong brand association (Jobber & Fahy 2009). “Positioning a brand means emphasising the distinctive characteristics that make it different from its competitors and appealing to the public” (Kotler & Kapferer 2008: 175). City branding must therefore position the distinctiveness of a city in its stakeholders’ minds. Highlighting the distinctive features of a city is “a strategic tool which may and should be used in the

process of managing an administrative unit” (Janiszewska & Insch 2012: 10). These unique features or characteristics of the city need to be constantly communicated to the various stakeholders through effective brand communications.

Turok (2009) argues that in place branding there are different sources of uniqueness that include skills, knowledge, occupations, image and identity, firms and built environment, and industries and amenities. According to Keller (1993), the uniqueness of brands may be characterised according to the product-related or non-product-related attributes or functional, experiential, or image benefits (Keller 1993). Products or services categories may be characterised as a set of associations that include specific beliefs about any member in the category together with overall attitudes toward all members in the category. These beliefs are consistent with the product-related attributes which are relevant for the specific brands, influencing product performance, e.g., colour pricing. The unique selling proposition of a brand indicates the superiority of the brand over other brands. A brand’s unique selling feature is highlighted during the marketing communication activities to secure a firm positioning in the marketplace.

Positioning is an incremental concept in branding as it helps consumers to make choices on the basis of comparison (Kotler & Kapferer 2008). The Kimberley city brand can benefit from brand positioning that will occupy the minds of targeted and relevant stakeholders. Brand positioning emphasises points of differentiation or points of parity (Aaker 2008). Points of differentiation may be communicated explicitly by making comparisons with other competitors or implicitly without making comparisons with other competitors (Keller 1993).

Brand positioning is always discussed alongside brand identity (Aaker 2008; Kotler & Kapferer 2008). Kotler and Kapferer (2008) assert that brand positioning, alongside brand identity, is an essential tool for brand management. Identity is thus an important aspect of a brand as it has a bearing on brand value. However, the above brand equity models do not include brand identity as a constituent of brand equity, but rather brand image, therefore these models are not entirely applicable for the purpose of the research or representative of the scope of the research.

Keller's (2008; 2013) brand equity pyramid, one of the most popular models in which brand equity can be applied for customers, places brand identity as the first step for building a strong brand. The role of brand communications, particularly integrated marketing communications, is key in communicating the firm's or brand's identity. According to Madhavaram Badrinarayanan and McDonald (2005), brand identity should influence integrated marketing communications to maintain effective messages and synergy. Subsequently, an effective brand identity strategy is required for the maintenance of synergy and effective messages. An effective brand identity strategy is one which "informs, guides, and helps develop, nurture, and implement the firm's overall IMC strategy through various brand identity contacts" (Madhavaram *et al.* 2005: 73).

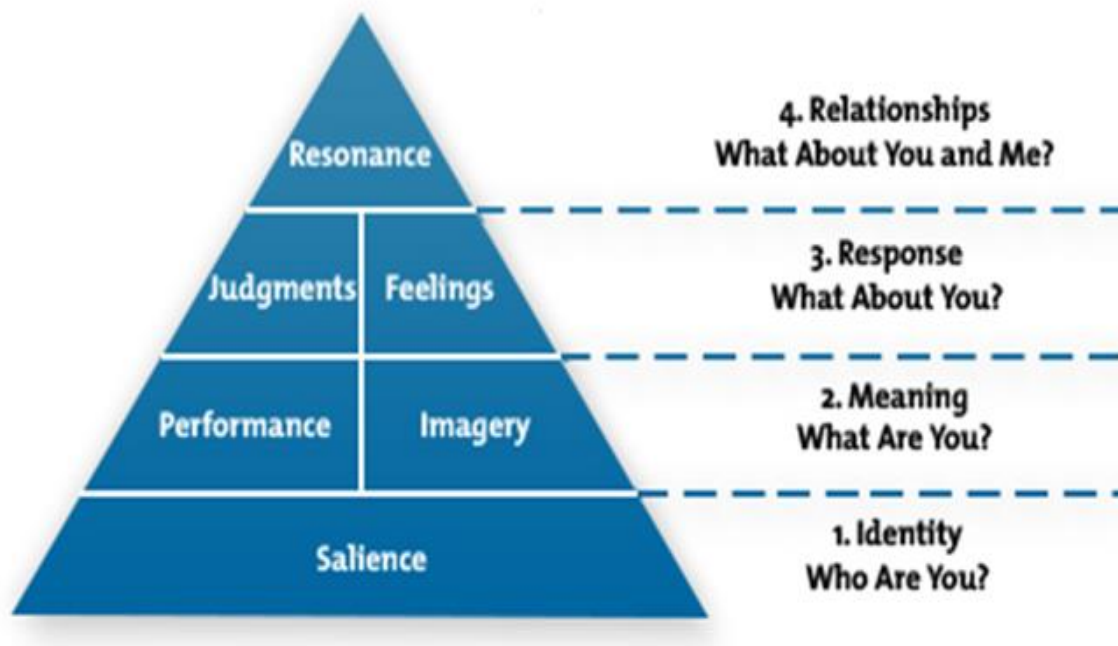


Figure 2.11: Customer based brand equity pyramid (Keller 2008)

The brand equity models discussed earlier indicated various elements which can build a strong brand and inevitably build brand equity. Keller (2008) proposed a conceptual model which serves as a blueprint for building a customer centred brand equity model. The idea is that, in order to build a strong brand, consumers need to be factored into the brand strategy, based on how they think and feel about the brand. Similarly, within the context of city

branding, consumers of the city brand, such the internal stakeholders, also need to be considered.

According to Keller (2001), the customer based brand equity model is essentially a four step sequence for building a strong brand. The first step, being brand identity, addresses the question: Who are you? The first step ensures “identification of the brand with customers and an association of the brand in the minds of customers by strategically linking a host of tangible and intangible associations” (Keller 2001: 5). Establishing such an identity with customers is an important start to building a strong brand and ultimately brand equity for customers. Cities have multiple stakeholders who are able to build brand equity for the city. Maintaining relationships with these stakeholders, particularly internal stakeholders, is a first step towards positioning the city brand in their minds. An important building block for the first step of the customer brand equity model is brand salience. Brand identity is created through creating brand salience with customers (Klopper & North 2011).

The concept of brand salience is related to brand awareness. Brand salience ensures that the brand is noticeable and striking for customers. Earlier, a number of techniques were discussed to make a city brand more visible in an effort to raise brand awareness. A striking brand is a noticeable one and this may also indicate a certain percentage of people who are sufficiently knowledgeable about the brand to rate its equity or value (Yeshin 2001). The second stage of the customer brand equity model is concerned with brand meaning, addressing the question of: What are you? This question aims to establish what the brand means to customers in terms of the two building blocks of brand meaning, performance and imagery. For city branding, the question is posed to the city’s stakeholders who are the city’s customers. Additionally, these also relate to the favourable and positive associations customers have with the brand (Keller 2001). For a brand to have a strong equity, it needs to be seen and experienced in a positive light. One of the main goals of city branding is to create a favourable image and reputation. A positive image and reputation can contribute to a strong brand which ultimately builds brand equity for a city. Keller (2001) notes that defining brand meaning involves creating a brand image and understanding how the brand is characterised and should be positioned in the minds of consumers.

In earlier discussions of brand associations in this chapter, it was explained that there are numerous forms of brand associations that consumers can have and these are either product related or non-product related (Keller 1993; Keller 1998; Batey 2008) and functional benefits (Keller 1993; Keller 1998; Batey 2008; Rahman 2013). The third step for building a strong brand is brand response. The question this penultimate step asks is: “What about you?”, which seeks to establish what are the perceptions and judgments of the consumers in terms of how they respond to the brand (Keller 2001). These responses and judgments are both in the “hearts” and “heads” of consumers (Keller 2001). Therefore these are based on what the consumer feels and thinks of the brand.

Lastly, the final step in the brand building process which cements all the other steps is brand relationships, which address the relationship between the brand and the consumer. The question asked in the final step, is “What about me and you?”, which aims to determine the connection the brand would like to have with the consumer (Keller 2001). Pike (2008) notes that stimulating relationships with customers becomes profitable in the long run through a series of interactions and transactions with the customers. Building relationships with customers involves a “series of interactions between customers and a company over time” (Drucker in Ouwersloot & Duncan 2008: 33). Maintaining solid relationships with customers builds brand value over time as these customers become loyal to the brand.

The customer based brand equity pyramid is based on what customers feel or think about the product or service. Their perception, knowledge, feelings, attitudes or opinions about the product or service is key in building brand equity. A strong brand equity reaps financial value as customers buy more and it attracts more customers through word-of-mouth. These steps can also be applied for building a strong city brand equity for the various stakeholders of a city. For a city brand, there are a number of elements which contribute to building the city’s brand equity.

2.14 ELEMENTS OF A CITY BRAND WHICH BUILD BRAND EQUITY

Based on Anholt’s City Brand Hexagon (2006), which assesses what makes an equitable city brand, the six constituents of a city brand (based on the hexagon) could be considered as key

elements for building a city brand. Although used as a measurement of the city brand's strategy effectiveness (Kong 2012), presence, potential, place, people, pre-requisites and pulse contribute to building brand equity (Anholt 2006). If the perceptions of these six city brand dimensions are positive, a strong brand equity can be created.

A number of city brand elements can build brand equity in addition to the six city brand dimensions. Kavaratzis (2009) proposes a marketing framework for city branding based on eight essential city branding components. These include: vision and strategy, internal culture, local communities, synergies, infrastructure, cityscape and gateways, and opportunities and communications. The vision and strategy of the city refers to the future development of the city in terms of infrastructure, roads, education and economic development. Internal culture refers to the internal workmanship of the city, that is, the internal management through marketing and municipal administration.

Gaggiotti *et al.* (2008) propose a city brand management model to manage a city which incorporates people (human capital and residents), processes (governing policies and structures), place (culture and infrastructure) and partners (stakeholders). The "4 ps" of a city brand management strategy, similar to the traditional "4 ps" of marketing, need to be applied for overall synergy and success of a city branding strategy. The fourth element on the city marketing framework, local communities, refers to the human capital described by Gaggiotti *et al.* (2008) as people who contribute to the economic development of the city through their businesses or skills. Synergy, a culmination of the efforts of the various integrated units of a city brand, described as a combination of individual parts to make a unified whole (Ouwensloot & Duncan 2008), is a pivotal element for the efficiency of a city because all working units need to be integrated to achieve optimal results. Infrastructure, as an element to consider when marketing a city brand, refers to the infrastructural functioning which is an incremental element that adds brand value.

A city with a poor infrastructure is unable to propel the vision and mission of the city, and enhance its economic standing. This functioning inadequacy is caused when service delivery is hampered through poor infrastructure and this ultimately affects the business operations in the city and taints the city's reputation. Anholt (2008) suggests that infrastructure can be

used to measure a city brand under the “place” dimension of his city brand hexagon. Under this dimension, the component of cityscape and gateway is also represented. Closely linked to the image of the city, Kavaratzis (2009) explains that cityscape and gateway can either build or damage the brand of the city. The damage or positive contribution to the city brand is a result of the spatial quality of the city brand (Kavaratzis 2004). City marketing is largely dependent on the construction of a city image (Kavaratzis & Ashworth 2005), and if the quality of the city does not positively contribute to the city image, it becomes a difficult task to market the city in order to attract investment opportunities.

An exposure to opportunities, whether individual exposure through an urban lifestyle and offering good services to individuals (residents) or entrepreneurship exposure through economics, labour or skills, is a reflection of the city’s potential for economic development and urban regeneration (Kavaratzis 2009; Prilenska 2012). Additionally, a city’s potential is indicative of the quality of services rendered by the city, education, business or employment (Anholt 2006). The above elements are able to not only build a strong city brand, but also an equitable brand. One of the most important elements of a city that can build an equitable brand is its image. The concept of a city branding image is illuminated discussed below.

2.15 BRANDING A CITY THROUGH ITS IMAGE

The practice of city branding is seen as an attempt to improve the internal and external images of a city (Vanolo 2008). Image and identity are important constructs of a city brand. Vanolo (2008) argues that the image of a city is not only formed by visual elements, but by other elements as well. Furthermore, image construction within the area of city branding is analysed from two image perspectives, the “internal image” and the “external image”. The internal image is one that is perceived by the residents of the city, whilst the external image is one perceived by people and organisations outside the city.

Nations create certain images for a number of reasons. One of the reasons is to identify themselves with the economic region and gain a certain position in the global market place (Gaggiotti *et al.* 2008) and this is similar with cities. According to Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2005), place marketing is dependent on the construction, communication and management

of a city's image. Sahin and Baloglu (2014: 240) suggest that, "city brand image is conceptualised and measured as cognitive perceptions, affective image, and destination personality." The cognitive image of a city is based on the knowledge and beliefs of the city, whilst the affective image of a city is drawn from the feelings of stakeholders about the city. Both these images need to be communicated consistently to all the city stakeholders in a clear and concise manner.

Kavaratzis (2004) conceptualised a framework, which can be used to communicate the image of a city brand. The author argues that communication exists on three levels, primary communication, secondary communication and tertiary communication. Figure 2.12 below illustrates the different levels of communication.

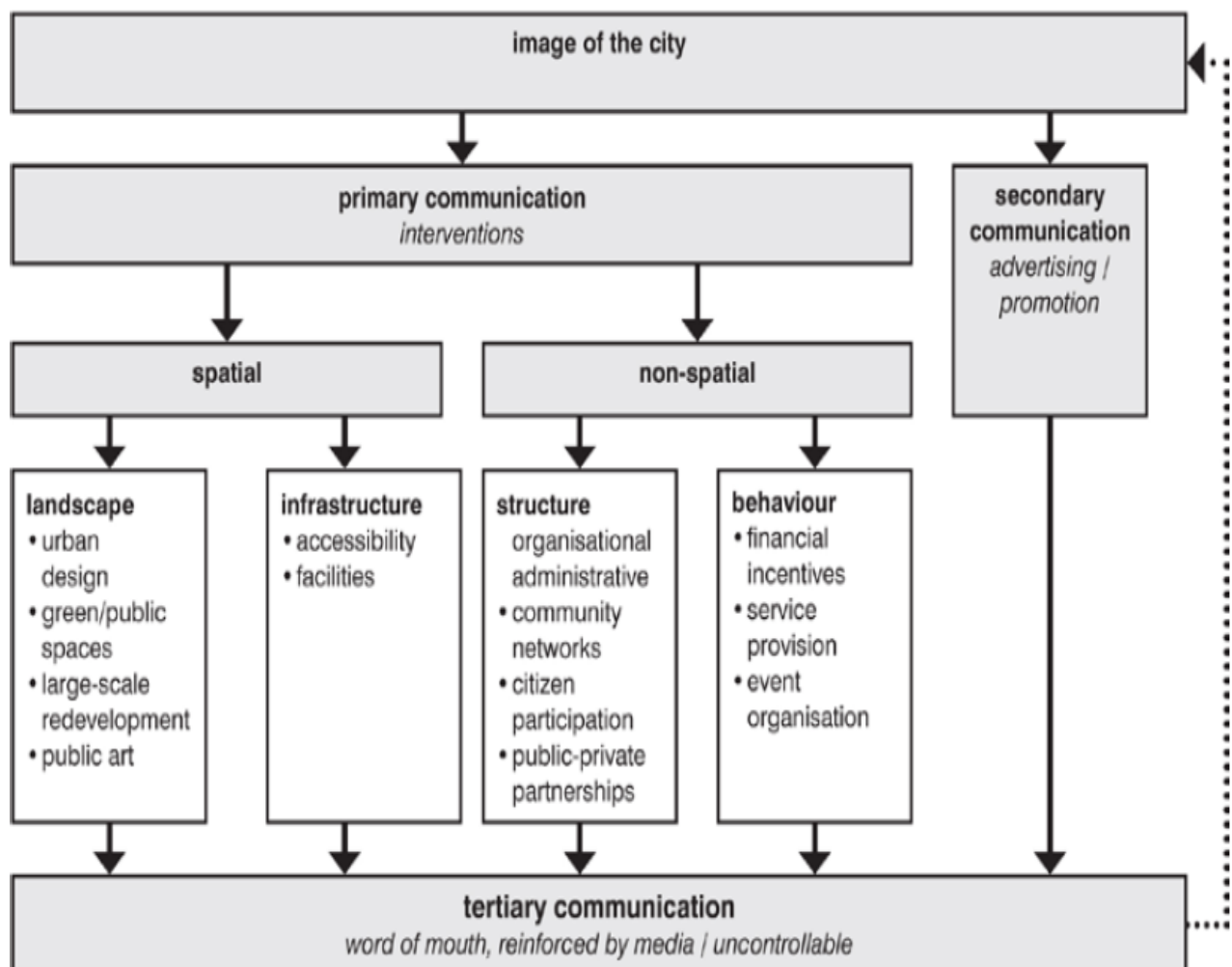


Figure 2.12: City image communication (adopted by Kavaratzis 2004)

- 1. Primary communication:** According to Kavaratzis (2004), these are the city's unintentional communication efforts. Communication is not the main goal here. These actions are divided into four broad areas of interest. Figure 2.12 describes primary communication as the spatial and non-spatial interventions of the city.
 - *Landscape strategies:* These are related to urban design, architecture or public spaces
 - *Infrastructure projects:* These projects are designed to create, improve or enhance the distinctive character of the infrastructure (transport, communication, tourism and culture) of the city.
 - *Organisational structure:* This refers to the city's governing structure including organising for marketing, public-private partnerships, community development networks and citizens' participation.
 - *City's behaviour:* This refers to the vision created by the city's leaders, the strategy adopted for the city, financial incentives provided, quality of services provided and the number and types of events organised.
- 2. Secondary communication:** Secondary communication is intentional and formal. It takes place through marketing activities such as advertising, public relations, graphic design, logos, etc.
- 3. Tertiary communication:** Tertiary communication is based on the people's communication about a city through their individual voices or as expressed by the media.

The essence of communication in city branding is paramount throughout all its various facets and stages due to additional potential benefits it may reap. These, in turn, create brand equity for the city that needs to be properly managed to sustain it. The following section discusses the management of brand equity.

2.16 MANAGING BRAND EQUITY

Various authors (Aaker 1996; Brandt & Johnson 1997; Aaker 2008; Keller 2008) have attempted to define the concept of brand equity alongside its elements and components. Most agree on the definition of brand equity equalling brand value and thus inherently being a brand asset of any organisation or firm (Aaker 1996; Kotler & Kapferer 2008; Neal & Strauss 2008b). As such, the management of brand equity is critical in securing and maintaining that brand value. “Your only true defensible asset is your brand equity” (Neal & Strauss 2008b: 10). As a result, brand equity needs to be managed with focus and integrity. Neal and Strauss (2008b) explain this by stating that brand equity is one asset in the organisation or company which cannot be compromised by competitors’ actions, but by the organisations themselves through failing to keep brand promises, engaging in questionable business practices or socially irresponsible actions which may negatively impact the brand equity (Rajasekar & Nalina 2008).

Brand equity has certain advantages which include financial value or added value. The management of brand equity is thus key in securing and maintaining these benefits (Rajasekar & Nalina 2008). However, although practitioners and academics give much attention to conceptualising brand equity, less attention has been paid to how the brand should be managed and delivered in order to create and safeguard brand equity. Brand management is considered useful in fully exploiting the assets of an organisation and in generating additional value from the investments already made into brands (Mzungu *et al.* 2010). These investments strengthen the brand over time with added benefits.

2.17 A CONCEPTUAL MODEL FOR BUILDING A CITY BRAND

Based on the above brand equity models, city branding theory and marketing theory, a conceptual model for building brand equity for a city is proposed. The brand equity models discussed earlier were developed on the traditional branding theories that are not adequate for building equity for a city brand. Traditional brand equity models mostly focus on a managerial process. Lucarelli (2012) argues that, though some studies in place branding touch on city branding, they do not adequately cover city branding. The reason for the lack of depth

into city brand equity is due to the lack of city brand measurement (Zenker & Martin 2011). Furthermore, the brand equity models discussed earlier lacked an internal focus and were mostly centred around an external audience as they were corporate branding based. Although the theories of corporate branding are applicable to city branding (Anholt 2007), a brand equity model needs to be developed specifically for cities due to their multifaceted stakeholder groups. To develop a compelling and comprehensive city brand equity, it is crucial to incorporate those relevant aspects from Anholt's (2006) city brand hexagon alongside the city branding marketing framework proposed by Kavartzis (2009) as well as other important elements which were not included in brand equity. Lucarelli asserts that "city brands are different from other types of brands, so when using a concept born from the business world such as 'equity', one must draw parallels cautiously" (Lucarelli 2012: 240) and, to do so, the city brand needs to be evaluated through various types of methods.

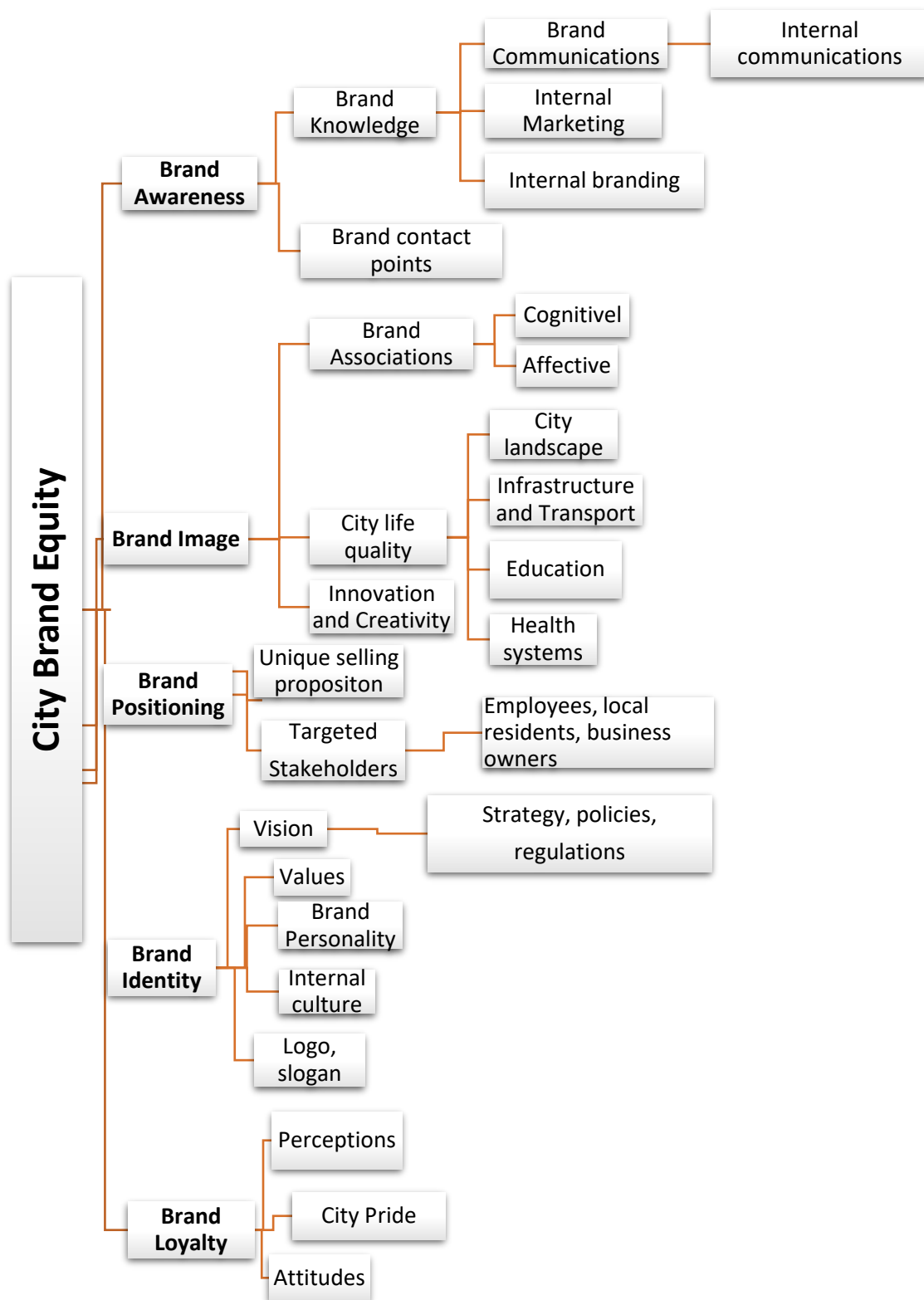


Figure 2.13: A proposed conceptual model for building a city brand equity

The proposed city brand equity model has been adopted from the brand equity models of

Aaker (1996; 2008), Keller (1998) and Kavartzis (2009). This model further incorporates brand awareness, brand image, brand positioning, brand identity, brand loyalty and brand personality as the main building blocks of a city brand equity.

As noted by Feldwick (2002), brand awareness is a key component of brand equity. Creating brand awareness (Buil, Martínez & De Chernatony 2013) is the first and most prudent building block for creating brand equity for a city. As the name suggests, awareness addresses the question of whether consumers are aware of the brand. Therefore, awareness around the city brand needs to be created before attempting to position it in the minds of targeted stakeholders, such as the internal audience. Additionally, it refers to how familiar and knowledgeable consumers are about the brand. Like any other brand, a city brand needs to be communicated to targeted stakeholders in order for them to be knowledgeable about the city brand.

Various techniques can be employed to create brand knowledge including the use of brand communications. Brand communications should incorporate internal communications to reach internal stakeholders of the city brand, such as employees within the tourism sector and other industries in the city. Internal marketing and internal branding are also effective techniques to generate brand knowledge for internal audiences. The notion around the two concepts is that marketing and branding initiatives should be activated internally first before proceeding to external audiences. In doing so, employees in the city are the first consumers and custodians of the city brand before promoting the brand to external audiences. Through this, employees and other audiences are able to fully understand and articulate the brand values and promise to others. Employees within the city, particularly the tourism sector, are thus the central focus of internal marketing and internal branding. These need to be an inherent part of the city branding strategy in order to build brand equity for the city. The incorporation of internal branding, internal marketing and internal communications in the proposed brand equity model above addresses the internal gap apparent in the other brand equity models discussed earlier. These concepts, which are important to create brand awareness for internal audiences, will be further discussed in the next chapter. Visibility for a city brand can also be created through various brand contact points, where targeted

stakeholders come into contact with the brand through social interactions with the brand, physical and visible interactions.

The second building block for the proposed city brand equity is brand image. According to Zhang (2015), brand image is also a key driver of brand equity and therefore needs to be included in a city brand equity model. As mentioned by Keller (1993, 2008) brand image is made up of different types of brand associations, favourability, strength and uniqueness. Brand images are very important constructs for places, as they underpin every interaction between the place (brand) and its various targeted stakeholders (Anholt 2008). Brand image is the “sum of a customer’s perceptions about a brand generated by the interaction of the cognitive, affective, and evaluative processes in a customer’s mind” (Lee, Jamers & Kim 2014: 8). The cognitive and affective dimensions of brand image (Lee *et al.* 2014; Sahin & Baloglu 2014) are represented under brand associations in the proposed model. A detailed discussion on the various types of brand associations and the various benefits the brand offers in relation to the two was provided earlier in the chapter. These cognitive and affective dimensions relate to the positive mental and emotional linkages consumers have with the city that contribute to a positive brand image. City branding is a set of actions used to build a positive image for the city (Kavaratzis 2008).

Additional constructs, which contribute to the brand image of the city include the quality of life in the city, innovation and creativity. The city’s quality of life specifically relate to the efficiency of the transport services, the spatial quality of the city such as its landscape, the quality of education and health services and infrastructure in the city. Kavaratzis (2009) included some of these elements in his city branding framework. For a city image to build and to be perceived in a positive light, it needs to be positioned strategically in the minds of consumers.

Keller (2015: 4) defines the idea of brand positioning as “the action of designing the company’s offering and image to occupy a unique place in the minds of the target market.” Brand positioning is linked to the “unique selling proposition” (Knox & Bickerton 2003). These unique selling propositions relate to the city’s distinctive features, which differentiates it from its competitors and these features need to be positioned in the minds of targeted

stakeholders.

The positioning of a brand in the minds of consumers is strategic effort by brand owners to influence the perceptions of the brand. Consequently, brand positioning is also about the way the brand's image, benefits or attributes are perceived by consumers (Janiszewska & Insch 2012; Koekemoer 2014) and, in the case of city branding, by the city's many stakeholders. Owing to the number of stakeholders, brand positioning needs to be done differently for all the targeted stakeholders. According to Janiszewska and Insch (2012), all the various stakeholders of a brand represent different attitudes and expectations of a brand. These stakeholder groups present a challenge for city brand positioning associated with prioritising target markets (Janiszewska & Insch 2012). Kapferer (1992) suggests that positioning should emerge from brand identity. According to Janiszewska and Insch (2012), brand identity clearly defines brand positioning. The authors add that this is due to the fact that "brand identity sets the boundaries of positioning by adjusting its expression, supporting its individualism and abiding by coherence and consistence" (2012: 11). Brand identity therefore needs to be an integral component of the city brand equity model. It is represented as a fourth component in the proposed model.

Janiszewska and Insch (2012) state that brand identity provides in depth insight about the brand, which could be useful in the implementation of a brand positioning strategy. The brand insights relate to information about what the brand stands for, how it sees itself and how it wants to be seen by other people. This construct of the proposed brand equity model comprises vision, the value of the brand, its personality, the internal culture of the brand as well as the logo and slogan, which differentiates it from other brands. For a city brand, a brand name is not necessary because the name of the city becomes the brand name of the city.

The last component of the proposed model for city brand equity is brand loyalty. Though an in-depth review of brand loyalty was provided earlier, Koekemoer (2014) adds that brand loyalty is the goal for any brand. "Loyalty is about converting users into loyal advocates who will not only be loyal to that brand, but who will also recommend it to others" (Koekemoer (2014: 37). Advocating for the city brand is concomitant with the trust established between the stakeholders and the city and their level of satisfaction with the city. Loyalty is also a

result of positive perceptions of the brand and a positive attitude towards the brand. The positive brand attitudes make the stakeholders buy into the city brand. The more stakeholders and customers that hold positive opinions about the brand, the more loyal they become towards the brand (Buil *et al.* 2013). Building relationships with the brand loyal consumers thus become increasingly important and the established relationship needs to be constantly maintained to keep them loyal to the brand.

2.18 SUMMARY

Owing to the fact that city branding is a process, which is a component of the larger term “place branding”, which also originates from branding, the foundation of branding a city should start with the principles and basic methods of traditional branding. Without the core concepts and foundation phase of branding, city branding, a construct of place branding, cannot exist.

This chapter sought to provide an overview of city branding by introducing the concept, where it originates from and discussed the various elements used in city branding. As per the secondary objective of the study, it sought to provide an overview of the nature and scope of city branding and brand equity. For a city brand to thrive amongst its competitors it needs to be managed strategically. The management of a city brand was also discussed in this chapter as well as the different city branding strategies. Like any other brand, city brands need to be promoted using multiple techniques to make the brand visible in the marketplace and attractive to targeted stakeholders.

City branding is gaining prominence globally amongst cities due to the many benefits it offers to a city. One of those benefits is that, through various initiatives, city branding is able to create a strong city brand for the city. A discussion on the advantages of a strong city brand and city branding was presented in this chapter.

Although city branding has many benefits, it has been said to be one of the most difficult types of branding. A number of challenges, which come with branding cities, were highlighted in this chapter. The challenges that city branding offers a solution include the accelerating global changes, urban evolution and decay, reliance on local resources, a lack of capital

investments and new city entrants.

The last section of this chapter reviewed the nature and scope of brand equity and elucidated how a strong city brand can build brand equity for a city. Firstly, to build a strong city brand, a city needs to follow a strategic branding process. The process of branding is crucial in transforming and positioning the city brand in the minds of consumers as a highly competitive and trustworthy brand within the marketplace.

It is an important marketing technique to create brand equity through harnessing the unique characteristics of the brand. Consequently, a city brand, which is not equitable is not sustainable in the long term as it does not reap any financial value. Brand equity creates meaning for a brand. However, it is not only defined in terms of the financial earnings of the brand but also as in terms of the core values (attributes) of the brand.

Various brand equity models were discussed to understand the concept and how it can be applied to city branding as these models were based on traditional branding. The models were not fully suitable for city branding, particularly internal city branding, as they lacked an internal focus. A conceptual model on how to build a city brand equity was proposed in this chapter as the core of the study. This model also addressed the internal gap that was present in the other brand equity models.

The next chapter will discuss concepts pertaining to these internal gaps. It will provide a greater context on how a city brand can be developed and promoted internally by means of an integrated marketing communication approach.

CHAPTER 3

INTERNAL INTEGRATED MARKETING COMMUNICATION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Integrated marketing communications (IMC) has become increasingly important as a strategy and technique to reach the consumer (Khaled 2010). Organisations and institutions in the 21st Century have gradually shifted from the traditional functions of marketing communications to an integration of the functions to ensure communication coherence within the organisation and to create and produce a synergistic effect. Consistent and coherent communication is also important for employees within those organisations as they are important stakeholders of an organisation.

The globalisation of technology in the 21st Century has made information highly accessible to consumers through the use of IMC. In this chapter, the concept of IMC will be explored by discussing its definition, benefits and the various techniques used in IMC. Adopting this new marketing paradigm is essential for reaching sophisticated consumers through creative information packages, which are a collection of various media, techniques and communication mediums. Although IMC has traditionally been directed to external audiences, it can also be useful for internal stakeholders due to the benefits it offers. Owing to the fact that IMC acts as a vehicle for the delivery of information and messages to consumers, it is therefore the role of IMC to send consistent messages to all stakeholders through various channels including employees of organisations.

This chapter will address the second secondary objective of this study, which is to give an overview of the importance of an internal focus in integrated marketing communication.

In this chapter, it will be argued that IMC is an effective method of communication, which ensures that consistent, impactful messages are sent to both external and internal stakeholders using various internal approaches that play an important role in establishing a strong city brand.

To strengthen this discussion, this chapter will also elaborate on internal communications, internal marketing and internal branding as concepts relevant for an internal IMC approach. The concept of IMC has played a major role in the development of brands through communicating their messages to their target audiences in a clear and consistent manner (Jankovic 2012) and in developing and sustaining brand identity and brand equity (Belch & Belch 2012). “Companies recognise that brand equity is as important an asset as factories, patents, and cash because strong brands have the power to command a premium price from customers as well as investors” (Belch & Belch 2012: 15). Luxton, Reid and Mavondo (2015) note that one crucial aspect of building strong brands, is well-planned marketing communication strategies, which make the brand visible. This, in turn, results in long-term brand value (Luxton *et al.* 2015).

IMC is not only an effective information or message delivery system, but a strategic marketing paradigm for organisations to build their brands and create brand equity. The first step to building brand equity, as illustrated (see Figure 2.2) by Aaker (2008) in the previous chapter, is to create awareness of the brand. Organisations can create brand awareness through creating brand contact points where the consumers and employees interact with the brand. Unlike brand relationships, not all brand contact points can be monitored and managed as some are not within the strategic vision or intent of the organisation.

In relation to building brand equity or value, through brand communications, IMC has developed awareness for brands (Jankovic 2012). Madhavaram *et al.* (2005) agree that IMC can enable organisations and brands to communicate more effectively and efficiently and that this ultimately leads to an increase in brand equity.

According to Jankovic (2012), the identity of the brand has been crucial to establishing relationships with customers, as customers understand what the brand they are consuming represents. IMC has become an “integral part of brand strategy that requires extensive brand development activities within the firm before beginning any external brand communications efforts (Madhavaram *et al.* 2005: 69), and as such, contributes to internal branding.

This chapter will discuss IMC from an internal perspective through a literature review. The chapter commences with an overview of IMC, including its benefits, and the various factors, which contribute to its development. This is followed by a discussion on how to communicate with internal stakeholder groups and how IMC can be applied to internal stakeholders. The various IMC promotion techniques (IMC mix) and how they can be applied within the context of tourism and city branding will also be examined.

3.2 IMC: A CONTEMPORARY APPROACH

Koekemoer (2014), and Belch and Belch (2012) state that the adoption of IMC gained prominence in the 1980s when more companies realised the need for strategic integration of their promotional efforts.

IMC is adaptable to the modern day consumer who needs to be reached in more than one way to obtain maximum effectiveness of promotional tools from any limited budget allocated to it. When marketing communications are not integrated, this can result in different messages being sent out through various communication vehicles (Smith & Taylor 2004). According to Koekemoer (2014), the need for an integrated approach to marketing was spurred by the inconsistency and uncoordinated marketing activities as different functions of marketing in an organisation were doing different activities that were not synergised. This resulted in chaotic marketing activities, which were ultimately less effective and achieved less optimal results. An integrated approach to marketing was thus a solution to achieve optimal results by better coordination of the various marketing functions.

Since the 1980s, the advent and development of technology is one of the many reasons that led to the evolution of IMC as consumers became more sophisticated, informed and empowered (Koekemoer 2014). Therefore, more integrated marketing communications, impactful, coherent and consistent messages were required to persuade the consumer to buy into the brand. These messages help consumers to form a positive or negative image of the organisation in terms of its brands and services (Yeshin 2008). Additionally, Belch and Belch (2012) state that the perceptions that consumers have about a brand or company are a combination of all the brand messages they receive from various mediums. "The IMC

approach seeks to have all of a company's marketing and promotional activities project a consistent, unified image to the marketplace. It calls for a centralised messaging function so that everything a company says and does communicates a common theme and positioning" (Belch & Belch 2012: 10). Synergy, known as "one voice", is one of the many benefits of IMC. Commonality in communication enables consistency, which is a common feature in many of the definitions of IMC as can be seen in the ensuing section.

3.2.1 IMC Defined

The definition of integrated marketing communications has changed over the decades due to market developments and the rise of technology. As such, many authors have different definitions of the concept of integrated marketing communications (IMC). According to Nchaka (2009), IMC has no uniform definition, though most definitions have certain similarities. "Most definitions include integration and coordination of messages, consistent and unified images and strategic roles" (Nchaka 2009: 63). Most definitions "are nothing less than the management of all organisational communications that build positive relationships with all stakeholders" (O'Guinn, Allem & Semenik, in Mulder 2015: 5).

One of the first definitions of IMC was developed by the American Association of Advertising Agencies (Belch & Belch 2012: 9). The association explained that

IMC is a concept of marketing communications planning that recognises the added value of a comprehensive plan that evaluates the strategic roles of a variety of communication disciplines – for example, general advertising, personal selling, direct response, shopper marketing and sales promotion, public relations and alternative tools – and combines these disciplines to provide clarity, consistency and maximum communications impact.

Yeshin (2004) not only defines IMC as an integration of various elements of marketing communication elements, but as a concept that adds value to consumers and increases positive relationships. Belch and Belch (2012) define IMC as a process, which involves coordinating the various promotional elements and other marketing activities to communicate with customers.

On the contrary, Mulder (2015) notes that IMC goes beyond the expansion of promotional elements of marketing. It entails creating dialogue and relationships with consumers and

communicating the same message to other stakeholders. Mulder (2015) highlights the need to deliver consistent messages to all the various stakeholders of a brand. The essence of communication is a main driver to build relationships with consumers, which will be mutually beneficial for both the organisation and the consumers.

The need and importance of consumers in IMC is further accentuated by Schultz, Tannenbaum and Lauterbaun's (1994: 11) definition of IMC:

Integrated marketing communications is the process of developing and implementing various forms of **persuasive communication programs with customers** and prospects over time. The goal of IMC is to influence or directly affect the behaviour of the selected communications audiences. IMC considers all sources of brand or company contacts that a customer or prospect has with the product or service as potential delivery channels for future messages. Further, IMC makes use of all forms of communication which are relevant to the customers and prospects, and to which they might be receptive. In summary, the **IMC process starts with the customer** or prospect and then works back to determine and define the forms and methods through which persuasive communication programs should be developed.

It is clear from the above definition that all IMC efforts need to be directed at consumers. Yeshin (2001: 68-69) also states that "the consumer must be the focus of all marketing communications activities." The reason behind this is the goal of IMC, which aims to influence and persuade consumers through various targeted messages.

Though many authors hold different definitions for IMC, there are consistent themes that emerge from these definitions. Yeshin (2008: 331-332) identifies some of the themes that include:

- "a sound knowledge of the organisation's stakeholders, acquired through two-way interaction with these parties;
- the selection of communication tools which promote the achievement of communications objectives, are reasonable in regard to the organisation's resources, and are favourable to the intended recipient;

- the strategic co-ordination of various communication tools in a manner consistent with the organisation's brand positioning, and which maximises their synergistic effect so as to build strong brands and stakeholder relationships;
- the use of appropriate, timely and data-driven evaluation and planning to determine the effectiveness of this process;
- strong inter-functional and inter-organisational relationships with those responsible for implementing marketing communications campaigns; and
- the impact on customer relationships, brand equity and sales.”

These themes are discussed in this chapter. Integrated marketing communication has shifted from just being a communication process in the organisation, to being a process associated with brand management that drives the strategic intent of the organisation.

Traditionally, IMC as a new, emergent concept within the marketing paradigm, was an “inside-out” approach which showed a poor customer focus and orientation as communication was mostly one directional – from the organisation to the consumer. Modern IMC has now developed an “outside-in” approach, which is more customer oriented through understanding the customers and focusing on their needs (Porcu *et al.* 2012).

Additionally, through the “outside-in” approach, IMC is now focused on relationship marketing by building strong relationships with customers and clients. The shift of IMC as a tactical tool to a strategic process in brand management shows its shift from a tactical approach to a more functional approach. Despite this shift in management, Holm (2006) is of the view that there are still barriers to developing IMC from tactics to strategy.

In this study, IMC is defined as the confluence of traditional, digital and social media marketing techniques for the purpose of creating and delivering impactful messages to stakeholders to encourage purchasing behaviour whilst developing brand relationships, building dialogue and sharing organisational knowledge through internal communication, internal branding and internal marketing.

3.2.2 Factors which contributed to the development of IMC

The development of IMC has been prodigious over the decades. A number of factors have contributed to the development of IMC. The rise of IMC in marketing to increase sales and brand value was prompted by rapid technological developments (Jankovic 2012). Therefore, technological factors, alongside market factors, have contributed to the development of IMC. According to Belch and Belch (2012), the move to IMC was a response to the rapidly changing market environment brought on by advances in technology.

In the past, it was easy to reach consumers through mass media. However, many marketers are moving away from traditional forms of marketing due to changes in the media landscape (Belch & Belch 2012). Jankovic (2012) states that the *technological factors*, which favoured the evolution and development of IMC, included media fragmentation, interactive media, the creation of consumer databases as well as partners and competitors.

The *market factors*, which contributed to the development of IMC were a result of fierce competition amongst brands, investing in promotional activities, promotional budget redistribution and consumers' behavioural changes (Jankovic 2012).

Given the description above about the evolution of IMC, it is clear that today, IMC is a "new branch of marketing development which incorporates all the marketing elements in communication" (Jankovic 2012: 94). A company or product's unique selling proposition (USP) needs to be communicated through IMC to add to the brand value, therefore it is important to have clear, consistent and concise messages, which highlight the USP. Jankovic (2012: 94) suggests the following guidelines for organisations to follow when they want to apply the integrated marketing concept of communication correctly:

- "Develop horizontal communications by enabling employees to achieve their group specific task goals through sharing information among working groups. This will strengthen the image of employees during the corporate identity creation stage.
- Integrate marketing activities by developing, forming and coordinating marketing programmes, processes and activities.
- Redefine the organisational structure, definition and usage of optimal organisation as a

whole, with an increased usage of the internet and on-line business. Searching for the simpler way of management should be the imperative in organising the communicational tools.

- Intensify the use of informational technology in communication with target consumers and create a more complete database of customers and stakeholders.
- Develop specialised departments in an integrated marketing communication company.
- Estimate integrated marketing communication effects of the company.
- Relying on clearly defined corporate and marketing communications, and directly communicating with the target publics, socially responsible business, caring for and promoting sound attitudes, the company manages to form a good image and to maintain its brand.”

The guidelines for the implementation of IMC in an organisation are reflective of a holistic approach to marketing. Organisations can reap benefits when implementing IMC successfully.

3.2.3 Benefits of IMC

According to Dissanayake (2012), organisations are adopting IMC due to its advantages. The following table indicates the benefits, which come with the process of integration as identified by Yeshin (2008: 75-76):

Table 3.1: Benefits of IMC

Linton and Morley (1995)	Kitchen and Schultz (1999)	Yeshin (2008: 340-341)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creative integrity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creative ideas more effective when IMC used 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Client relationships
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consistent messages 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Greater communications consistency 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consistency of message delivery
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unbiased marketing recommendations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enables client consolidation of responsibilities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Corporate cohesion
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Better use of media 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased impact 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interaction
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Greater marketing precision 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increases importance of one brand personality 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Motivation
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Operational efficiency 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Helps eliminate miscommunications that result from using several agencies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participation
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High-calibre consistent service 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enables greater client control over marketing communications 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cost savings 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provides greater client control over communication budget 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Easier working relations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provides client with greater professional expertise • IMC necessitates fewer meetings 	

The table above shows that the implementation of IMC has yielded numerous benefits for companies. One of the most notable benefits is the consistency of message delivery to consumers. Consumers are no longer confused by multiple unrelated messages (Yeshin 2008). As such, IMC is customer centric as “everything evolves around the customer” (Schultz *et al.* 1994: 178). Moreover, IMC has enabled companies to communicate the benefits of their

offerings in a strategic manner by creating cohesiveness in the company (Yeshin 2008). Due to the rise in technology, companies are making better use of media through the integration of various forms of marketing communication tools. This has also saved money for companies as customers are more sophisticated and have access to information. Most companies are no longer investing much in the traditional forms of marketing that Dissanayake (2012) believes were ineffective and expensive as messages were not targeted.

Most importantly, IMC is key in building long-term beneficial relationships with various stakeholders, including the targeted consumers, clients and agents due to its synergistic effect. Messages and the various platforms in marketing need to be integrated to create impactful and meaningful communication that is synergised. Ouwersloot and Duncan (2008) postulate that it is important to think of integration and synergy together in order to understand what IMC mean. To make sense of this, they define the two concepts as follows: "Integration is the combining of separate parts into a unified whole" (Ouwersloot & Duncan 2008: 15). Synergy is defined as "the interaction of individual parts in a way that makes the integrated whole greater than the sum of its parts" (Ouwersloot & Duncan 2008: 15) which is expressed as $2+2=5$ (Ouwersloot & Duncan 2008). The integration of the various forms of marketing communication techniques creates impactful messages that maximise profits. However, Yeshin (2008: 33) cautions that, "the search for integration should not be taken to infer creative uniformity," as it needs to be mutually consistent when applying creativity to messages for different stakeholders.

Synergy and integration need to be present at all consumer brand contact points. All marketing messages should be synchronised to have one effect that is directed at achieving certain marketing goals. The concept of synergy becomes increasingly important in online marketing to create greater audience response (Wang 2006). Owing to the fact that synergy in online marketing communications is an integration of various marketing messages and complex patterns of relationships, message planning also becomes increasingly important when dealing with synergy in marketing communications (Wang 2006). The concept of synergy is centred on the idea that messages that are combined are more powerful than on their own. Synergy is a holistic approach to marketing that conceptualises the idea that

“everything matters” (Šimberová n.d.: 784) in an organisation. Tadić, Jurič and Šuput (2012: 133) describe holistic marketing as a complex marketing paradigm owing to the fact that it is “realised when the orientation towards the customer permeates the whole organisation and when all the units are included in marketing activities”. With a holistic approach to marketing, the customer becomes the central focus of attention with the objective of maximising efforts.

As such, intensive planning is required for organisations to take up a holistic approach to marketing, which includes internal marketing, integrated marketing, socially responsible marketing and relationship marketing can be disseminated consistently through an integration of various marketing communication techniques as discussed below.

3.2.4 Marketing Communications Mix

According to Mulder (2008a), the marketing mix describes the elements that make up the marketing programme. They include product, price, place and promotion (Yeshin 2004), often referred to as the “4 p’s” of marketing and known as the traditional marketing mix (Ouwensloot & Duncan 2008; Belch & Belch 2009). The combination of these four elements in marketing facilitates the exchange process between the seller and the customer (Belch & Belch 2009).

The marketing mix is a conceptual marketing framework used to address the various marketing challenges, hence its original/traditional approach (Smith & Taylor 2004). Traditionally, the marketing mix was centred on traditional marketing methods and promotion techniques, which were predominantly popular with product marketing but is not sufficient for a service based industry such as the tourism industry. Smith and Taylor (2004: 9) assert that the marketing communications mix should include employees and customers since “word of mouth” can be extremely effective among their network. The marketing communication mix is the selection of all the marketing communication tools that can be used to achieve marketing objectives (Ouwensloot & Duncan 2008).

Despite its limitations, the marketing mix was used by the service based industry and extended into the “7 p’s” of marketing which “covered people [staff], physical evidence [buildings and uniforms], and processes [methods of producing, delivering and consuming the

service]” (Smith & Taylor 2004: 7). The “7 ps” of marketing are discussed below.

Product is the offerings of the company to its consumers or clients in terms of its goods or services (Smith & Taylor 2004).

Price is the cost of the product or service being sold. The amount placed on the product contributes to the value of the product, which is also a determinant of the quality placed on the product. A high or low price of a product communicates a certain message to the customer (Belch & Belch 2009). It is an indication of how the brand compares its quality to that of its competitors (Ouwensloot & Duncan 2008).

Similar to the relationship of quality to price, *place*, which refers to the location in which the product or service is consumed or purchased, creates a certain perceived value (Belch & Belch 2009). A product purchased at store in Sandton will be perceived to be a higher value and better quality than that purchased in the township of Alexandra.

The fourth “p”, *promotion*, refers to the communication tools used to promote the product or service. These tools also include a set of marketing techniques (Smith & Taylor 2004).

The fifth “p”, *people* relates to employee relations, wellness and the quality of service they deliver (Smith & Taylor 2004). The section above on internal branding elaborates more on the role of employees as service employees who need to deliver quality service, which is representative of the brand. The addition of “people” highlights the service element in marketing (Baker 2008).

Physical evidence, which is the sixth “p”, relates to the immediate physical presence of the service institution (Smith & Taylor 2004). Anholt (2006) refers to this physical presence as “prerequisites” in his city branding hexagon. Ambiance, style, decoration (Smith & Taylor 2004) and the service and professionalism become a package with which the organisation promotes itself. The last “p”, process, is the experience of the customer or client during the service consumption process (Smith & Taylor 2004).

The marketing communication mix comprises a number of promotion techniques. These

relate to the promotion element of the marketing mix discussed above, which includes all the forms of marketing communications (Yeshin 2008). Also referred to as the “communications mix”, the promotion mix refers to the number of communication techniques available to the marketer (Smith & Taylor 2004). The promotion mix is made up of personal selling, advertising, sales promotion, direct marketing, publicity, public relations and word-of-mouth, sponsorships, exhibitions and digital media marketing (Ouwersloot & Duncan 2008; Belch & Belch 2012; Koekemoer 2014).

3.2.4.1 Direct Marketing

According to the Direct Marketing Association in the UK, direct marketing is the direct response to the distribution and advertising efforts of the marketer (Smith & Taylor 2004). Direct marketing is not limited to the immediate response from the consumer to the marketer during personal selling. It also includes direct mail, telemarketing, door-to-door selling, direct response TV, computerised home shopping, home shopping networks and inserts in magazines or house post boxes (Smith & Taylor 2004). This element of the promotional mix is particularly popular in product marketing and could therefore not be entirely be applicable to city branding. However, one notable element of direct marketing is that it is interactive and uses multiple forms of media to persuade customers (Ouwersloot & Duncan 2008).

The rise of technology has seen direct marketing as a new channel of distribution because products or services can be delivered to the customer directly, eliminating the middleman. In this manner, direct marketing is cost effective (Smith & Taylor 2004). However, despite its cost effectiveness, immediacy and its ability to build a database of long term customers, direct marketing falls short as it is often seen as impersonal and intrusive. This, together with being seen as “junk mail” or spam, causes a problem with its image. Though it is cost effective, it can also be expensive if the targeted messages are not used effectively. The development of an effective database may also need a heavy investment cost (Smith & Taylor 2004).

According to Belch and Belch (2012), although direct marketing is not recognised as one of the elements in the traditional promotional mix, they view it as a component of IMC because it becomes an integral part of the IMC programme for most organisations.

3.2.4.2 Events and Sponsorships

According to Ouwersloot and Duncan (2008), events and sponsorships, as promotional techniques, are designed for publicity and engagement with customers. Through financial support of people or other institutions, organisations are able to generate publicity for their brand (Ouwersloot & Duncan 2008). The benefits of the sponsorships are thus two-fold as others achieve their goals or projects while the sponsor also benefits from the sponsorship deal by achieving specified communications goals (Smith & Taylor 2004). “Some sponsors see sponsorships as a form of enlightened self-interest where a worthwhile activity is supported with cash and/or consideration in return for satisfying specific marketing or corporate objectives” (Smith & Taylor 2004: 483).

3.2.4.3 Advertising

Advertising is any form of paid or non-paid communication by an identified sponsor (Ouwersloot & Duncan 2008; Belch & Belch 2012). Koekemoer (2014: 5) describes it as “one of the most visible manifestations of a marketer’s communication efforts.” Advertising, which uses a variety form of media (Koekemoer 2014), is one of the most popular promotional elements and an important part of many IMC programmes (Belch & Belch 2012). As part of IMC, advertising is used to create unique and favourable images of the brand, differentiating it from its competitors. Cities can make use of this promotional element to market their brands effectively and reach its stakeholders.

3.2.4.4 Personal Selling

As the name suggests, personal selling is person-to-person selling where the sellers personally persuade buyers to purchase the company’s product or services (Ouwersloot & Duncan 2008; Belch & Belch 2012). It is a sales driven promotion that involves immediate and direct feedback from consumers on their needs (Belch & Belch 2012). Though personal selling is an important part of the promotional mix, it is not a direct part of the IMC programme (Belch & Belch 2012). Therefore, this is not relevant for city branding.

3.2.4.5 Sales Promotion

Sales promotions are marketing activities designed to provide added value in a short period

of time and to motivate an immediate response (Ouwensloot & Duncan 2008; Belch & Belch 2012).

3.2.4.6 Publicity, public relations and word-of-mouth

These three forms are often discussed in parallel. Publicity refers to the impersonal and unpaid communication of brand through news, editorials and announcements (Belch & Belch 2012). These are “stories and brand mentions delivered by mass media without charge” (Ouwensloot & Duncan 2008: 11). This is similar to word-of-mouth, which is also unpaid communication, which is interpersonal (Koekemoer 2014). Public relations is “the management, through communication, of perceptions and strategic relationships between an organisation and its internal and external stakeholders” (Koekemoer 2014: 7). Though discussed in parallel to each other, public relations makes use of publicity to enhance the image of the organisation as it is centred on maintaining a positive image of the organisation in the minds of stakeholders (Belch & Belch 2012).

3.2.4.7 Digital Media Marketing

The advent of technology has popularised the use of electronic media as more consumers have smart phones and access to the internet and more spaces in cities now have Wi-Fi connectivity. Over the last decade, digital media has become very prominent in marketing (Koekemoer 2014). Digital media marketing can reach those consumers who would have been difficult to reach through traditional forms of media. Within the sphere of tourism, which is centred on offering tourists unique experiences, digital marketing could be one of the many ways to promote the tourism offerings to potential tourists.

All the promotional tools not only contribute to building strong brands, but are paramount in sending clear, consistent and concise messages to the consumer to position the brand in the minds of the targeted stakeholders. Schultz *et al.* (1994) add that the integration of all the promotional elements together with resources in a company maximises the impact of communication. This can further be enhanced through brand contact points, which are an indication of how visible the brand is to consumers or targeted stakeholders. These are discussed next.

3.3 BRAND CONTACT POINTS IN IMC

IMC within the field of tourism, is an integration of all brand contact points (Stàncioiu, Botos, Orzan, Pârgaru & Arsènein 2013). Brand contact points and related marketing communications efforts help consumers to build knowledge through consumption of the brand (Reinold & Tropp 2012). Brand contact points are particularly relevant in the field of city branding and tourism as they are the interactions with the city as per Anholt's City Brand Index, which consists of people, pulse, pre-requisites, potential, place and presence (Anholt, 2006). These include anything stemming from the friendliness of the residents of the place to the infrastructure of the city the services and culture of the city. Ouwersloot and Duncan (2008) believe that every touch point communicates, even silent touch points are silently communicated by companies.

A brand customer touch point is "any situation in which a customer comes into contact with a brand or company" (Ouwersloot & Duncan 2008: 68). These "point[s] of encounter or contact" are more than what the consumer experiences, and therefore go beyond their experiences with the brand (Belch & Belch 2012: 16).

According to Ouwersloot and Duncan (2008), there are four IMC brand touch points: company-created touch points, intrinsic touch points, unexpected touch points and customer initiated touch points. These touch points are a combination of the various communication tools and techniques used to reach the potential customer or targeted audience (Belch & Belch 2009).

1. Company created touch points

These touch points are created by the company that is able to control and manage them. They are planned marketing communication messages that are sent or distributed to the consumer through advertising, brochures, electronic media and social media, among others. Companies thus tailor their messages to “touch” the consumer in a particular way and entice/provoke a certain response. To create these touch points and achieve IMC objectives, companies require a thorough understanding of the communication process, which also includes the brand communication process. The city of Kimberley creates these touch points through various institutions that promote the city in print or broadcast media by buying advertising space on these platforms. Company created touch points are therefore expensive to create because they achieve a particular objective and are in the control of the marketer (Belch & Belch 2009).

2. Intrinsic touch points

These are “interactions with a brand required during the process of buying or using that brand” (Ouwensloot & Duncan 2008: 76). Ouwensloot and Duncan (2008) advise that companies should always analyse their intrinsic points before planning their communication messages as it is expensive to create intrinsic touch points. Intrinsic touch points are in continuous communication with consumers and include product, place, promotion, price, people, physical evidence and processes (extended marketing mix). Within the context of city branding, these touch points are created through regular interaction with the residents and other stakeholders.

3. Unexpected touch points

These are unexpected and unanticipated touch points created unintentionally and that cannot be controlled or managed by the company. Unexpected touch points are created by word-of-mouth and are characterised by third party credibility and negative publicity. These touch points are often damaging to the reputation of the company. Media houses play a major role in creating these unexpected touch points through their publicity,

negative or positive.

4. Customer initiated touch points

These touch points are created any time a customer comes into contact with the brand and are often overlooked by marketing departments. These touch points, unlike unexpected touch points, are manageable. “Managing the response to customer-initiated touch points is a critical part of IMC because these contacts, like intrinsic brand contacts, occur primarily with current customers and thus significantly impact on customer retention” (Ouwensloot & Duncan 2008: 81). These touch points are managed through responsiveness, recourse, recognition and respect. The place, ambience, infrastructure and culture in the city can also contribute to customer initiated touch points.

Given the above, it can be deduced that brand contact points are an organisation’s planned or unplanned efforts to make its brand more visible to targeted audiences. The ensuing section will discuss how organisational brands can be visible to internal audiences by discussing three concepts, which can be employed for internal brand visibility to heighten communication impact.

3.4 COMMUNICATING FOR INTERNAL INTEGRATION IN ORGANISATIONS

The emergence of IMC within the marketing realm has largely focused on customers. An internal approach to IMC is one, which needs to be centred also on internal stakeholders, particularly employees. Employees are key to any company’s success and therefore they need to be factored into the company’s overall marketing strategy. In doing so, a holistic approach to marketing is adopted. Organisations should strive to create and achieve synergy as their marketing communication messages are directed at both their employees and their customers. To maximise the impact of marketing communication messages distributed to employees, internal communication, internal marketing and internal branding are used within organisations.

3.4.1 Internal Communication

Nchaka (2009) notes that internal communication (IC) in organisations is a prerequisite for addressing external communication. As such, organisations need to follow an inside approach to their communication efforts.

De Lange (2015) suggests that internal communication is the flow of communication within an organisation. It is a two-way process of the exchange of information between managers and employees in an organisation (Mishra, Boynten & Mishra 2014). This category communicates the brand to employees internally through leaders who are the brand's most important communicators that frequently repeat the brand message using multiple channels of communications that include office space, infrastructure and work location (Bergstrom, Blumenthal & Crothers 2002). Other forms of internal communication include face-to-face communication, emails, video conferencing and telephones (Hislop 2005). Due to the fact that some employees do not have offices or access to a computer, the use of SMS and instant messaging, such as WhatsApp applications, is gaining prominence in internal communications to disseminate information faster and more efficiently. Mishra *et al.* (2014: 183) note that "internal communication is important for building a culture of transparency between management and employees, and it can engage employees in the organisation's priorities." From a corporate perspective, Dolphin (2005: 171) states that "communication with the internal audience makes a significant contribution to a fully developed corporate communications strategy."

Internal communications is a way of disseminating information to employees effectively. Through this, the business value of the organisation is improved as employees feel that they are valuable assets of the organisation, thus giving them a sense of belonging (Verghese 2017). Furthermore, effective communications with employees can lead to organisational commitment, increased business output and shared knowledge, and can build knowledge and trust and create engaged employees (Verghese 2017). Effective communications within the context of city branding can be achieved when employees are kept abreast of developments in the city and in their workplaces. As noted by Verghese (2017: 104), "effective internal communication leads to improved business outcomes and committed employees are more

productive.”

Communicating regularly and effectively with employees creates and manages relationships with them as they are constantly informed and are able to give feedback on the messages communicated to them. Jo and Shim (2005: 278) assert that “given the emerging paradigm of public relations by relationship management, the terms of internal communication need to be redefined as part of building favourable relationships between management and employees.” Creating dialogue and favourable relationships is therefore one of the main purposes internal communication that reflects effective communication.

According to Spitzer and Swidler (2003: 70-71), effective internal communications should have three basic objectives. The first objective is that the message communicated to employees should be comprehensible and relevant. Secondly, internal communication should aim to inform, direct, motivate and gain participation from the employees. Lastly, the third objective of internal communication is improved internal dialogue which will lead to an improvement in product quality, sales profitability, workforce performance and satisfaction and, ultimately, customer satisfaction. The idea is that benefits and successes of internal communication lead to more benefits. When employees are more informed and satisfied, their productivity and confidence increases. This ultimately leads to an increase in customer satisfaction and profits. Cities can also benefit from similar benefits when internal communication is employed to motivate and share knowledge with employees. People working in the service sector and other sectors in the city, critical to creating a positive brand image of the city can be more motivated to fulfil their duties, be more productive and can also be confident as a result of being empowered with knowledge and information. Therefore, as noted by Zaumane (2018: 93), “internal communication should have an equally important role because it is directly based on employee engagement in defining organisational objectives, tasks and values, as well as in creation of internal culture.”

3.4.2 Internal Marketing

The concept of internal marketing is based on the premise that employees are an organisation’s first market (Ćoric & Vokić 2009). Given this, the organisation and brand should

be promoted to employees first before directing any marketing activities to external customers or clients ensuring that all employees in an organisation support the set of marketing principles (Šimberová n.d.) as a form of quality management (Tadić *et al.* 2012). Internal marketing is crucial for organisations wanting to create impactful messages. Finney and Scherrebeck-Hansen (2010) note that internal marketing has been used as an effective technique in business management for creating an internal customer orientation and improving staff morale as well as the working environment and conditions of the employees.

Internal marketing is an integral part of the holistic marketing approach and it is therefore important to involve employees as part of the planning process, implementation or execution of messages and monitoring. It is a technique of quality assurance and branding which has been recognised to deliver high service quality (Berry, Hensel & Burke in Finney & Scherrebeck-Hansen 2010). This technique should be employed to improve the image of a city through the tourism sector. The employees in the service industry therefore become increasingly important in the process of quality assurance.

Employees are a company's best brand ambassadors and are equipped to communicate the organisation's visions and objectives to consumers and deliver on brand promises (Matanda & Ndubisi 2013). Therefore, internal branding, as a tool for internal marketing, is centred on ensuring that employees understand the company's objectives and brand promise features (Wise & Zednickova 2009). According to Ouwensloot and Duncan (2008), the essence of internal marketing is to understand that marketing is not only the responsibility of the marketing department of the organisation but of all departments within that organisation.

In this regard, internal marketing can be seen as a technique of IMC, which starts from within the organisation before any sort of external brand communication (Madhavaram *et al.* 2005). A holistic approach to marketing management integrates both internal and external brand communication and messages. Ressler (2013), in his study on the integration of external objectives and internal outcomes in minor league baseball teams, conclude that a holistic approach to marketing maximises the contributions made by employees towards achieving the business goals of the organisation.

Within the context of city branding, with special focus on tourism, internal marketing becomes increasingly important within an organisation with every employee needing to be knowledgeable about the various tourism offerings, the history and culture of the city, the various tourism hotspots and attractions of the city. Employees in the tourism sector should be trained so that they are able to answer tourism questions and queries. Internal marketing is about recognising that the marketing of the organisation should be everyone's responsibility, not only those serving in marketing roles. Similarly, tourism guidance and information should not only be the duty of the tourism guides but also that of all participating individuals or stakeholders within the tourism sector, ranging from hospitality services and entertainment to restaurants.

Employees' knowledge and assertiveness of their working environment is also key in building relationships with consumers. Ouwersloot and Duncan (2008:18) believe that "the more employees are informed and made to feel a part of the company's effort to build customer relationships, the more they will satisfy customers." These consumer relationships, in turn, create brand loyalty, which contributes to brand value (brand equity) and ultimately increases sales and profits.

According to Ouwersloot and Duncan (2008), there are three basic aspects of internal marketing, namely, informing employees, empowering them and listening to them. Communication is crucial to all three aspects. The process of internal marketing will be ineffective if there is inadequate communication with employees, which will result in problems in the internal/marketing structure and dissemination of messages to consumers.

- *Informing employees:* Every aspect of marketing has to be enhanced by those who best understand the functioning, strategies and vision of the organisation, that is, the employees (brand ambassadors). For any strategy to be executed, it is important to inform those involved in the execution of that strategy. There are two modes of communication channels, besides traditional meetings, to inform and update employees. These include the use of an intranet, which is a network of information only accessible by internal employees, and an extranet, which is a limited website mainly for connecting to external stakeholders of the organisation (Ouwersloot &

Duncan 2008).

- *Empowering employees*: The concept of empowering employees circulates around the idea that when employees are informed and knowledgeable, they in turn get empowered. Employee empowerment means “giving the employees the resources to make the decisions about problems that affect customer relationships” (Ouwensloot & Duncan 2008: 19). Employee empowerment in the tourism sector means sending employees for training to equip them to operate as tour guides within their designated operations and organisations.
- *Listening to employees*: Recognising employees’ input and suggestions facilitates a two-way communication between the various levels of management. One role of internal marketing is to facilitate a two-way communication where employees are not only recipients of information but are also proactive recipients who are able to exchange messages through ideas. Feedback is important in communication, it allows managers to measure whether employees understand and support the various marketing programmes and the strategic intent of the organisation. Additionally, “listening to employees can provide valuable real-time customer research that helps in budgeting, planning, and adjusting MC plans” (Ouwensloot & Duncan 2008). Planning marketing communication messages, as part of a holistic approach to marketing, is an expensive process, which requires timeous planning and a meticulous execution of messages. Employees thus contribute to the efficiency of this process through their valuable input and customer research.

Internal marketing, as discussed in this chapter, is the organisation’s efforts to harness the quality of service from its employees, which reflects on the organisation’s balance sheet when the brand equity of the organisation is increased. Efforts to improve the quality within the service industry needs to be redirected to those who offer the service or facilitate the process of service delivery, which are the employees themselves. An industry, such as the tourism industry, which is service and consumer based and which is often self-marketed through word-of-mouth needs to invest in its employees because “there is a direct connection

between the service that is delivered by an organisation and the people who deliver the service” (Machado & Diggines 2012: 104). The service employee is therefore an integral part of the service delivery process (Machado & Diggines 2012). These employees have direct contact with and are visible to the customers, and deal directly with the customers or support the execution of the service delivery processes and they are important front line employees of the organisation. These front line employees also serve as brand customer touch points because they are representative of the entire brand.

According to Machado and Diggines (2012: 105), “all people involved in customer service delivery play different roles.” In doing so, the organisation is able to achieve its objectives and optimise the quality of its offerings and service through five additional roles suggested by Machado & Diggines 2012:

- 1) *Being the service itself.* Service employees often become the service itself. In the case of tourism, the tour guide will become the service because they are the ones directly delivering the service.
- 2) *By personifying the organisation to the customer.* Service employees need to be true custodians of the brand by representing the organisation to customers in everything that they do or say. The brand should be reflective of their actions and behaviour.
- 3) *Representing the brand.* The service employee is seen as the brand. An employee in branded clothing or uniform is seen by customers as directly representing the brand. It is therefore important that the service employees have the right traits, which best represent the value of the brand.
- 4) *Being a marketer.* Service employees, through communication with customers and representing the brand, become brand ambassadors of the organisation. “Front line employees perform the role of marketers as marketing is the creation, communication and the delivery of value to customers” (Machado & Diggines 2012: 106).
- 5) *Playing a boundary-spanning role.* Service employees play a two-way role of transferring information from the customer to the organisation and vice versa, and,

as such, have a strong influence on customers' perceptions.

Employees are a brand's most important brand ambassadors and their actions and behaviours need to be representative of the brand. They can thus be used strategically to enhance relationship marketing, especially in the services sector. Ensuring a good relationship with customers and other stakeholders is crucial to the success of the brand. A review of the concept of relationship marketing will be presented later in chapter.

3.4.3 Internal Branding

According to Madhavaram *et al.* (2005: 69), IMC "has become an integral part of brand strategy that requires extensive brand development activities within the firm before beginning any external brand communications efforts." The idea of internal branding is therefore part of the brand strategy. To build a strong city brand, branding efforts need to be first coordinated internally as a strategic effort to build brand equity for the city through various IMC initiatives. In their definition of an IMC strategy, Madhavaram *et al.* (2005: 69) define this strategy as

"a set of processes that include the planning, development, execution, and evaluation of coordinated, measurable, persuasive brand communications programs over time with consumers, customers, prospects, **employees**, associates, and other targeted, relevant external and **internal audiences**."

The presence of employees and internal audiences in their definition reflects the essence of internal branding in implementing IMC strategy to achieve its main objectives. Incorporating these two groups as part of the brand strategy can increase the value of the city brand. According to Bergstrom *et al.* (2002), branding entails giving a product or service meaning as a means to increase the value of the brand amongst its consumers and various stakeholders.

The concept of internal branding is about effective brand communication to employees, convincing them of its relevance and worth and linking every job in the organisation to the brand essence successfully (Bergstrom *et al.* 2002). Internal branding is a "subset of 'operationalising' the brand, which simply refers to the integration of the brand with all aspects of the business" (Bergstrom *et al.* 2002: 135). Similarly, IMC, as suggested by the

name, is an integration of all the marketing communication techniques to increase the brand value. As noted by Belch and Belch (1998) the coordination and integration of these techniques give a company a consistent and unified image. Internal branding can therefore be a useful tool at a corporate level to unify different companies working under one portfolio (Bergstrom *et al.* 2002).

Through internal branding, employees can be aligned to the vision of the city and so they can talk in “one unified voice” in an effort to achieve message consistency. The correct application of internal branding can make employees more productive once they understand their value and contribution to the brand (Bergstrom *et al.* 2002). Furthermore, Natarajan, Balasubramaniam and Srinivasan (2017) state that internal branding creates consistency in the delivery of the brand promise and its brand image. “Thus internal branding focuses on positioning the desired brand image in employees’ minds to deliver the same” (Natarajan *et al.* 2017: 97).

Bergstrom *et al.* (2002) suggest five categories that need to be considered when implementing internal branding. The authors refer to the categories as the “5 c’s” which are clarity, commitment, communications, culture and compensation.

The first category, *clarity* refers to the dissemination of communication messages, which are clear and coherent. According to Natarajan *et al.* (2017), coherent brand messages help employees to have a clear understanding and knowledge of the brand when delivering it to consumers. It is therefore important for a brand to understand what it represents in order to communicate its messages effectively. What the brand represents refers to the identity of the brand in terms of its culture, attributes, personality, values, and vision. These elements were proposed in the previous chapter as components of brand identity, which can build brand equity as a result of a strong city brand. The strength of a brand (based on consumer buy-in) is determined by consistency in the different identity elements (Burmam & Zeplin 2005). According to Burmann and Zeplin (2005), building a strong brand goes beyond appealing advertising, but needs a credible identity that is considered trustworthy for people to “buy” into it.

Brand identity elements, when being discussed for internal branding purposes and messaging, need to resonate with employees so they can live them. “If employees do not live the brand, then this entire engagement (internal branding) becomes another trendy exercise, resulting in a report that sits somewhere in the corporate server” (Bergstrom *et al.* 2002: 136). Burmann and Zeplin (2005) outline the notion of employees “living the brand” as brand citizenship behaviour. In order for employees to “live the brand”, organisations need to maintain a healthy association and relationship with its employees. Essentially, internal branding requires a commitment from employees to uphold the values of the brand or organisation.

Commitment, as the second category for consideration when implementing internal branding, is concerned with building consensus around the brand (Bergstrom *et al.* 2002: 136). According to Burmann and Zeplin (2005), brand commitment is the psychological attachment employees have towards their organisations, which influence and motivate them to go the extra mile to achieve the organisation’s goals and vision. The authors distinguish three drivers of brand commitment, namely, compliance, identification and internalisation.

The first driver, compliance, is about employees adopting the behaviour of the brand aspired by its identity. The second driver, identification, relates to employees personally identifying with the brand within the group dynamics and accepting the social influences of those dynamics. The third driver of brand commitment, internalisation, “delineates the appropriation of core brand values into one’s self concept as guiding principles of one’s action” (Burmann & Zeplin 2005: 285). The brand’s value and the employees’ personal values become compatible with one another as a result of internalisation (Burmann & Zeplin 2005). Moreover, for service related industries, internalisation improves the performance of employees (Berry & Lampo, in Natarajan *et al.* 2017). This ultimately presents a competitive advantage for the brand operating in the service sector.

Brand commitment is a relentless process for internal branding which needs ongoing support through a number of techniques and mediums (Bergstrom *et al.* 2002). Communication is one medium that can support the process of brand commitment.

The third category for the implementation of internal branding is *communications*. According to Bergstrom *et al.* (2002), communications in internal branding reflects the need of the consumer to feel appreciated during the internal branding process.

The penultimate category for internal branding implementation is *culture*. According to Balmer and Greyser (2006), culture in an organisation from an internal branding perspective refers to the collective feelings of employees about the organisation in terms of its belief systems, values and assumptions. Bergstrom *et al.* (2002) note that these feelings become difficult to change especially when employees feel the culture in the organisation is adequate and therefore become resistant to cultural change.

The final category in the implementation of internal branding relates to *compensation*. This category advocates for those employees who are paid less for serving the brand as its front line employees. These employees are important because they are seen as brand representatives for customer service (Bergstrom *et al.* 2002). Compensation, as part of internal branding, “emphasises that the only way to sustain a strong brand is to offer payback for those who deliver on it” (Bergstrom *et al.* 2002: 138).

Building a strong brand requires constant communication and engagement with various stakeholders. A series of regular interactions are able to create relationships, which ultimately build brand value for the organisations. The next section of this chapter will discuss the essence of building relationships with different stakeholder groups to build brand value.

3.5 IMC AND BUILDING RELATIONSHIPS WITH STAKEHOLDERS TO BUILD BRAND VALUE

IMC has moved from being a promotional tool in the organisation to one that leverages stakeholder relationships to create brand value (brand equity) (Porcu *et al.* 2012). Organisations are recognising the growing need to build relationships with various stakeholder groups to achieve their strategic objectives. It is important for organisations to understand that the process of building relationships with customers involves a “series of interactions between customers and a company over time” (Drucker in Ouwensloot & Duncan 2008: 33). To facilitate this process of building relationships, organisations need to practice

relationship marketing.

The concept of relationship marketing means that customers and employees are important entities in building and increasing profitability. The idea of fostering good relationships with customers to increase profits is also applicable to organisations and their employees for better productivity in the workplace. Pike (2008) notes that stimulating relationships with customers becomes profitable through a series of interactions and transactions with the customers. The digitisation of information and the globalisation of technology has given consumers more access to information and they now have increased control over their purchases and transactions (Pike 2008). Continued communication with these customers has to be maintained as relationship marketing then serves as a tool to facilitate those continued conversations and establish or maintain relationships with customers. Organisations need to communicate regularly with their employees in an effort to build and maintain relationships with them, which can be mutually beneficial.

Relationship marketing is centred on attracting customers, as with traditional marketing, and on the idea of creating and maintaining relationships with customers. As such, the main focus of relationship marketing is building value and brand equity (Lendel & Varmus 2015). According to Berndt and Tait (2012), relationship marketing is the facilitation and management of the relationship between the business and its customers, which aims to satisfy existing customers and retain them through various interventions, such as customer care and after-sales services. Through such interventions, the business can increase trust with its customers. The emergence of relationship marketing has alleviated the psychological pressure customers faced with transactional marketing, as the only relationship they had with an organisation or a brand was through the motivation and purchasing stages (Lendel & Varmus 2015). After sales service and further engagement were not mandatory as part of the purchasing process with the traditional, transactional marketing. With relationship marketing, firms strive towards building relationships at every interaction with the customer for the benefit of both the customer and the firm (Theron & Terblanche 2010). Similarly, organisations need to build relationships with employees, which will ultimately have a positive effect on the interactions with other stakeholders.

Modern day communication sees the receiver as an important entity within the communication process. It is the foundation of any interaction and is vital for establishing mutually beneficial relationships. The management of these relationships is also important in creating a loyal customer base that creates brand value. This is the same for employees and other internal constituencies in the organisation, or in the case of city branding, cities. Loyalty motivates them to optimise their productivity that allows their brands to reach their objectives.

As part of the process of building relationships with customers, Lendel and Varmus (2015) assert that the management of customer relationships is integral in meeting the objectives of relationship marketing. Within the context of marketing management, customer relationship management (CRM) is “an approach in marketing that takes relationships as the single most important issue for the marketer” (Ouwensloot & Duncan 2008).

The benefits of relationship marketing and customer relationship management are reciprocal. According to Lendel and Varmus (2015), innovative approaches to relationship marketing in marketing management identify weaknesses, which are present during the process of building relationships with customers. Therefore, relationship marketing is an inherent process of management as it helps organisations to improve on the weaknesses identified, as well as to drive the strategic intent of the organisation. In the case of city branding, this process not only acts as an assessment of the relationship of the city with its stakeholders, but it also highlights the key areas that need to be improved.

Relationship marketing has been understood as a customer centric approach to marketing (Berndt & Tait 2012) aimed at improving transactions with customers (Theron & Terblanche 2010). However, relationship marketing is not limited to customers only as it is key to maintaining relationships with other stakeholders. All stakeholders need to be attuned to a customer centric approach within the organisation’s operations. Although customers have the greatest impact on marketing solutions to propel the strategic intent of the organisation, a customer centric approach is not only focused on customers as it deals with various market areas (Payne in Lendel and Varmus (2015). In the case of city branding, a successful city brand is one, which incorporates the various stakeholders into its marketing strategy by seeing each

stakeholder as a profitable entity of the city brand.

The benefit of relationship marketing for both the customer and the firm is the building of brand equity. This benefit is applicable to all stakeholder groups, particularly employees who serve customers and work with them on an operational level. For organisations, the motive for relationship marketing is not only to maintain on-going relationships with customers, but to capitalise on those relationships and add value to the organisation. In doing so, brand value is continuously secured and maintained. The role of relationship marketing, through building and adding value, becomes increasingly important in the strategic management of the business. Relationship marketing can be enhanced through brand customer touch points. In city branding, these are important in terms of the contact between the tourists and the guesthouse owners, residents, investors and the city's local authorities.

3.6 SUMMARY

The importance of IMC is indispensable in marketing to strategically position brands in the minds of consumers through impactful, consistent and concise brand messages. In this chapter, a review of the concept of IMC was presented. It was argued that IMC is an effective method of communication for all the various stakeholders.

To make sense of where the concept of IMC emerges from, the evolution of IMC was discussed. Technology and the growth of sophisticated consumers are factors, which contributed to the growth of IMC. Before delving into the various facets of IMC, it was defined to understand its relevance in this study and how it can achieve the objectives of this study.

Owing to the fact that the study focuses on an internal integrated marketing communication approach, IMC was discussed from this perspective with specific focus on internal communication, internal marketing and internal branding as part of the second secondary objective of this study. The three concepts advocate for a holistic view of marketing and brand communication. Furthermore, the concepts above are not only relevant for organisational communication but are also important in brand communications. IMC, through brand communication, is centred on creating purposeful dialogue with consumers and meaningful relationships with stakeholders which add to the brand's value through the integration of

various marketing communication techniques that were discussed in this chapter. In order to position brands in the minds of consumers, messages need to be directed to them. This increases the need for relationship marketing. Lastly, given the concepts discussed above, the chapter discussed why an integrated marketing communications approach should be adopted alongside the benefits of IMC.

The next chapter will present and discuss the research methodology of the study.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, an overview of the different elements of the research design chosen for this study will be provided. A proper investigation of the different methodological approaches needs to be done in order to allow the researcher to make the best decision regarding the research methodology that will be used in a study to shape the data collection and data analysis of the study.

The term “research design” refers to the entire process of research. According to Yin (in Creswell 2007: 5), the design is the “logical sequence that connects the empirical data to a study’s initial research questions and, ultimately to its conclusions.”

A short introduction to the research methodology was provided in Chapter 1 and will be elaborated on in this chapter. The primary objective of this study is to provide internal integrated marketing communication guidelines to improve the city branding of Kimberley. An internal analysis of the tourism sector of Kimberley will be done during the empirical phase of the study. In this chapter, the research methodology and design that will be employed will be addressed. The chapter commences with an exposition of the research design employed in the study. Thereafter, the research strategy will be discussed in two phases. This will be followed by a discussion on how the study will test the reliability and validity of the findings. Complying with ethical procedures and protocols is just as important as delivering credible research. The ethical considerations will also be discussed in this chapter. The ethical number will be provided and the limitations and difficulties the researcher encountered while undertaking the research will be discussed.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design “addresses a key question: What type of study will be undertaken in order to provide acceptable answers to the research questions?” (Mouton 2001: 49). Researchers often confuse “research design” and “research methodology”, even though

these are two different dimensions of research (Babbie & Mouton 2001: 74).

Research methodology is the formula used to answer the research questions or find a solution to the research problem, whilst the research design consists of the steps involved in reaching that solution or the “blueprint of how you intend conducting the research” (Mouton 2001: 55). As such, the research design is determined by the research problem (Mouton, in Pellisier 2013). Cooper and Schindler (2006) state that the research design provides the reasoning or logic behind the selection of research methods or techniques that are employed to conduct the study and to achieve the objectives of the study.

Within the realm of social research, Bless *et al.* (2006) identify four types of designs, which can be employed to conduct research and provide reasons as to why a particular type of research should be conducted. These types are: exploratory; descriptive; explanatory and correlative research (Bless *et al.* 2006).

For this particular study, an exploratory design was employed to provide a solution to the research problem. Exploratory research is conducted where and when there is minimal knowledge about the research and phenomenon under study (Bless *et al.* 2006). This type of research is therefore conducted “when there are very few or no earlier studies to which one can refer for information about the issue or problem” (Collis & Hussey, in Pellisier 2013: 15).

The major emphasis in exploratory design is to gain ideas and insights (Churchill & Iacobucci 2009). With this study, the exploratory design explored the knowledge of the role players regarding city branding (stakeholders) within the tourism sector. The next section of this chapter discusses the methodology and approach that this study followed.

4.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Dawson (2002: 14) defines methodology as “the philosophy or the general principle which will guide your research.” This “philosophy” also refers to the research approach, which the study follows. A qualitative research methodology was chosen as an appropriate methodology for the purposes of this research as it provides a sensitive and meaningful way of recording human experiences (Bless *et al.* 2006), and also allows a researcher to examine

these experiences in detail (Hennink *et al.* 2011). The findings of qualitative research are usually presented in textual form (Patton 2002; Bless *et al.* 2006; Nchaka 2009; Strydom 2013; Pellisier 2013). Owing to the fact that qualitative research qualifies data that is difficult to quantify and explain in numbers, it is essential to describe the phenomenon being researched using narration by means of textual forms (Pellisier 2013).

According to Strydom (2013), the focus of qualitative research, as the name suggests, is on quality. Qualitative research is usually reported by “pure description and quotations through interviews, observations, and documentation” (Strydom 2013: 9). Patton (2002) suggests that, by capturing direct quotations of the participants, their personal perspectives and experiences are obtained, providing a critical and thorough review of the report. In capturing the personal experiences of the participants and their respective knowledge regarding brand Kimberley, their direct quotations were included in the discussion, to produce a rich, descriptive and in-depth report.

Qualitative research is best suited to this study because of the following characteristics identified by Strydom (2013: 11):

Focus on meaning and understanding – Due to the interpretive nature (Creswell, in Mouton 2001; Pellisier 2013) of qualitative research, it is important to understand how people construct meaning and understand their lived experiences. The study will analyse how the participants make sense of and experience brand Kimberley.

Researcher as primary instrument for data collection and analysis – The researcher in this study played multiple roles and was thus the primary instrument for gathering and analysing data.

Inductive process – To draw conclusions from the data gathered, an inductive analytic process, which builds on data, was followed. The data collected from each participant was studied according to its emerging patterns and those patterns were analysed according to various themes.

Rich description – As mentioned earlier, qualitative research focuses on the quality of the

content and, as such, relies on these rich descriptions to explain the phenomena under investigation sufficiently. In this study, textual rich descriptions were used to provide in-depth explanations.

Purposeful sampling – A sample group that was selected deliberately, provided relevant information to address the research objectives of this study.

Trustworthiness – Owing to the fact that confidentiality was guaranteed, the participants had to trust the researcher with information and trust that their confidentiality was secured. The use of trustworthiness in the research was key in obtaining in-depth information as trust between the researcher and the participants “not only ensures the cooperation of the interviewee, but also improves the quality of the data collected” (Schurink 1998: 303). This was also a priority in this study.

4.4 Research strategies

The research design consisted of two phases, namely, a literature review and phenomenology. These two strategies were employed to reach the objectives of the study. In Phase A, the literature review was done, followed by a phenomenological research strategy in Phase B. Both these strategies are discussed below in order to clarify the methodological procedures of each phase and its impact on the study.

4.4.1 Phase A: Literature Review

The literature review seeks to educate the researcher about his or her topic area and enables the researcher to understand the theories and literature before constructing arguments or justifications for his/her hypothesis (Arshed & Danson 2015). Using the literature review as part of the research strategy is supported by Onwuegbuzie *et al.* (2012).

According to Cronin, Ryan and Coughlan (2008: 38), “the reasons for undertaking a literature review are numerous and include eliciting information for developing policies and evidence-based care, a step in the research process and as part of an academic assessment.” Oliver (2014) opines that the literature review is not done simply to collate information, but reviews academic and research areas, which are relevant to the topic of the research in an effort to

write a rigorous academic paper.

Arshed and Danson (2015) note four important points on what the literature review is and what it entails. The authors suggest that 1) a literature review is a summary of relevant and valid literature from credible sources within a thesis or dissertation; 2) it enables the researcher to understand what has been written about the area/s under study; 3) it helps researchers not only to highlight gaps in literature, but to eliminate redundancies of knowledge gaps identified by other researchers; and 4) allows researchers to conceptualise and investigate possible theory developments.

There are various types of approaches to conducting a literature review. In this specific study, the traditional literature review process was followed. "This type of review critiques and summarises a body of literature and draws conclusions about the topic in question. The body of literature is made up of the relevant studies and knowledge that address the subject area" (Cronin *et al.* 2008: 38). The traditional literature review was employed due to its advantage of being able to summarise and comprehend large volumes of literature within a specific study area or field (Cronin *et al.* 2008). The primary goal of the traditional literature review is to provide readers with a lucid and understandable background of current knowledge and possibilities of new areas of research within a specific field of study (Cronin *et al.* 2008). Arshed and Danson (2015: 34) state that the literature review should be able to answer the following questions:

1. "What do you know about the research area?"
2. What are the relationships between key ideas, dynamics and variables?
3. What are the current theories, trends and themes?
4. What are the inconsistencies, implications and shortcomings of previous studies?
5. What needs further investigation because evidence is lacking, inconclusive, contradictory and/or limited?
6. What methodological approaches have been taken and why? Are the methodological

approaches justified?

7. Why does this area of research need to be studied further?

8. What contribution will your work make to the current debate?"

In an effort to provide a critical review of the literature gathered, the researcher used the above questions as a guideline for writing the two literature chapters of this study. Essentially, the overall goal of a literature review is "to bring the reader up-to-date with current literature on a topic and form the basis for another goal, such as the justification for future research in the area" (Cronin *et al* 2008: 38). The authors further state that, in order to review the literature well, the researcher needs to collate information from multiple sources. Biggam (2015: 110-115) notes that there are certain features that characterise a good literature review. These are listed below:

- It lays out what research has been done by others relevant to your research aim/objectives
- It presents the work of others in a clear, interesting and progressive manner
- It provides evidence of in-depth critical evaluation
- It highlights pertinent/emerging issues
- It cites a variety of relevant sources properly

According to Onwuegbuzie *et al.* (2012), a literature review represents the most important step in the research process as it provides an interpretation of sources relevant to the study or topic under investigation and gives a greater understanding of key subjects of the study. In this study, the literature was explored to present an argued case founded on a comprehensive understanding of the current knowledge on city branding. The arguments derived from the review provided direction to discover answers to the research questions.

4.4.2 Phase B: A phenomenological research strategy

Phenomenology was employed as a research strategy to reflect on the way in which people in the tourism industry in Kimberley understand and experience brand Kimberley (Littlejohn & Foss 2008).

In terms of phenomenology, the study was directed by constructivism as a worldview (see Section 1.6.2). Constructivism has its roots in symbolic interactionism (Wood 2004) and explains the way in which people construct meaning. “What are their reported perceptions, ‘truths’, explanations, beliefs, and worldview?” is one of the questions central to constructivism (Patton 2002: 132).

A qualitative researcher is interested in understanding the meaning people have constructed, how people make sense of their world and the experiences they have in the world. More specifically, Welman and Kruger (in Groenewald 2004) state that phenomenologists are concerned with understanding social and psychological phenomena from the perspectives of the research participants.

Groenewald’s (2004) phenomenological research strategy was followed in this study. This form of approach also determined the data collection technique (interview schedule) and the areas it should cover. This research strategy provided a clear and comprehensive approach to undertaking the phenomenological phase of this study.

Phenomenology entails understanding the phenomena under study through the lived experiences of people from a social and psychological perspective (Welman & Kruger 1999; Duckham & Schreiber 2016). Moran (2000: 4) describes phenomenology as

a radical, anti-traditional style of philosophising, which emphasises the attempt to get to the truth of matters, to describe phenomena, in the broadest sense as whatever appears in the manner in which it appears, that is as it manifests itself to consciousness, to the experiencer.

According to Grenz, Guretzki and Nordling (1999) [in Duckham & Schreiber 2016], phenomenology, as a research strategy, seeks to understand how people gain knowledge of important features in the world when they experience concrete realities. Phenomenology was popularised by Edmund Husserl (Moran 2000; Duckham & Schreiber 2016) who believed

that the human mind can be used intentionally to understand phenomena in the world and that all experiences can be understood through intention (Duckham & Schreiber 2016). The concept of intention is described as “every mental phenomenon [that] is characterised by what the mediaeval schoolmen called the intentional (or mental) inexistence of an object, and by what we, not without ambiguity, call the relation to a content, the direction to an object” (Husserl, 1970: 554). Crowell (2013) states that, while phenomenology, as a philosophical approach, starts as an investigation into the conditions of phenomena that build knowledge, it results in an investigation of the “mental content” (intentionality) of the phenomena through experiences. In essence, “phenomenology is an approach to research that turns to people’s experiences in order to better understand something” (Hopkins, Regehr & Pratt 2017: 20 -21).

In an effort to grasp and to contextualise these experiences, they need to be studied as they are lived by being conscious of them (Friesen, Henriksson & Saevi 2012). Subjectivity and consciousness in all knowledge and descriptions extracted is central to phenomenology (Moran 2000). Friesen *et al.* (2012) assert that experiences are encounters that people go through and are not what they have studied and mastered. Giorgi (2008: 2) advises researchers in phenomenological investigation or research, to “encounter an instance of the phenomenon that one is interested in studying and then use the process of free imaginative variation in order to determine the essence of the phenomenon, and finally carefully describe the essence that was discovered.” The researcher studied the Kimberley city brand as the phenomena and the experiences of those who have interacted with the brand and have knowledge of the brand. This enabled the researcher to understand the lived experiences of these people and to draw meaningful conclusions through the process of explication. Owing to the fact that interviews in phenomenological research are open dialogues between two people, the interviewer and the interviewee, the interview becomes the primary instrument to capture the phenomenon. Furthermore, the interview enables the researcher to explore the phenomenon under study from a positivist approach (Guerrero-Castañeda, Menezes & Ojeda-Vargas 2017).

Through a number of interactions with brand Kimberley on various levels, the participants

had constructed their own worldviews and perceptions regarding the brand. Also, because of their reported perceptions, experiences, beliefs and knowledge regarding the brand, their constructed realities were enhanced by their possible beliefs as solutions to what they believe are challenges when it comes to brand Kimberley. The following section provides an outline of how the data was collected in this study.

4.5 DATA COLLECTION

The data collection process took place in two phases, Phase A, the literature review and Phase B, phenomenology. For the former, relevant literature was sourced to be reviewed and for the latter, interviews were used for data collection.

4.5.1 Phase A: Data Collection

According to Onwuegbuzie, Collins, Leech, Dellinger & Jiao (2010), data can be collected from various sources when reviewing literature. The sources may include

research articles, opinion articles, essays, article reviews, monographs, dissertations, books, Internet websites, video, interview transcripts, encyclopaedias, company reports, trade catalogues, government documents, congressional/parliamentary bills, popular magazines, and advertisements (Onwuegbuzie *et al.* 2010: 173).

The data for the review of the literature was collected from multiple sources to provide a greater synthesis of the literature. These were mostly print and online sources, but were not restricted to these kinds of data. To gain more depth on brand Kimberley and the tourism industry in Kimberley, various websites were visited including those of the three tourism authorities in the city, Northern Cape Tourism Authority, Francis Baard District Municipality and Sol Plaatje Municipality. Articles published in the *Diamond Fields Advertiser* (local newspaper) on the city's tourism industry and the state of the city and its cleanliness were included in the review. In addition, documents, such as marketing collateral and a Local Economic Development Area Based Management Unit presentation on the inner city revitalisation programme also formed part of the sources. The presentation was provided by one of the participants to supplement her interview.

Furthermore, in order to gain more understanding of the newspaper articles and

presentation, the researcher attended a three-day Northern Cape (NC) BRICS Investment conference on 29 to 31 October 2014 at the Mittah Seperepere Convention Centre in Kimberley. Though the conference served as an information session regarding the tourism sector in the Northern Cape, the information was relevant to Kimberley as it is the capital city of the NC. As well as South Africans, the conference was attended by delegates from China, Britain, Russia and India. Speakers included the then Mayor of Kimberley, David Molusi, who spoke on Kimberley as an industrial hub, Premier of the Northern Cape Sylvia Lucas, Deputy Minister of Mineral Resources, Godfrey Oliphant, NC MEC for Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development, Norman Shushu, the then Minister of Energy, Tina Joemat-Pettersson and the then MEC for Economic Development and Tourism, John Block amongst many others.

Onwuegbuzie *et al.* (2012) believe that a literature review should not only be limited to print and digital sources, but should also include other sources such as videotapes, podcasts or information extracted directly from the reviewer's observations. Given this, the researcher viewed tourism videos of the city online and also made use of her own observations such as driving through the town, attending functions and viewing the infrastructure and ambience of the city holistically.

4.5.2 Phase B: Data Collection

In-depth phenomenological interviews were used during Phase B to collect data from information rich sources. According to Hennink *et al.* (2011), in-depth interviews provide information on individual, personal experiences from people (in the tourism industry) about a specific issue or topic (city branding) and capture their individual voices and stories. Valentine (2001: 44) states that an in-depth interview "generates a lot of information very quickly; allows the researcher to cover a wide variety of topics, clarifies issues raised by the participants and provides an opportunity to follow up unanticipated themes that arise."

The interviews were semi-structured and open-ended. The research participants were asked questions, which covered the empirical objectives of the study. In doing so, the interviews were flexible, allowing more themes to emerge during the interview session. The flexibility enabled the researcher to probe and ask follow up questions. Patton (2002) advises that, in

order to explore what the phenomena under study can offer the inquiry under study, it is important for qualitative designs to remain sufficiently open and flexible.

Flexibility was achieved because the interviews were informal and conversational. This approach allowed the participants to relax and not to think deeply and long about their responses, but rather to provide natural and realistic responses in a spontaneous manner. With in-depth interviews, the main purpose of the interview, like any other data collection technique, is to obtain information. However, in-depth interviews have as their purpose the attainments of a “special kind of information” (Merriam 2009: 88). By uncovering and analysing the viewpoints of the participants, the researcher explored the participants’ experiences regarding the phenomenon of interest (Patton 2002; Marshall 2006), in this instance, brand Kimberley.

According to Pellisier (2013), the difference between quantitative and qualitative research is that the former is positivist and the latter is anti-positivist and thus interpretive in nature, striving for depth (Wimmer & Dominick 2006). The data collection of qualitative interpretative studies takes place in natural settings (Wimmer & Dominick 2006). During Phase B of the data collection process, the researcher found it not only convenient for the participants, but also fitting for the interviews to be conducted in a natural setting, which was the participants’ offices or workplaces, where they were comfortable. The researcher put the participants at ease, allowing them to open up freely and share their experiences and knowledge.

A phenomenological interview schedule was used as a data collection instrument to guide the interview. Guerrero-Castañeda *et al.* (2017) suggest that interviews in phenomenological research need to be done with guiding questions. The authors state that, “if the phenomenon is difficult to apprehend however, one can include two at the most three questions” (Guerrero-Castañeda *et al.* 2017: 3). In this study, the researcher asked additional questions, which served as probing questions to make the phenomena comprehensible.

Groenewald (2004) proposes that a phenomenological interview schedule should be based on four elements, namely, experiences, beliefs, feelings and convictions. This author’s schedule was employed as it covers the essence of a phenomenological research design.

The four main questions for the interviews were guided by the elements above. These were:

Experiences – Do you experience Kimberley as a brand? YES/NO? Motivate.

Feelings – How do you feel about brand Kimberley? Motivate.

Beliefs – What should be done to improve brand Kimberley?

Convictions – What contribution can a strong city brand make to add value to Kimberley?

Through incorporating these elements, the researcher was able to capture a proper synthesis of the phenomena under study, being the experiences and knowledge of the key role players in the tourism sector of Kimberley.

Additional instruments, which were used in the study included note-taking and audio recording to aid the data collection process. With the audio recordings, the data were stored to be analysed at a later stage, and to listen to the interviews again if the interviewer wanted to verify information (Merriam 2009). The researcher made notes of important points raised by the participants and, through probing, the interviewer further explored those points. By taking notes, in addition to audio recording, “the interviewer could record her reactions to something the informant said, to signal the informant of the importance of what is being said, or to pace the interview” (Merriam 2009: 109). Moreover, the facial mannerisms of the participants were also observed during the interviews. Taking notes is considered a traditional method of data collection (Wimmer & Dominick 2006). The notes taken by the researcher also served as back-up in case of technological malfunctioning of the audio recording device. The ensuing section will elucidate how this was done.

4.6 DATA ANALYSIS AND EXPLICATION OF DATA

The current study was undertaken in two research phases. In this section, data analysis was employed for Phase A and explication of data for Phase B.

4.6.1 Phase A: Data Analysis

According to Onwuegbuzie *et al.* (2012), a literature review can take place in two forms: within the literature analysis or between the study of the literature analysis. The latter “involves comparing and contrasting information from two or more literature sources” (Onwuegbuzie *et al.* 2012: 5) whilst the former “involves analysing the contents of specific work.” “In its most rigorous and comprehensive form, a within study, literature analysis does not merely involve analysing the findings of the study on the major premise used in a non-empirical work” (Onwuegbuzie *et al.* 2012: 5). With a between study analysis, a comparison of the findings of empirical works is often common (Onwuegbuzie *et al.* 2012). However, for a robust concise literature analysis, the ideal form is to compare multiple components of works with multiple components from other works (Onwuegbuzie *et al.* 2012). This type of review was therefore used in the current study.

4.6.2 Phase B: Explication of data

For phenomenological studies, explication of data, rather than data analysis, is appropriate. According to Hycner (in Groenewald 2004), the term “data analysis” has dangerous connotations for phenomenological studies. The author explains “analysis” as the process of dissection, breaking data into parts. The explication of data refers to the investigation of the constituents of the phenomena under study while keeping the context of those constituents as a whole (Hycner, in Groenewald 2004). Once data has been collected, in the manner in which it was proposed or an equivalent manner, it needs to be explicated, to reach a solid conclusion as a solution to the problem that was identified. Hycner (in Groenewald 2004: 17) provides five steps for explicating data, namely, 1) bracketing and phenomenological reduction; 2) delineating units of meaning; 3) clustering of units of meaning to form themes; 4) summarising each interview, validating it and, where necessary, modifying it; and 5) extracting general and unique themes from all the interviews and making a composite

summary. This process of explication of data is almost similar to that of thematic analysis. With both processes, data is organised and grouped into themes and interpreted.

To extract general and unique themes as the final step of the explication of data by Hycner (in Groenewald 2004: 17), Boyatzis' (1998) thematic coding system was employed to provide a useful and meaningful coding system. Boyatzis (1998) suggests that a good thematic coding system should have a name or label; a definition of what the theme or label concerns; a flag indicator which alerts the researcher when a theme appears; a description of any themes excluded or qualified when identifying the themes; and lastly, an example of positive and negative themes (Boyatzis 1998). This helps avoiding confusion when identifying a theme.

The data was coded numerically and each number represented a different theme based on the patterns that emerged from the data. Codes refer to an issue, topic, idea or opinion and coding therefore means using these codes as topical markers to index the data (Hennink *et al.* 2011). After establishing the prominent patterns and themes, they were then assigned codes and they were placed in categories to narrow down the codes.

The explication of data was followed by an inductive analytic process. According to Neuman (2000), in order to reach a logical conclusion, an inductive analytic process begins by studying abstract ideas, followed by relating the data and finishes with a combination of the two. When following an inductive approach of logic, an interrelated chain of knowledge is developed that serves as strong evidence for the conclusion drawn.

The inductive analytic process is the "immersion in the details and specifics of the data to discover important patterns, themes, and interrelationships; begins by exploring, then confirming; guided by analytical principles rather than the rules; ends with a creative synthesis" (Patton 2002: 41). This process entails studying the data thoroughly and rigorously several times until one becomes intimately familiar with the data (Rau 2014). In this study, the inductive analytic process was followed by the researcher by looking at patterns in the data and interpreting the data from a theoretical perspective. In doing so, the researcher was able to develop a hypothesis on how the participants experience brand Kimberley. The data was collected from the participants who consented to partake in this study.

4.7 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

The sampling procedure was only relevant for Phase B of the study. The sample was drawn from managers of hotels, guesthouses, entertainment facilities and attractions in Kimberley which formed the sample population. A purposive sample was used to select the sample. Furthermore, a theoretical sample was used as thematic saturation determined the sample size. In total, fourteen (14) interviews were conducted with role players in the tourism industry in Kimberley.

Purposive sampling was appropriate for the research as the researcher needed participants who could provide adequate and insightful data on the tourism industry in Kimberley and other aspects of the city, which contribute to its brand and image. Neuman (2000) explains that this type of sampling is selected by the researcher with a specific purpose in mind, as the name, purposive sampling, suggests. Concurring with this, Niemann (2002: 220) further explains that, with this type of sampling method, the expert judgement of the researcher is used to select a sample which is “‘representative’ or ‘typical’ of the population” and therefore the sample selected represents a certain portion of the population and not the entire population and, as such, cannot be generalised to the entire population.

Patton (2002) contends that, with purposeful sampling, the participants are identified based on the idea that they can provide in-depth information, are illuminative and can therefore offer interesting and useful information on the phenomenon under study. Such was the case with the participants of this study. They were key role players within the tourism industry of Kimberley and could provide insights from fundamental cornerstones of city branding, such as entrepreneurship, residency, policy, marketing, business management, heritage, safety and security, infrastructure and cleanliness, among others. Furthermore, they were able to share their in-depth experiences with brand Kimberley.

The details of these role players were sourced from tourism websites and other local brochures, in addition to the list provided by the Tourism Manager of Sol Plaatje Municipality. They were reached via their cell phones and office landlines. The participants were selected according to their relevance to the project, their willingness to participate in the study, as well

as their availability.

In addition to purposive sampling, the researcher also made use of snowball sampling to identify participants (see Section 1.8). Snowball sampling “is a method of expanding the sample by asking one informant or participant to recommend others for interviewing” (Groenewald 2004: 9).

As stated earlier, the sample size was determined by thematic saturation. As noted by Groenewald (2004), saturation refers to a point during the data collection stage where the topic is exhausted and the participants have no new information or perspectives on the subject. For this study, saturation was reached during the 12th interview. Another two interviews were conducted to confirm that saturation of themes had indeed been reached.

4.8 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

As the name suggests, reliability and validity in qualitative research addresses the question of how reliable the findings of the study are and how valid the conclusions of the study are. According to Collis and Hussey (2009), reliability refers to whether the findings of the research are accepted as reliable if the same results were obtained by another researcher. Reliability in research refers to the extent in which a measurement can give the same results if it were to be repeated by someone else (Hair, Wolfinarger, Ortinau & Bush 2010; Wimmer & Dominick 2010, Babin & Zikmund 2016). Research that is reliable needs to indicate internal consistency (Hair *et al.* 2010, Wimmer & Dominick 2010), stability and equivalency (Wimmer & Dominick 2010).

On the other hand, the authors refer to validity as the extent to which the findings are said to be valid, that is, how accurate the findings of the research are. Salkind (2006: 1510) states that validity is a process which ensures that “content has not been lost in the translation from premise to conclusion.” It is argued by Pellisier (2013: 58) that, in order to enhance validity in qualitative research, researchers should spend extensive time in the field, do negative case analysis, give the most detailed description of the research setting or situation, seek feedback and opinions from colleagues in the field to determine whether they agree or disagree with your findings and deductions, and ask for validation from your participants. There are various

methods to build reliability and validity for qualitative studies. For the current study, five methods were employed. These included: supervision; member checking; triangulation; thick description and peer debriefing; and audit trail.

4.8.1 Supervision

The researcher's supervisors provided direction in the research and supervision. By reviewing the data, commenting, advising and providing direction, the supervisors kept the researcher focused on the research objectives. Pellisier (2013) advises that a researcher should seek feedback from colleagues in the same field, as a means of enhancing reliability. For this study, reliability was enhanced by seeking feedback from other people working in the tourism field and in urban governance.

By following the above measures to validate the findings of the study and to build its reliability, the researcher attempted to ensure that "content has not been lost in the translation from premise to conclusion" (Salkind 2006: 1510).

4.8.2 Member Checking

As the name suggests, member checking is a process of allowing all the research participants to check the findings of the research. According to Creswell (2009: 191), member checking, as a method for establishing reliability, is done to "determine the accuracy of the qualitative findings through taking the final report or specific descriptions or themes back to participants and determining whether these participants feel that they provide an accurate reflection of what was said." Similarly, Wimmer and Dominick (2010) describe member checking as a process to determine accuracy in the findings. Creswell (2009) notes that only the analysed and interpreted findings are sent to the participants rather than the raw transcripts. In doing so, the researcher simplifies the job of the participants and also saves the participants' time. In this study, the researcher alerted the participants that the findings of the study would be shared once the results are available.

4.8.3 Triangulation

Earlier it was noted that two different research strategies were employed in this study,

namely, a literature review and phenomenology. These strategies were used to build a logical argument as well as a coherent justification for the themes, which emerged (Creswell 2009). Furthermore, Creswell (2009) adds that the convergence of the themes stemming from several sources and logics build reliability and validity. To validate the findings of the study, triangulation was employed through the convergence of information from multiple sources (data collection) (Carter, Bryant-Lukosius, DiCenso, Blythe & Neville 2014). The use of triangulation is often referred to as the use of mixed methods of research and multiple sources of data (Wimmer & Dominick 2010, Creswell 2009, Carter *et al.* 2014).

Patton (in Carter *et al.* 2014: 545) notes that “triangulation refers to the use of multiple methods or data sources in qualitative research to develop a comprehensive understanding of phenomena.” This form of validity was particularly relevant to this study, due to its phenomenological approach. According to Carter *et al.* (2014), there are four types of triangulation methods, namely, (1) method triangulation; (2) investigator triangulation; (3) theory triangulation; and (4) data source triangulation. Method triangulation was employed as form of validity due to the various methods of data collection in the research strategy. The research strategy was executed by means of two phases. Relevant literature and documentation were used for data collection in Phase A and phenomenological interviews in Phase B. “This type of triangulation, frequently used in qualitative studies, may include interviews, observation, and field notes” (Carter *et al.* 2014: 545).

4.8.4 Thick description

According to Creswell (2009), the use of thick descriptions to convey findings add to the validity and reliability in a study. Owing to the fact that the study followed a qualitative approach using phenomenology as a research strategy, rich descriptions were obtained from participants to describe their views and experiences. These descriptions were included in reporting the research findings after the data was analysed and interpreted. According to Creswell (2009), such a thorough description makes the data more realistic and richer.

4.8.5 Peer Debriefing and Audit Trail

Finally, to enhance reliability and validity, peer debriefing was employed. This method

involves allowing someone else, a peer debriefer, to review and question the findings of the study (Creswell 2009). In doing so, the researcher ensures that the findings resonate with someone else other than herself (Creswell 2009). “This strategy involving an interpretation beyond the researcher and invested in another person adds validity” (Creswell 2009: 192). Peer debriefing is similar to Wimmer and Dominick’s (2006) audit trail method for building reliability. According to Wimmer and Dominick (2006), an audit trail is a process, which involves other people examining the logic behind your findings, which is the thought process that led the researcher to reach his/her conclusion. An audit trail “is essentially a permanent record of the original data used for analysis and the researcher’s comments and analysis methods” (Wimmer & Dominick 2010: 123).

Throughout the study, the researcher engaged in numerous discussions with peers about the logic of the study for advice and critique to strengthen arguments and the methodology of the study. These people, who had previously also conducted research in various fields, were able to critique the flow and logic of the findings. Most of the peers hold PhD and Master’s degrees, and understand how findings in research should be interrogated and critiqued based on their experiences in research. Additionally, other peers included people who are professionals in the marketing and communication fields. They were able to question the findings based on their knowledge of their field and current trends.

4.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Research ethics are important in achieving valid research findings, which are morally acceptable or right (Pellisier 2013). Research ethics imply following a research conduct that does not infringe on the privacy of participants and is not incriminating, through exposing the participants. One of the motivating factors of being ethical is the knowledge that you acted in a moral manner during the research (Wimmer & Dominick 2010). In complying with research ethics, the researcher guaranteed the participants confidentiality and anonymity, as suggested by Wimmer and Dominick (2006), for privacy. Pellisier (2013) adds that privacy, as a principle in ethics, means that the confidentiality and anonymity of the participants should be protected at all times.

Moreover, a number of factors were explained to the participants when they were asked to participate in the study. These included the purpose of the study; the background of the researcher; their relevance in the study; their nature of participation in this study; the potential benefits of them taking part in this study; and the data storage process. In addition to this, the researcher explained to them that their participation was voluntary and no incentives would be offered for their participation. On the basis of this, informed consent was obtained from the participants to partake in the study. (See Appendix B)

The research participants took great interest in the study and were keen to participate as they understood that the findings of the study might also assist them in developing more effective strategies for promoting Kimberley's brand in the future. During the interviews, some of the participants, knowing that the interviews were being recorded, asked for certain points they raised to be off the record. The researcher respected their requests and did not use those points. By respecting their requests, the participants were able to respond to questions freely without fear of being misinterpreted and unfairly misled.

As stated previously (See Section 1.9), these ethical considerations were reviewed by the Research Ethics Committee of the Faculty of the Humanities, University of the Free State. The study obtained ethical clearance with the ethical clearance number being UFS-HSD2016/1302 (See Appendix A).

4.10 LIMITATIONS

Any research project has shortcomings, which are beyond the control of the researcher. A number of limitations could be identified in this study. Despite the depth and wide scope of information that in-depth interviews are able to collect, they are often criticised for being prone to interviewer bias (Wimmer & Dominick 2006; Boyce & Neale 2006).

Furthermore, as the interviews progressed and the interviewer gathered information on the functioning of the other tourism authorities and stakeholders within the city of Kimberley, the interviews could have been probed on pre-conceived knowledge. Another limitation which was encountered during the study was that of the availability of respondents. The interviewer could have yielded more data had more time been allocated (more than 60

minutes) for some of the interviews as some people are more outspoken than others and this makes the interview function naturally with minimal probing required. However, because the interviews were conducted during working hours, the interviewer had to be cautious of the time.

Another limitation worth noting is that some of the participants were involved with the city from a provincial or district level and thus their views or experiences of the city may have been influenced by their interactions with other cities or towns thereby making a comparison between Kimberley and those other towns possible. This could have resulted in the responses not entirely being confined to their Kimberley experiences. However, this limitation could open up new research avenues to explore the viability of collaborations to strengthen the Northern Cape's brand.

4.11 DIFFICULTIES IN CONDUCTING THE RESEARCH

According to Schrunik (1998), it is difficult to conduct in-depth interviews because of the large amount of data collected, which makes ordering and interpretation difficult. The author therefore advises interviews to be conducted by the researchers themselves.

The researcher served multiple roles in the study, not only as researcher but also interviewer and transcriber. These multiple roles became time consuming in reaching the research objectives, especially transcribing the interviews. However, despite the tedious process, it was advantageous for the researcher as, through each role, she was able to connect with the research and understand it better. Rau (2014) opines that transcription of own data is excellent for gathering in-depth knowledge of the data.

Another factor, which contributed to the difficulty that came with transcribing was conducting the interviews with participants in environments in which they were comfortable. Owing to this, the interviews were sometimes disturbed by telephone calls and visitors that affected the amount of time allocated to conduct the interview. The interviews were arranged well in advance, allowing the participants to inform their colleagues of the scheduled interview time in order to minimise the amount of disruptions. Additionally, due to the disturbances, the audibility of the interviews was also affected.

Furthermore, some relevant role players in the tourism sector were not available for interviews due to their busy schedules. Their participation in the research and knowledge about the tourism sector in Kimberley could have made a positive contribution to the research outcomes.

4.12 SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the research design, which was decided on at the onset of the research. It navigates the reader on the research journey to unravel the research question and achieve the objectives of the study. In this chapter, a broader synthesis of qualitative methodology was unveiled. An exploratory research design was described, serving as a blueprint for the study, alongside the two research strategies, namely, a literature review and phenomenology. Furthermore, the data collection methods and the explication of the data were discussed. The research participants' selection and the reasons behind the selection process of the participants were explained. The data collection techniques were also discussed. Every study has to be tested for reliability and validity. Member checking, supervision, peer debriefing and multiple methods of data collection were discussed as ways in which the credibility and trustworthiness of the study were enhanced. Additionally, because the study had to adhere to ethical standards, the ethical considerations were clearly explained in this chapter. The challenges of this study were identified, and the ways in which these were overcome or managed, were described.

In the next chapter, the findings of the empirical research done during Phase B will be presented and discussed.

CHAPTER 5

PHENOMENOLOGICAL RESEARCH RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the phenomenological research data will be discussed. According to Patton (2002: 132), when conducting a phenomenological research study, the researcher “explores the meaning, structure and essence of the lived experience of a specific phenomenon of a person or group of people. In this chapter, the lived experiences of the role players in the tourism industry of Kimberley will be explored.

The aim of this chapter is to respond to the normative research question as posed in Chapter 1 that establishes how knowledgeable the role players of the tourism industry in Kimberley are about brand Kimberley and how they experience brand Kimberley. In order to obtain the answer to this question, the responses received from the participants are discussed. This study was approached from a qualitative research paradigm. Phenomenology and a literature review were employed as research strategies. As was explained in Chapter 4, the explication of the data was done using an adapted version of Groenewald’s (2004) steps for the explication of phenomenological research data.

5.2 DEMOGRAPHIC DESCRIPTION OF PARTICIPANTS

In-depth interviews were conducted with a total number of fourteen (14) participants of which four were females and ten males.

The various role players in the tourism industry of Kimberley were identified using various sources. As mentioned in Chapter 4, the Tourism Manager at the Sol Plaatjie Municipality’s Tourism Office was approached to help in identifying some of the key role players in Kimberley’s tourism industry, while others were sourced from tourism brochures and the internet. These brochures included the *Kimberley Meander* and the *Sol Plaatjie Local Municipality Tourism Brochure*.

The identified role players who agreed to be participants in the study were from different

parts of the tourism sector. These participants were identified and approached on the premise that they would be able to share their experiences of the tourism sector based on the six elements of city branding identified by Anholt (2008), namely, place, presence, pulse, potential, pre-requisites and potential.

Therefore, people from tourism authorities of Kimberley, local and district municipalities, managers of accommodation facilities, businesses, tour guides and people from the various tourism attractions in the city were selected as they were deemed relevant role players who could provide a thick description of their experiences in relation to brand Kimberley.

The phenomenological interviews with the participants lasted between 40 and 60 minutes depending on the depth of information and experience the participants could share. Some of the interviews were longer than 60 minutes in cases where participants could spare more time and also contribute more of their experiences.

5.2.1 Ethnic groups of participants

A diverse group of participants were interviewed. The ethnic groups of the 14 participants interviewed included six black, three coloured and five white participants.

5.2.2 Compliance with ethical requirements

The researcher complied strictly to the ethical requirements. Participants were required to give consent before any interviews were conducted. The consent forms were only supplied once the purpose of the study was clearly explained to the participants and they were guaranteed absolute anonymity. Participants were also informed that they could terminate the interview at any time and that they did not have to answer questions that made them feel uncomfortable in any way.

Ethical clearance was obtained for the study (See Appendix A). The ethical clearance number allocated by the UFS Ethical Committee for this study is UFS-HSD2016/1302. In Chapter 4, an overview of the ethical considerations is provided (See Section 4.9). The interviews were conducted in English and the participants were allowed to express themselves in Setswana, where it was appropriate, to give more depth and emphasis to their experiences.

5.3 INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

The questions posed to the participants were inspired by the phenomenological nature of the study. In the true sense of phenomenology, the participants were asked to describe their lived experience of the phenomenon in question. The researcher allowed the participants to express themselves freely about the phenomenon they were describing and also allowed them to withhold some experiences they were not comfortable describing. The interview questions of the study were linked to the research objectives of the study. Through these questions, the researcher attempted to investigate how knowledgeable the participants were about brand Kimberley, as well as how they experienced Kimberley as a brand. The interview questions were semi-structured and the researcher made use of probing as a technique to gather more information on the phenomenon that was being described. As stated by Groenewald (2004), phenomenological interviews should be based on four elements, namely, experiences, feelings, beliefs and convictions. To maintain the phenomenological aspect of the study, the interview questions covered these four elements. The four interview questions, guided by the elements above, were:

- Experiences – Do you experience Kimberley as a brand? YES/NO? Motivate
- Feelings – How do you feel about brand Kimberley? Motivate
- Beliefs – What should be done to improve brand Kimberley?
- Convictions – What contribution can a strong city brand make to add value to Kimberley?

5.4 DATA EXPLICATION PROCESS

In Phase B of the study, the data that was collected during the interviews was explicated. Groenewald (2004) suggests five steps in which this can be done. These steps were adopted for the explication process of the study. The process of data explication entailed (see 4.6.2):

- Bracketing and phenomenological reduction
- Delineating units of general meaning
- Extracted units of relevant meaning

- Clustering units of relevant meaning to form themes
- Extracting general and unique themes from all the interviews and making a composite summary and validating

Before the explication process could be carried out, the researcher listened to all 14 interviews and rigorously transcribed all the responses to the interview questions as well as further probing questions. Once this was done, the interviews were replayed, whilst reading the transcripts again to make sure that all the responses were accurately captured.

Using the transcripts, the researcher numbered each line of the participants' responses to the questions as part of the explication process. Each word and sentence of each line was carefully studied to understand their meanings. As indicated above, the first step of the explication process was bracketing and phenomenological reduction. This step required that the researcher suspend her own meanings and open herself to the world of the interviewee and the phenomenon described by the interviewee (Hycner 1985).

The bracketing and phenomenological reduction process was important for the next step of the explication process, delineating units of general meaning. As noted by Groenewald (2004: 18-19), during this process, "the researcher is required to make a substantial amount of judgement calls while consciously bracketing her/his own presuppositions in order to avoid inappropriate subjective judgements." To elicit coherent meanings from data, the researcher followed Groenewald's suggestion and had to make many judgement calls. During this process, the researcher repeatedly read the transcripts and listened to the audio to understand the phenomenon and the unique experiences as described by the interviewees. The delineation of general meanings was an effort to get to the essence of the participants' meanings of their phenomenon.

The next step of the explication process entailed extracting meanings, which were relevant to the interview questions. With this step, the researcher critically studied the literal content, words and phrases of the participants. Through this process, the researcher was able to eliminate redundant phrases and words.

In the following section, the steps that the researcher followed during the data explication process are explained through an excerpt of one of the interviews. The excerpt below details the first four stages of the explication process. The same process was followed for all four interview questions for all the 14 participants. The excerpt below is taken from question one of the first interviewee, which pertained to the participant's experiences of the phenomenon in question.

Question 1: Do you experience Kimberley as a brand? Yes/No? Motivate?

EXAMPLE OF EXPLICATION PROCESS OF QUESTION 1, INTERVIEW 1

Participant's position: Local Economic Development Manager

Context

The participant is a manager within the local Kimberley municipality responsible for local economic development in the city. The participant's role is to attract investments into the city and to explore investment opportunities through various sectors including tourism. In an effort to attract investments, it is within this participant's interest to ensure that the Kimberley city brand is a thriving brand, which is presentable and can be sold to potential investors. This participant works in close contact with the private and public sector and with key stakeholders in the city to attract notable investments to the city.

The explication process is presented in the next page as per the steps discussed above:

Table 5.1: Delineating units of general meaning

4 -5	Yes I experience Kimberley as a brand in the sense of the terminology of it. How Kimberley is known by people of Kimberley is one way – they call it “Die Y” or “The Y”.
5 -6	Kimberley also a brand, is known by the locals in terms of the terminology that they use.
6 -8	Even people outside Kimberley, when they come in contact with people from Kimberley, and that person in some other city uses that particular term, it is easy to identify that the person is from Kimberley
8 -9	Kimberley as a brand, in large is known for two things, or probably the world over – it is for diamonds and the Big Hole.
10	This is a tourism perspective. From a production perspective, it ought to be known for businesses.
11 -13	If you do not brand yourself proactively, you find a situation where the adverse factors like crime will pop so quickly it will destroy any sense of brand and it will become notorious. It will be a brand, but a negative brand.
48 -50	Based on the number of complaints and how critical they are of the work that the municipality does, I do not think they would be putting out a good name for Kimberley as a brand.
51	No, not at all!
59	So there is no collaboration, and I am using only one example.
59-61	When it comes to infrastructure, we get told, “ohhh, by the way, the municipality is planning to use 1.5 billion to put in new storm water drainage in Galeshewe.
64-65	We do not have that particular luck, so there is no consultation.

Table 5.2: Extracted units of general meaning

4 -5	Yes I experience Kimberley as a brand in the sense that the terminology of it. How Kimberley is known by people of Kimberley is one way – they call it “Die Y” or “The Y”.
5 -6	Kimberley also a brand is known by the locals in terms of the terminology that they use.
6 -8	Even people outside Kimberley, when they come in contact with people from Kimberley, and that person in some other city uses that particular term, it is easy to identify that the person is from Kimberley
8 -9	Kimberley as a brand, in large is known for two things, or probably the world over – it is for diamonds and the Big Hole.
48 -50	Based on the number of complaints and how critical they are of the work that municipality does, I do not think they would be putting out a good name for Kimberley as a brand.
51	No, not at all!
59	There is no collaboration.
59-61	When it comes to infrastructure, we get told, “ohhh, by the way, the municipality is planning to use 1.5 billion to put in new storm water drainage in Galeshewe.
64-65	We do not have that particular luck, so there is no consultation.

Table 5.3: Clustering of units of meaning to form themes

Units of relevant meaning	Themes
4 -5 Yes, I experience Kimberley as a brand in the sense that the terminology of it. How Kimberley is known by people of Kimberley is one way – they call it “Die Y” or “The Y”.	Unique brand features Brand awareness
5 -6 Kimberley also a brand is known by the locals in terms of the terminology that they use.	Unique brand features Brand awareness
6 -8 Even people outside Kimberley, when they come in contact with people from Kimberley, and that person in some other city uses that particular term, it is easy to identify that the person is from Kimberley	Unique brand features Brand awareness
8-9 Kimberley as a brand, in large is known for two things, or probably the world over – it is for diamonds and the Big Hole.	Unique brand features Strong brand assets
48-50 Based on the number of complaints and how critical they are of the work that municipality does, I do not think they would be putting out a good name for Kimberley as a brand.	Poor brand management
51 No, not at all!	Lack of internal collaborative partnerships
59-61 There is no collaboration. When it comes to infrastructure, we get told, “ohhh, by the way, the municipality is planning to use 1.5 billion to put in new storm water drainage in Galeshewe.	Lack of internal collaborative partnerships One-way communication Lack of communication and engagement

65 There is no consultation.	Lack of communication and engagement No consultation
------------------------------	---

5.5 METHOD OF REPORTING

Once the relevant units were identified, the researcher then made a composite grouping of the extracted units into unique themes. The clustering of the themes was determined by whether the units of relevant meaning could naturally be grouped together by identifying common themes as per Table 5.3 above. Summaries of the themes and sub-themes were then compiled and discussed using verbatim quotes from the transcribed data and supported with relevant literature.

5.6 THEMES AND SUB-THEMES EXPLICATED FROM THE DATA

In the discussion that follows, responses to each of the four research questions will be addressed. The discussion starts with the feedback related to research question 1. The themes are presented in no particular order. Themes will be presented as headings while sub-themes will be highlighted in the text.

5.6.1 Interview findings regarding interview question 1

Do you experience Kimberley as a brand? YES/NO? Motivate

With regards to this question, the following themes and sub-themes emerged from the data.

5.6.1.1 Mixed opinions about Kimberley as brand

In Chapter 2 (See 2.5), a discussion on whether cities can be seen as corporate brands and similarly branded as corporate brands was presented. The essential characteristics of a brand were also discussed. Mixed views were expressed by the respondents concerning whether Kimberley could be viewed as a brand or not.

Ten of the 14 participants stated that they perceived Kimberley as a brand. About a third of the participants who perceived the city as a brand did however indicate that there was a lot

of room for improvement of the brand. The participants felt that the brand was not versatile in its tourism offerings and was not advertised the way a brand should be advertised. Their following responses explain their viewpoints:

**I suppose jaa. I see it as a brand, but I think the brand can be improved on. I know the Northern Cape Tourism has various signs and logos and wording that they use to market the Northern Cape, and Kimberley. I think it's always just been "the city that sparkles", so it's very closely linked towards diamonds, and the brand I think is very limited to that thinking of diamonds in the Big Hole and that's the limit of what can be experienced in Kimberley. So, yes it is a brand but I think the brand is limiting at the moment.*

**Yes I do, I believe that Kimberley is very very much a brand. It's not advertised as a brand, but yes it is. It is historical. It's got so many firsts which fall under the historical. We've got the hole (Big Hole), we've got the flamingos.....we've got the...from every basic aspect. From the distance to the Kalahari to the plants to the whatever.*

**Yes it is a brand that's been established already, but it's a growing brand as well.*

The remainder of the participants did not experience it as a brand due to their disappointment with the current brand and a lack of effort to promote the brand. Reasons supplied by these respondents included the fact that the brand has not evolved to represent change in the city. These participants indicated that Kimberley is still branded as the Big Hole and the city of diamonds, despite the fact that the mining of diamonds in the city is not prominent. The responses of the four participants who felt that Kimberley was not portrayed as a brand follow below:

**Not really. I don't think I experience it as a brand. It would be positive to experience it as such but I generally don't, and I think there is no effort to actually get it to that level where you would experience it as a brand. So generally I don't. They are cities that have been able to actually brand themselves.*

**Not really. If you go to the website entries you will find that there are different entries. . Kimberley is mainly known for diamonds and I also think that is the reason why the open mine museum is so popular.*

**I think Kimberley was, I don't think it is so much anymore. I think Kimberley was more a brand when diamonds were still prominent here. I don't think it is that much now but I think there is still a legacy of diamonds, but I think it has slowly died. People still refer to it as the diamond city.*

**Not yet. Kimberley for me is still branded as the old Big Hole with the diamonds and is not a reflection of the people of Kimberley now. Yes, in the 20th Century that was relevant but now the young people have so much developed, new technologies have come and the diamonds are a little bit scarce.*

The participants' views on whether Kimberley is a brand were based mostly on their subjective opinions about what they think embodies a brand, therefore there were mixed views from the participants on whether Kimberley is a brand or not. Moreover, it was clear that their responses were based on their own brand image formations and how they perceive the brand. The management of perceptions in cities is important in city branding. As noted by Eshuis and Edwards (2013), in Chapter 2 (see 2.2), place branding is an urban governance strategy of managing perceptions. Given the mixed responses, it is clear that there was poor management of the participants' perceptions of Kimberley.

5.6.1.2 Strong brand assets

Cities, like any other brand, need to use their distinctive brand assets to achieve competitive advantage over other brands. A city's brand assets can build brand equity for the city. Brand assets are strong attributes of a brand. For the city of Kimberley, one of its most prominent brand assets is its legacy of diamonds and the world-renowned Big Hole where the diamonds were mined. The city of Kimberley was historically known as a mining city after the discovery of diamonds (see 1.1 in Chapter 1). This historical milestone that bore economic fruits for the country, is still celebrated in the city. This was one of the major reasons the ten participants experienced Kimberley as a brand. According to the participants, the discovery of diamonds is what put Kimberley on the global stage and has thus added value to the city. Kotler and Kapferer (2008) in Chapter 2 (see 2.12) note that brand assets are brand equity, made up of the brand images and brand awareness as perceived by the consumer. Aaker (2008) in Chapter 2, (see 2.12) notes that brand assets contribute to brand equity. The author's brand equity model (see Figure 2.2 in Chapter 2), shows that brand assets, which are components of brand equity, can provide competitive advantage. As such, Kimberley's brand assets can build brand equity for the city. The following responses expand on Kimberley's brand assets as observed by the participants below and highlight their reasons for viewing Kimberley as a brand:

**Kimberley as a brand, in large is known for two things, or probably the world over – it is for diamonds and the Big Hole.*

**Yes I do. Ummm, the first thing is when you talk Kimberley, you can talk...you can't talk Kimberley without talking diamonds. To me, that's always been the brand around Kimberley and where we had the mining history. So Kimberley is associated to me, as a mining town. It's Kimberley tourism, the Big Hole, as a brand.*

**Kimberley has their own brand. They are known as the "city that sparkles". For me, yes definitely. Kimberley, the local municipality, they are actually doing a lot of initiatives to try and highlight specifically their brand, Kimberley the city that sparkles.*

**Jaa, Kimberley is a brand I believe. The Big Hole, the attractions and that's a brand for Kimberley because as soon as somebody talks about the Big Hole they will directly connect it with Kimberley so that is why I say Kimberley is a brand and because as soon as you talk about something, the Big Hole, Magersfontein, the McGregor Museum its directly connected to Kimberley.*

**Definitely, because there is a wide variety of things available in Kimberley. When it's showcased, when it's on advertisement boards, when people talk about it in restaurants in Johannesburg and those places, then even though there are so many different topics from Anglo Boer War to the diamonds to just the layout of the town, to the fact that Robert Sobukwe was here and was part of Kimberley –all those things come together have a lot of detail attached to each part of it but Kimberley itself.*

**I do experience it as such. I mean If I go to....I've travelled quite extensively, and in those cases, the moment people say; "ohh you're from Kimberley, where are the diamonds now?" It is a lived experience. You do get that reaction.*

It is clear from the responses above that the legacy of diamonds in the city largely contributed to Kimberley's brand value. This, however, has changed over the years due to developments in the city. The responses also highlight that the Big Hole is a major tourist attraction that has contributed to the city's brand. Although the historical aspects of a city are important in branding, there is an imperative need for new developments and other striking elements of the city to be promoted.

As stated by this participant:

Kimberley is just not the Big Hole. There is more to it, its huge, it's really huge and we are not just about the Big Hole.

Given the mixed responses of the participants, various elements need to be highlighted and integrated to make the Kimberley brand better. While adapting to current trends is imperative, the legacy of diamonds in the city and the Big Hole is the city's brand assets and this cannot be ignored. It is therefore necessary to integrate the strong historical elements with the cultural elements while simultaneously promoting new developments.

5.6.1.3 Brand association

There a number of elements or components that build brand equity; one of these are brand associations. In Chapter 2, four brand equity models (see Figure 2.2, Figure 2.3, Figure 2.7 and Figure 2.8) were discussed and a brand associations feature on models as a component of brand equity. People may have different brand associations based on their knowledge of the brand and how they experience it. Brand associations are the cognitive linkages that people have of the brand (Aaker 1991; Touminen 1999) (see 2.13.4 in Chapter 2). Aaker's model of brand equity (Aaker 1996), discussed in Chapter 2 (see Figure 2.3), indicates that brand associations, which exist as cognitive representations in the minds of consumers (Keller 2013), are able to evoke positive brand attitudes (Aaker 1996) and drive consumers to buy into the brand (Koll & Von Wallpach 2014). In Chapter 2, Park, MacInnis, Priester, Eisingerrich and Iacobucci (2010) (see 2.13.4) state that consumers can develop strong brand attachments due to their emotions evoked by the brand.

As stated by the following the participant:

I think the one thing that fascinates me in Kimberley, of course if you're an outsider, [it's] difficult to understand, is it then becomes Kimberley the city of firsts.

City of firsts

While people might have numerous associations with brands based on how they have interacted with the respective brands, the prominent association amongst the participants was their proud association with Kimberley being "the city of firsts". The participants of this study are not only internal stakeholders within the tourism sector of Kimberley, but are also residents of the city. Due to this, some of the participants were proud to be locals in the city. Despite the many challenges they expressed concerning the city, they displayed a sense of

pride towards the city. A number of major discoveries and developments were first made in Kimberley, for example, the first street lights in South Africa and Africa were installed in Kimberley. Owing to this, the participants have an attachment to Kimberley and are proud to be associated with Kimberley as a pioneer of urban development in the country.

Some of the participants who indicated that they experienced Kimberley as a brand, stated that they are proud to be associated with Kimberley because it is the city of firsts. Their responses follow below:

**First street lights were in Kimberley, first what what's was in Kimberley, and you can actually go and see those things. So yes, hence I am saying I have experienced Kimberley as a brand.*

Yes I experience Kimberley as a brand. Kimberley is **one of the first cities and for that it has got a lot of history. So based on that history, Kimberley becomes one of "the cities" that has branded itself along historical lines.*

We are the **first city to have lights. We are the first city to have protests. We are the first city to have the General-Secretary of the ANC who translated a book in Setswana – who is Solomon Plaatje.*

**All the firsts or a lot of the firsts were a result of industrialisation, but as I said, the sparkle just needs to expand to include more than just mining.*

Given the responses, it is clear that some of the participants are attached to the brand and that they are proud of the historical contributions that Kimberley has made in advancing industrialisation and urbanisation in the country. Moreover, the attachments are deeply ingrained in their minds and this can, in turn, make them loyal to the city and strive to improve it.

5.6.1.4 Internal stakeholders are brand loyal

Before consumers are loyal to a brand, they need to have knowledge of the brand and have associations with the brand (Aaker 2008) (see 2.13.4 in Chapter 2). The two concepts are therefore related. Brand loyalty, like brand associations, is an important component of brand equity. One of a brand's most valuable assets are its loyal customers as they increase the brand's value by constant repeat purchases and do not switch to other brands as a result of

increased competitiveness. Given, this Keller (2013), in Chapter 2 (see 2.9), lists brand loyalty as one of the advantages of strong brands. In Chapter 2 (see 2.13.1), Klopper and North (2011) assert that brand loyal consumers are important in building value because they generate future sales.

As indicated by Kazançoğlu and Dirsehan (2014) in Chapter 2 (see 2.9), brand loyalty, in terms of city branding, is the pride and psychological or emotional attachment of residents or other city stakeholders' towards the city brand. The responses of the participants indicated that they were loyal towards the Kimberley brand as they had positive brand attitudes towards Kimberley. The loyalty to the brand was portrayed by the various attempts of internal stakeholders to protect brand Kimberley. The following responses by respondents serve as testimony to this:

**They are doing quite well. The business sector is doing quite well. The academia world is doing quite well, the military for example, there's a number of formations which really work towards the protection and, positively painting, portraying the brand as a good brand.*

**You get people who say: I am protective like this, and this is what we need to do for Kimberley, we need to bring Kimberley to what it used to be.*

**I know from the municipality's (Sol Plaatje Municipality) side they are doing quite a few promotional activities at the moment. They are out there promoting Kimberley at quite a few exhibitions, mostly domestic exhibitions but they also have your international exhibitions which we do attend for example Indaba and I know that they have done quite a few oversee trips also to promote the city out there.*

Given the proud association with Kimberley as the city of firsts, other internal stakeholders displayed their sense of brand loyalty by being attached and thus protecting Kimberley's history of industrialisation. The responses from the following participants indicate this:

**Look, I mean internal stakeholders obviously would sell this "the city of firsts". You go to the municipality and you go meet with the Executive Mayor, he will tell you about the city of firsts. You go meet with the premier and he will tell you about Kimberley the city of firsts. So from internal stakeholders, there is that protective brand that they do with Kimberley.*

**I think the different stakeholders in Kimberley, they have that protective way of saying*

Kimberley is the [city of] firsts.

**All the stakeholders that are working here, all of them are very protective of Kimberley.*

The responses of the participants above indicate that there is a strong sense of brand loyalty amongst some of the internal stakeholders in Kimberley. Moreover, there were positive experiences with some of the internal stakeholders in how they engage with the brand. In Chapter 2 (see Figure 2.10), Elliot and Percy (2007) state that positive attitudes towards a brand contribute to brand loyalty and this ultimately leads to increased brand equity. This is also echoed by Feldwick (2002), in Chapter 2 (see 2.13.5). As noted by Olivier (in Matthews, Son & Watchravesringkan 2014) in Chapter 2 (see 2.13.1), brand loyalty exists in three ways, namely, *cognitive*, *affective* and *conative*. Ilmonen (2007), in Chapter 2, notes that city branding is concerned with strengthening the pride of locals, which is a guideline to build a successful city brand. Although it was the job of some of the internal stakeholders to promote the brand, they presented a commitment towards protecting the brand alongside other internal stakeholders. For adequate management of the Kimberley city brand, a holistic commitment is required from all internal stakeholders. The type of brand loyalty expressed will be paramount for creating a city brand strategy.

5.6.1.5 Lack of brand awareness

The creation of awareness is the first building block of brand equity. Marketers create awareness of a brand in an effort to inform the consumers about the brand and entice them to use the brand. For consumers to buy into a specific brand, they need to have acquired enough knowledge of the brand so they better understand the value it can give them. In Chapter 2 (see 2.13.2), Smutkupt *et al.* (2011) state that the level of awareness that consumers have about a particular brand indicates how knowledgeable they are about the brand. When consumers have brand knowledge, they are then able to form associations and, if they are satisfied, they become loyal to the brand. Elliot and Percy in Chapter 2 (see Figure 2.10) illustrate how brand awareness can build brand loyalty. This process highlights the importance of brand awareness in building value for a brand. Macdonald and Sharp (in Smutkupt *et al.* 2011) in Chapter 2 (see 2.13.2), also stress the importance of brand awareness stating that the formation of brand images in the minds of consumers and brand attitudes

cannot exist without creating brand awareness.

Creating awareness for brands is not only important for building brand equity, but it is also important to promote a brand effectively as indicated by Yousaf *et al.* (2012) in Chapter 2 (see 2.13.2). Sharing their experiences of the Kimberley brand, some of the participants indicated that there was a lack of awareness of the Kimberley city brand as a result of poor marketing efforts. The following responses indicate this:

**Yes Kimberley is known as a mining town, its diamonds. It is known for the Big Hole, but a lot of what makes Kimberley, is not known.*

**We are the first city to have lights. We are the first city to have protests. We are the first city to have the General-Secretary of the ANC who translated a book in Setswana – who is Solomon Plaatje. We have so much to show South Africa, but yet it is oppressed by us celebrating the old branding.*

The idea of Kimberley being dubbed “the city of firsts” is clearly a sense of pride for the internal stakeholders however, the broader Kimberley community does not know this and this is an indication of a lack of brand awareness within the city. As noted by Smutkupt *et al.* (2011) in Chapter 2 (see 2.13.2), brand awareness serves as a measure of brand knowledge. The low level of brand awareness in the city indicates the level of brand knowledge in the city. The following statements indicate the lack of brand awareness initiatives around the positive brand elements of Kimberley:

**People have tried this thing of “Kimberley, the city of firsts”. You would know that the first stock exchange was here in Kimberley and then it got moved to Johannesburg. Kimberley was the first city to have electricity, but those things are not things that are out there.*

**Kimberley is a very diverse city and therefore it is not being streamlined into people knowing this is the brand, this is how I identify it to Kimberley.*

**Northern Cape Tourism might have this website and Francis Baard might have a website, but how many people know about this.*

**In as much as Kimberley is a strong brand, the residents, most of the residents are not aware of that fact.*

The lack of brand awareness did not only hinder the dissemination of information, but it also

impacted on the tourism numbers in the city. Essentially, lack of brand awareness indicates that there is a lack of brand communications and marketing. Without awareness initiatives, targeted audiences will not know about the brand offerings and this will affect the tourism sales or revenue as indicated by this participant:

So our numbers here are very very low and everyone feels it. The hotels, the guides, the transport companies, everyone feels the knock. Even the conference facilities. Things have just not been promoted and put out there in the right way and therefore we don't have groups.

It is clear that there is a lack of marketing initiatives in the city as a means to build brand knowledge and also to create brand awareness. This is indicated by this participant:

I think the marketing is not up to standard because the municipalities or the information centres can do a whole lot more in marketing what is going on around Kimberley and what is going on in Kimberley.

The above responses clearly highlight the lack of brand awareness in the city. This is due to the fact that there are inadequate marketing communications efforts to create brand awareness. Brand awareness is a crucial component of brand equity and, for brand Kimberley to build equity, it is important that there are enough brand awareness initiatives to make the city visible to all its stakeholders.

5.6.1.6 Unique brand features

For Kimberley to be a successful brand, it needs to be striking, as noted by Blackett (2009) (see 2.9). In Chapter 2 (see 2.9), the author suggests that a successful brand needs to create an audible impression by being highly distinguishable from other brands, highlighting the brand's unique features. As noted by Christadoulides and Chernatomy (in Attri, Urkude & Pahwa 2011), in Chapter 2 (see 2.13.2), a brand that is identifiable or easily recognisable is one that is successful.

There are various elements and characteristics that contribute to the uniqueness of cities. In Chapter 2 (see 2.13.5), Turok (2009) states that, in place branding, these elements of uniqueness exist in various ways which include skills, knowledge and occupations, image and identity, firms and built environment, and industries and amenities. Therefore, the local slang

is a form of uniqueness. The practise of city branding entails highlighting these distinct elements, which are unique to that specific city (Zhang & Zhao 2009) [see 1.6.3 in Chapter 1].

According to the participants, the local jargon in Kimberley is a unique feature of the city and they believe that this should be highlighted and used in the city's branding strategy. The following responses highlight the uniqueness of slang, the dialect of the language, terminology and accent used that is highly distinguishable across slang languages in the country.

**Yes I experience Kimberley as a brand in the sense of the terminology of it. How Kimberley is known by people of Kimberley is one way – they call it “Die Y” or “The Y”.*

**Kimberley also a brand is known by the locals in terms of the terminology that they use.*

As one of the guidelines to build a successful city brand (see 2.8), Ilmonen (2007) states that cities should be built by promoting their unique features, and the local lingo in Kimberley is therefore a unique element of the city. The culture and language in the city are some of the attributes, which build brand associations for the city. It is important for cities to highlight the uniqueness in their branding strategies in order to build a competitive advantage. As discussed in Chapter 2 (see 2.13.4), brand associations are mental linkages to a particular brand and how the brand is positioned within the minds of consumers. Jobber and Fahy (2009), in Chapter 2 (see 2.13.5), state that, to position a brand favourably in the minds of consumers, the brand needs to have unique features.

Within the context of place branding, the notion of unique brand features is important as these are used to attract people to the city. These unique brand features thus serve as unique selling propositions for cities (Keller 1993) [see 2.13.5 in Chapter 2]. Moreover, the tourism sector is an experienced based sector and the distinct features need to be experienced and explored by tourists and targeted stakeholders. In their definition of destination branding, Blain *et al.* (2005) in Chapter 2 (see 2.2) state that the branding of destinations entails conveying “the expectation of a memorable travel experience that is uniquely associated with the destination.” The presence of the word “unique” is testament to the fact that unique brand features are important in city branding.

One participant stated that the uniqueness of the language should be used to brand the city. This particular participant did not experience Kimberley as a brand because of a lack of involvement from its mining history. As stated by the following respondent:

The language that we speak- we don't speak Afrikaans, we mix the language, so we speak mixed languages. So that can become a city branding in some sort. Our way of doing things in Galeshewe is very unique against other people in other cities. For example we would call a R1, "mphe maiva da" (give me a one rand there). We are using slang in communicating and therefore it makes us very unique.

The local language in the city can offer a unique experience to those coming to the city for the first time. The selling of experiences is one of the many city branding strategies that cities can employ. Stigel and Friemann (2006) in Chapter 2 (see 2.6.2) state that the "experience city" strategy entails staging and selling the city's unique experiences. It is clear from the above responses that cities have aspects that make them unique and distinguishable from other cities. Moreover, the local language in the city can be highlighted as one of many unique feature of the city. It is therefore important that marketers need to explore languages and various dialects as unique elements to brand cities.

5.6.1.7 Poor internal brand image

Cities need to be visually attractive and appealing to attract tourists, investors and skilled people. Based on the responses from some of the participants, their experience of Kimberley was that the city is not clean, has poor infrastructure and is therefore not appealing to the eye. The literature on city branding reveals that the branding of cities and places is concerned with creating a favourable image (see 2.15 in Chapter 2). Rainisto (2004), in Chapter 2 (see 2.9), notes that a city with a desirable brand image is able to achieve its strategic objectives and attract tourists. The image of a city is an important determinant of the location for investors, residents and tourists, states Vanolo (2008) in Chapter 2 (see 2.2).

In Keller's (1998) brand equity model (see Figure 2.8 in Chapter 2), brand image is a component of brand knowledge. The image of the city can be made up of various types of associations as indicated in Keller's model. Anholt (2008), in Chapter 2 (see 2.13.5), states that brand image is important in place branding as it underpins all transactions between the brand

and its consumers. This essentially means that the brand image of the city needs to be appealing for positive interactions with the brand. Vanolo (2008), in Chapter 2 (see 2.13.5), notes that there are two types of brand images, namely, the internal and the external image. Owing to the fact that the participants are residents of Kimberley, the image they have of the city is an internal image.

Some participants were of the opinion that the city was not visually appealing and that this had a negative impact on the brand. The following responses suggest that Kimberley does not even appeal to those employed people tasked with making the city attractive as suggested by the following statements:

**Obviously, the first thing that you get into is the dirt. That turns me off.*

**You find that when you go to a particular street it is flooded with water, there is also dumping of garbage everywhere. It is not a clean city.*

**It's a very dirty city.*

**It looks unkempt, potholes etc.*

**It looks like a run-down city.*

Some participants also commented on the state of the infrastructure:

**Internally, different stakeholders, talking about infrastructure, obviously the infrastructure in Kimberley is old and I think the biggest problem is water. Now and again there is so much leakage in Kimberley that the municipality is struggling to cope.*

**I think for a first face impression of a first time visitor this is not a well-kept city.*

**If you look at Kimberley itself generally, it is not appealing to the eye. It is an old city, it is a run-down city. It is a city with deficiencies when it comes to infrastructure. When you look at the streets, it is potholes, left right and centre.*

**Infrastructure in the city is bad.*

It is disconcerting that people who reside in the city, should promote the city, and who are key custodians of Kimberley's image, find that the city is unattractive to them. If Kimberley is not presentable to these stakeholders, it presents a challenge for them to sell it to strategic

external stakeholders and targeted audiences. The brand needs to be attractive and appealing to those inside the city before it appeals and is marketed to external audiences.

5.6.1.8 Lack of communication and engagement

The role of communication is paramount to the operational efficiency of any organisation, most importantly, for information sharing. For projects to be successfully implemented and for certain objectives to be achieved, communication serves as a vehicle to deliver messages. Moreover, it keeps stakeholders abreast of developments in the organisation.

To build a strong city brand, the internal stakeholders need to be considered for any city branding strategy. This means regular engagements with stakeholders are vital in ensuring that everybody works towards the same vision. It was argued in Chapter 3 by Spitzer and Swider (2003) [see 3.4 .1] that effective internal communications should seek to disseminate information, used to get feedback, motivate and improve dialogues internally. According to the responses received from the respondents, this is clearly not the case:

**When it comes to infrastructure, we get told, ohhh, by the way, the municipality is planning to use 1.5 billion to put in new storm water drainage in Galeshewe.*

**There is no consultation.*

**Wena o bona hela go nale tent hale, ha o enquire go dira gala eng, o utlwa gotwe go celebratiwa (you will just see a tent there, and when you go to enquire what is happening, then you hear they are celebrating the) centenary ya (of) Mayibuye. Hebanna! (My Word!). But I am in the sector but ga keitsi sepe (I don't know anything), wabona (you see).*

**Within the municipality's communication department, they will only tell the residents if there is going to be a shutdown or how they are going to implement a certain programme of the infrastructure department. There is nothing about alleviating or bringing out the good stories.*

**None of them went through the channels of communicating with the family first.*

The responses above highlight the essence of communication as a conduit of information. It is clear from these responses that the sharing of information in Kimberley with internal stakeholders is not a common practise. Communicating to foster dialogue needs to be a two-

way process, where there is an exchange between two people, as stated by Mishra *et al.* (2014) in Chapter 3 (see 3.4.1). It is therefore important for communication to be two-way and not one-way.

One participant indicated there was one-way communication from government authorities to internal stakeholders as they were often not informed about developments in the city. The participant's response below proves the lack of two-way communication:

... government is sitting there making plans and haba hetsa (when they are done), they will be coming to us and implementing those plans without even informing us or without even involving us on what they do wabona (you see).

Engaging and communicating with people internally is a way of building a culture of transparency (Mishra *et al.* 2014 in Chapter 2) [see 3.4.1]. The sharing of information is not for knowledge purposes only, but it also seeks to value the receivers of the message by acknowledging them. In order to uphold good governance values in the city and to create an inclusive society in Kimberley, those in possession of important information should disseminate it in an effort to ensure that there are open lines of communication and transparency in the city.

5.6.1.9 Poor brand management

City brands, like all other brands, need good management for them to thrive and be successful. Managing a city effectively can build a strong brand. A city branding management strategy needs to comprise of various elements and should cover various aspects. Owing to the fact that cities have multiple stakeholder groups, as stated by Ashworth and Kavaratzis (2007) in Chapter 2 (see 2.5), the management of the brand can be complex and, as such, it is important that all the different internal stakeholders manage the Kimberley city brand with great professionalism and dedication. Most importantly, for the internal stakeholders, a common vision is required for holistic management of the Kimberley city brand. A lack of dedication and poor management of the brand creates a negative image of the city. Constant complaints about the city taint its brand. This ultimately leads to a negative reputation of the city. The responses from the following participants highlight that there were complaints about the municipality indicating a degree of poor management:

**Based on the number of complaints and how critical they are of the work that the municipality does, I do not think they would be putting out a good name for Kimberley as a brand.*

**And then you get people who complain. I mean I am in a group, on a WhatsApp group. This is supposedly....This is a chamber. It's called Nocci (the Northern Cape Chamber of Commerce). Then you have people that are just negative. Anything that gets wrong or the municipality is not doing right, instead of giving ideas and suggestions – always negative.*

Given the responses above, it is clear that, based on the participants' experiences, the Kimberley brand was not being managed well or strategically. Owing to the fact that city brands can be likened to product brands, as stated by Ashworth and Kavaratzis (2007) in Chapter 2 (2.5), cities also need to apply the same management methodologies as product brands would.

Within the context of city branding, municipalities and local government are central to services rendered to the city and operations within the city and thus also largely to the image of the city. As such, urban governance is important in this regard. It appeared there were cracks in the managerial system of Kimberley given the manner in which the brand was managed by various stakeholders and the lack of a clear identity for the city. Statements concerning this included:

**I think there are a lot of deficiencies at the local level. If you want to present Kimberley as a brand I think local government is failing when it comes to that.*

**I believe that the city brand is all over the place and is not celebrated as it should be, because as you know Kimberley is a very diverse city and therefore it is not being streamlined into people knowing this is the brand, this is how I identify it to Kimberley.*

**Look, from my point of view, not great because I sometimes feel that Kimberley gets lost within the bigger Northern Cape Tourism brand.*

**I think it's (brand) not handled very well.*

**The different role players handle it in a different way. So there is certain sector of the town, where people just try and market for their own benefit. So they tend to focus on just one specific area of the town and try and market that, but if you try and market your own smaller product on it's your own, you don't really get the same kind of attention.*

From the responses above, it is clear from internal stakeholders that there is fragmented management of the Kimberley city brand. It also appears that there is no central focus on what the proper Kimberley city brand is in terms of promotion and marketing. For greater management and marketing impact, it is imperative for internal stakeholders to understand the Kimberley city brand to ensure that they are in accord with other internal stakeholders.

5.6.1.10 Lack of internal collaborative partnerships

To achieve great impact and success of projects and set objectives, teamwork, partnerships and collaborations are important. Cities have multiple stakeholder groups, which can contribute to the complexities of managing city brands. The effective management of city brands is reliant on a number of factors including good partnerships that can propel the vision and mission of the city.

To create a common vision for the city and its branding, collaboration amongst the stakeholders is imperative. In Chapter 2 (see 2.5.1), Dinnie (2011: 36) states that, for a city brand to be effective, “it needs to represent all of its key stakeholders and it needs to remain viable and relevant over time.” In terms of collaboration and partnerships amongst internal stakeholders in Kimberley, the views expressed by the participants of this study indicated that there was a lack of partnerships and collaborations in the city. One participant, reflecting on his experiences with other stakeholders in the city of Kimberley, said that there was no collaboration. His strong response suggests that there is no level of effort for collaboration: *“No, not at all!”*

Six of the participants indicated that, in their experiences of Kimberley, there was definitely no collaboration, while the remainder of the participants indicated that collaborations with other stakeholders were inadequate. The following responses from participants clearly indicate that there is a lack of partnerships and collaborations in Kimberley.

**We don't work together, unfortunately. There are a lot of individuals running around and collaboration is very limited. There is a little bit but it's very limited. People try to keep everything close to their chest, they don't want to share.*

**Not really. The main thing I think is.... I'm sorry to say.... its ignorance.*

**What I want to say is there is never a come together, with all the role players. I'm talking about the different museums, the municipality and departments, two departments, obviously sports arts and culture and department of tourism. There is never a [coming] together; you know sort of a platform created for marketing the Kimberley brand.*

**A few, not much.*

**If I have to answer that question, it will be yes and no. From government side, yes we are trying to work with various departments, unfortunately private sector is not coming on board and now, we have now currently engaged them.*

**Yes. No...not all the time. We collaborate a lot with the Department of Tourism, Economic Affairs in the province, specifically around Wildebeest Kuil, our Rock Art and then this year we are also having a collaboration which is why I don't want to be too negative.*

It was discussed in Chapter 2 (see 2.10), that the integration of various stakeholders in Kimberley is important during the implementation of the city branding strategy to ensure an effective, competitive and sustainable city branding strategy (Paskaleva-Shapira in Sahin & Baloglu 2014). Through partnerships and collaborations, stakeholders are also able to position the brand in the minds of the targeted groups. Gaggiotti *et al.* (2008), in their city brand management model (see Table 2.2 in Chapter 2), mention that positioning is one of the key elements in city brand management. The participants indicated that the lack of partnerships were a result of operational silos by internal stakeholders and of not combining efforts and resources to achieve impact for their initiatives, resulting in duplication of efforts, such as marketing initiatives.

It was clear that there was a great disconnect amongst the internal stakeholders when it came to enhancing the Kimberley city brand. Consequently, they were not reaping the benefits of partnerships and collaborations as their efforts were duplicated. One participant, on the issue of a lack of collaborative partnerships, expressed the disadvantages of this as per the response below:

Our provincial government does not speak to your regional government and your regional government does not speak to your local government and it becomes a problem because gonale (there is) duplication ya die (of) projects and programs. Unlike ha ekabe (if there was) synergy between the three nkabe ele gore batho ba (it would be that these people)

can understand that where is our government going because nou yana(now) it seems like there is no clear cut direction as to what is being done. I mean the municipality will come up with a plan to do this whereas the Department of Arts and Culture has got a different plan to that. So it becomes wastage ya (of) expenditure because what one is doing, the other one wants to duplicate wabona (you see). So I don't think gore (that) nxa batho ba (these people) are talking together.

Sharing the same views as the above participant, two other participants stated that there was no synergy between the various internal stakeholders and that this was because they do not combine their resources to create an impact. Their sentiments are captured below:

**At some level there is, but not enough. You look at the city, itself Sol Plaatje, they have got collaboration and cooperation with regards to certain things. There is collaboration on some level but it cannot be enough. Also, if you look at marketing of the city, there is a collaboration there as well, although it is not something that is synergised.*

**Everybody does whatever he does or she does. For the mere fact that you have three legs in government that deals with tourism. You have your NCTA, you have your Economic Affairs and Tourism and you have your Sol Plaatje Tourism. Now these three legs, when they go to the International Tourism Indaba, they don't combine their resources to come up with a great product. Each and everyone is trying to promote Kimberley on their own point of view.*

Contrary to the above responses, some participants indicated that they were collaborating well with other internal stakeholders. They provided examples of their collaborative efforts, which included the level of engagement, projects and events and shared visions as indicated in their responses below:

**For sure. Yes for sure, through different platforms. Through our own integrated development plans, the IDP. Through, when we build our plans for the next five years, we engage all stakeholders from tourism, from business, er you know.....there are functions, there are number of shows, events actually, for example, the Barney Barnato Golf Challenge is also part of the brand.*

**Well then when it comes to ideas sharing project, we have actually on our different levels which we interact with. You will find that there are times when it's necessary for when it comes to project to have those idea sharing, then you will engage for example with your national department and also your district on how to collaborate in order to ensure successful implementation of these specific projects or ideas, but there are also times when its necessary for us to also call in your higher level for your example the mayor. I*

would definitely say that there is a collaboration

**I think there is collaboration with different stakeholders. There is greater collaboration between different stakeholders, of course you will find those people, those stakeholders who then try to pull in a different direction. Those will be few. You can't have everyone pulling in the same direction all the time. You have those who are like...I'm not playing my part in all of this.*

**Yes, we have an MOU with the Northern Cape Tourism. I think it's a very good affiliation or MOU that we have we with them and we are taking it forward. It's one of our major projects jaa.*

The difference in responses from the participants indicates there is definitely inadequate or poor collaboration with internal stakeholders. Only four of the 14 participants were able to express that there was indeed collaboration amongst various internal stakeholders. Synergising promotional activities and implementing shared ideas alongside other stakeholders will, as mentioned by Duncan and Ouwersloot (2008) in Chapter 3 (see 3.2.1), create greater impact. Given this, to achieve commonality and move towards the same vision, all internal stakeholders need to have one voice and this can only happen through collaboration of, not only events, but projects, ideas and the measurement of effectiveness of initiatives.

5.6.1.11 Weak relationships among internal stakeholders

One of the most important groups of people pivotal in building a strong brand, particularly a city brand, is the internal stakeholders. For these stakeholders to work well with each other, good relationships are essential. As communication is at the centre of building strong and positive relationships (see 3.2.1), attention should be paid to this (O'Guinn, Allem & Semenik in Mulder 2015). Similarly, Jo and Shim (2005), in Chapter 3 (3.4.1), concur and state that communications is part of building favourable relationships.

Almost all the participants indicated that there is no real engagement amongst the different internal stakeholders and therefore, where relationships do exist, the relationship ties are not strong, as indicated by the following response:

For me also there is a need for a strong relationship between the....., especially when it

comes to public and private relationships, those need to be stronger.

While some of the participants said that they had good relationships with other internal stakeholders, they also stated that there were cracks in those relationships because they sometimes had concerns and that some of the internal stakeholders were not serious regarding the tourism prospects in the city. One of these participants gave a deep sigh when he spoke about what his experiences were with relationships amongst internal stakeholders and he battled to finish his sentence, indicating there were issues with some relationships. The responses below pay testimony to this:

**Well I am not sure, but government has its own flaws. Here...Hare bua (when we talk) about relationships between stakeholders...ai ai aii...*

**We have a very good relationship with all the government departments especially with Northern Cape Tourism, LED, Sol Plaatje Tourism. So our relationship, yes is very good but they are not taking seriously what is actually happening.*

**I have a good relationship with Sharon who is the CEO of the NCTA. I have a good relationship with Johan van Schalkwyk who is the Director at the Department of Economic and Tourism (in Kimberley) and I have a good relationship with Neo at Sol Plaatje Municipality, but I do table my concerns and they do listen them as they have the power to change things, but I do table my concerns.*

Based on the responses from the participants, it was discernible that there were efforts to build relationships with other key role players in the tourism sector of Kimberley, although these efforts were not always fruitful. The use of various forms of engagements with stakeholders was paramount in building relationships and creating dialogues. Though some of the participants were not happy about the order of proceedings of some of the engagements, there is room for improvement in this regard as the structures are already in place.

5.6.2 Interview findings regarding interview question 2

How do you feel about brand Kimberley?

The second phenomenological interview question addressed the emotions experienced by the internal stakeholders pertaining to brand Kimberley. The themes that emerged from this

question are discussed in the section that follows below.

5.6.2.1 Negative brand attitudes

Positive energy within organisations or groups of people often transcends into positive outcomes. Similarly, positive brand attitudes will transcend into positive brand associations. In the literature (see 2.13.4.3), brand attitudes were discussed and described as the cognitive and emotive internal responses of consumers that can ultimately impact the brand favourably or unfavourably. Feelings of depression and disappointment were expressed by the participants when brand Kimberley was considered in the state that it currently is. Some of the participants also reported feelings of despair as indicated by the following response:

The Kimberley brand at the moment depresses me in the way in which it is being handled. That depresses me.

Another participant concurred with this statement by stating:

The city as a brand needs to be developed. At the moment it is quite depressing, because it is neglected as a brand.

Other participants voiced their disappointment:

**At this stage I feel disappointed in it, because the brand has weakened so much over the years that we don't really feature on any main itinerary of big tour companies anymore. It has been watered down and it really only features as an alternative or a possible extra add on, on big companies itineraries. I'm very disappointed in the way it's just been watered down and almost disappearing in a way.*

**Disappointed. I don't think it's what it should be. It's not selling us. It's just not selling us. I just don't think the brand is that great. I think they need to make a change to the brand because if it was [great], we wouldn't be sitting with a shortage of tourism. Or maybe disappointment is not even the right word. I would say, more sad. I feel sad because I know what we can do. I know what the potential but it's sad. So I think disappointment is the*

**Sometimes I feel a bit off, a bit of disappointment, [because of the] lack of service delivery that we are experiencing in the city.*

**I feel that there are a lot of improvements still needed. I actually feel at the end of the day a bit disappointed.*

One of the participants reported that she felt ashamed of the city:

Driving through the city, some days I feel ashamed [laughs]. There are times when I feel ashamed.

Yet others indicated that they felt sad as per the following responses:

**I feel a bit sad also to think of where we were and where we are now at the moment.*

**I feel so negative. I think maybe I feel negative about it because of my environment right now. I just think my morale is down. I think my morale is just down because, like I said I think it's just down internally.*

Morgan and Huertas (2011) in Chapter 2 (see 2.13.4.3) note that strong brands are those with positive reputations. Positive brand attitudes can therefore contribute to a positive reputation and thus build brand equity for the city. As illustrated by Elliot and Percy (2007) in their brand equity synthesis model (see Figure 2.10), brand attitudes contribute to the building of brand equity. The above responses indicate that there were certain problems that had to be addressed as the current attitude towards the brand is not positive.

A few of the participants were enraged by the city's history, using strong words such as infuriating and deceiving. Given the strong statements, it was clear that the Kimberley brand did not ignite positive attitudes. This was due to the city's history of colonialism and diamonds as some of participants felt that the mining history of the city was depressing and infuriating. They said Kimberley is not what it should have been today, because it was robbed of its resources. The responses below are testament to their frustrations with the Kimberley city brand:

**It is nothing exciting. Well for some it might be a destination. Let me say for a young black person, there is nothing literally for me to do in the city. There is no urge for me to go to a museum because I know what I am going to see in that museum is not going to impress me. I am going to see how the city was raped to become what it is today.*

**It infuriates me because I look at the Big Hole and think: this is how my land has been raped wabona (you see) and no one is doing nothing. Yes, the brand Kimberley, personally I feel that Kimberley can be rebranded so that it reflects the aspirations of those who have been marginalised in the past.*

**I feel the brand doesn't reflect the aspirations of our people. It doesn't talk about the city. It doesn't even represent the city. I feel like that because of the historical conditions the city emanates, which is your Big Hole and the diamonds. I feel like that because the brand itself is a brainwash and camouflage to the mind-set of our people. It doesn't give a true reflection of what Kimberley really is. Kimberley is a really nice place for me and showing the Big Hole that has killed so many people doesn't show that. So I think the brand for me is deceiving and it is time for a fresh brand.*

Despite the pessimism over the Kimberley city brand, some of the participants were optimistic about the Kimberley brand as they had positive feelings about Kimberley. This was because they are proud residents of Kimberley and are proud of the history of the town. Janiszewska and Insch (2012), in Chapter 2 (see 2.17), state that all the internal stakeholders of a brand have different attitudes and expectations of that brand. The responses below shed light on a positive attitude towards the brand by the participants:

**I'm a very proud Kimberlite. It provokes a very positive response, despite everything. I love the town and love the history. I have a positive feeling when you say Kimberley.*

**I'm currently feeling very optimistic, because what I can see from my side is, there is so much potential on making this brand grow so much more than what it's known for currently. So it is, it is....I feel very optimistic, I feel inspired, I'm very passionate about it and I really want to make this vision work towards what we want this brand to be at the end of the day.*

Overall, it appears that the Kimberley brand evoked negative feelings from participants because they believe the city can be better branded. However, due to ongoing challenges and issues that are tainting the brand, they were pessimistic. For a brand to be strong, people need to have positive attitudes and associations, which are key to building value for the city. Strong brands can yield a number of benefits and it is a challenge for a weak city brand to benefit from city branding.

The disheartening responses from the participants indicate the deterioration of the Kimberley brand. It appears that the brand has weakened and is not what it used to be. Moreover, the low morale and feelings of the participants highlights some of the existing challenges in the city that are impediments to successful city branding. The feelings of the participants above also reflect on the strength of the Kimberley city brand. Their emotions indicate that they

have low confidence in the brand.

5.6.2.2 Disintegrated marketing communications disheartenment

Many obstacles were perceived in the process of managing the branding of the city of Kimberley. In the literature, it is argued that the integration of all internal communication functions or activities plays an important role in establishing a strong city brand and that integrated marketing communications (IMC) is an effective method of communication, which is able to deliver consistent, impactful messages to all the various stakeholders. Dissanayake (2012) in Chapter 3 (see 3.2.3) argues that IMC is now increasingly being adopted by organisations due to its many benefits. Cities can also make use of IMC to create consistent impactful messages and to yield other benefits (see 3.2.3).

In the context of the marketing communications initiatives in the city, the participants felt that not enough was done to market and promote Kimberley. This gave way to feelings of inadequacy and ineffectiveness of the marketing communications initiatives in the city. Marketing communications efforts in the city were perceived as poor, disintegrated and not aligned to the city's vision in order to send consistent, impactful messages:

**It is (They are) disintegrated. They do not talk to each other, in fact they oppose. If you look at it from a marketing point of view, the negative reports from the DFA on a day to day basis versus what other people are trying to make of Kimberley clearly indicates that people are not working hand in hand. It is not coordinated, and it is also not enough put into marketing Kimberley as a brand.*

**They can't do it effectively if there is no one dealing with it correctly. You have different views or different comments that are coming from different areas, but those are not coordinated in any how and therefore it's very difficult to say whether these stakeholders are contributing positively towards the city because of you go to the Department of Tourism in the province and the Tourism Department in the Municipality, they don't speak the same language.*

**It's non-existent. It's not there. It's non-existent, because the things that they are doing, they don't put effort into them. There is no person that is there that says: I am a marketer. I have gone to school; I know what I'm talking about.*

**It's very poor because the few that do marketing are so focused on little aspects and they try to market the small things instead of marketing the city with their product, so it's*

a very disappointing small town approach. So each person, when he does market, he really only markets his own little product, he does not use Kimberley as a brand and then use his product attached to it, that's now our biggest problem.

The participants were disheartened by the inadequacy of the marketing communication efforts in the city, stating that this made them feel as though there were no concerted efforts. They felt that many improvements were required in that regard.

Additional responses capturing the emotions of the participants pertaining to marketing communication efforts in the city follow below:

**I feel when it comes to the promotion of the city and of the brand itself - as I mentioned I feel that there is still a lot that needs to be done, a lot of improvements that are required.*

**I feel there are still gaps we lacking in, specifically marketing wise and marketing the brand itself.*

**Sad. These people are not doing enough to promote and market this brand. They are not doing what is required. Ha gona di (there is no) awareness, ha gona sepe (there is nothing)!*

**Not so positive, I think it could be much better. As in general, I just feel there could done more to highlight, I don't know how, but to highlight, make certain places a focus let's say for a month or whatever where you do a lot of marketing around that place, instead of trying to cramp everything into one.*

**When it comes to marketing, we actually have to be, I feel that we have to be a bit more creative.*

**Within the city as well, there is no marketing.*

**The marketing communications are not on point. You don't see the brand on letterheads. It's not there on your billboards. It is not there on all your big events. You don't see the brand there, but it is the brand of the city. You will see Sol Plaatje Municipality logo, but you don't see the brand. This is the city of Sol Plaatje, but you still have the old colonial badge there. It has two lions there standing, it makes no sense. When you brand the city, brand it properly. I feel the city is under-marketed, is under-promoted.*

One of the participants, echoing the same sentiments as the above responses, also felt that the marketing communications efforts in the city were inadequate by stating that most of the marketing was targeted at international visitors whereas it needed to be more focused on

domestic tourists who make up 95% of the tourism statistics in the city. The inadequacy of the marketing efforts was therefore a result of the un-segmented target audiences. Subsequently, the 95% that should be the focus of marketing would yield more economic benefits for the city than the 5% that is currently being targeted. The participant also acknowledged that the regional government was also not doing enough to drive city marketing and promotion. Below is the participant's detailed response:

It is not adequate. Look, I know I work for the provincial government and we are not doing enough. There is this thing that foreign visitors bring more cash into the country because they stay longer, they spend foreign currency, but if you look at our province demographics in terms of our visitors or in terms of what is out there, 98% of people who consume our tourism or let me say 95% of people that consume tourism in the province are domestic visitors. That means those are people that are from the province or South Africans who come to the province. And if you look at who those people are, most of them are people who are visiting friends and relatives and therefore they stay with their relatives. A lot of the marketing that we do is focused on that two or five percent and that is your foreign people and if you look at the biggest market that we get – and when I say international are Africans, people from Lesotho, Namibia – those are our biggest markets.

In Chapter 2 (see 2.9), it was discussed that one of the advantages of a strong brand is that it has increased marketing communications effectiveness and this is what was lacking in the Kimberley brand, based on responses from the participants. The above responses clearly reflect the participants' feelings and their dissatisfaction with marketing communications in the city, particularly in the tourism sector. They were concerned about the inadequacy of the marketing communications platforms as well as the minimal efforts made to promote the city effectively. Most importantly, these responses revealed that integration of resources and marketing techniques is imperative to maximise marketing impact.

5.6.2.3 Stakeholders feel they are not operating as a system

While there are numerous tourism authorities responsible for marketing the city and creating brand awareness through the tourism sector, it is important for all internal stakeholders to heighten their marketing communication efforts to ensure continuous brand exposure. For this to happen, stakeholders need to operate as a single system that is working towards a collective and common goal. Moreover, it is important for all internal stakeholders to understand Kimberley's brand vision and mission to unify messages and communicate them to targeted stakeholders effectively.

The Grand Theory of this study is the General System Theory discussed in Chapter 1 (see 1.6.1) which views systems as integrated wholes. This theory postulates that people are more effective when they operate in systems. Moreover, as described by Littlejohn and Foss (2008) in Chapter 1, the idea around the Systems Theory is that if people function as interrelated wholes, they can have a common vocabulary. Interrelatedness is therefore essential for the internal stakeholders to find a common vocabulary in their messaging and promotion efforts. The participants expressed their feelings regarding the contributions and efforts from other internal stakeholders in improving the Kimberley city brand. The consensus amongst the participants pertaining to this theme was that the stakeholders were not operating as a system, hence the lack of coordination in the branding efforts and partnerships. The following responses indicate the participants' dismay:

**The private sector is not participating there. Look, in tourism you find it's government, it's private sector and then it's communities. Private sector is non-existent there. People are working in silos.*

**I am not impressed. I certainly think that they ought to do better. It is not visible (efforts).*

**They can do more, because obviously there is opportunity for them to do so much more. I would really love them to do [more], to get more involved and be more hands on with regards to getting our brand out there.*

**Not so positive, because I think there's specific people that are.... although I say everybody must contribute to the brand, I do feel that there are specific companies or institutions that was specifically, that is their main task, but maybe like NCTA, it's also a question of lack of funding.*

The sentiments from the participants reflect that the tourism sector of Kimberley does not operate as a unified system. The absence of interrelatedness became apparent in the lack of impactful marketing of the city. In most cases, this was due to a lack of strategic direction and budget constraints. In order to promote the Kimberley city brand through tourism, the sector has to be prioritised and identified as a potential sector to elevate the Kimberley city brand. Moreover, to attract investments, all internal stakeholders, including government, municipality and businesses, need to invest in the Kimberley brand by heightening their contributions to the city. Based on the responses above, it is clear that there is a lack of unity and a lack of common vision towards holistically promoting Kimberley. The notion around the systems theory is that all parts of a system need to be interrelated because one part cannot create an impact on its own and needs support from other parts.

5.6.3 Interview findings regarding interview question 3

What should be done to improve brand Kimberley?
--

The above question addresses the third element, which refers to beliefs. The same procedure will be followed as with the preceding two questions. The themes that surfaced from the data will be presented as headings and, where identified, sub-themes will be highlighted in the text.

In response to the above question, the participants believed that there were a number of issues that needed to be addressed in order to elevate the city of Kimberley to the brand it should be. Their ideas included:

5.6.3.1 Effective brand awareness initiatives

Building brand awareness is an important aspect of any brand that aspires to be the best and increase its client or customer base. While some of the participants believed that Kimberley needed to be more visible for it to be improved, others were of the belief that the city itself needed more awareness. Brand awareness and brand visibility are two linked concepts. For a brand to be visible, it needs to have awareness around it. This theme addresses the lack of visibility presented by the Kimberley city brand.

As stated by Christadoulides and Chernatomy (2011) in Chapter 2, a successful brand is an identifiable brand. The participants of the study believed that Kimberley needed to be visible for it to be improved and to be able to compete with other brands. Yousaf *et al.* (2012) in Chapter 2 (see 2.13.2) state that a highly recognisable brand is able to get the highest sales in comparison to other brands that are not equally recognisable. Describing their viewpoints around brand Kimberley, the participants believed that the Kimberley brand needed more exposure for it to be improved, as expressed in the following responses.

**What I have noticed is that various government departments have a communications office, but the premier's office does not have a communications office that is very visible. We will have to call the media – the DFA, but there are also a whole lot of community papers. I think if all of those entities can be brought together, to consider ideas on how do we elevate the Kimberley brand. As we bring in the media, there also need to be a continuous and ongoing effort of synthesising the broader community around brand Kimberley.*

**So a lot of awareness also, creating awareness amongst your higher level officials when it comes to local government specifically as well as our community members to also encourage them to keep the city cleaner and to keep the city safe for visitors and make it more visitor friendly.*

**If all of those entities (internal stakeholders) would be willing to contribute to an awareness campaign, either through the media or through functions, or through particular discounts.*

Given the responses above, it is clear that the concept of awareness was understood as a means to inform and educate the public, as well as impart knowledge of the Kimberley brand. In Chapter 2, a number of city branding techniques are discussed which can be used to create awareness. For the Kimberley city brand to be visible, it needs to be promoted through an awareness campaign. Most importantly, brand awareness is key in positioning the city in the minds of consumers. In Chapter 2 (see 2.13.2), Zanantonello *et al.* (2014) notes that brand awareness is part of the brand building process which appeals to consumers' internal responses, cognitively and affectively, and this is what brand awareness should strive to achieve. Once people know about Kimberley, its history and various offerings, a certain position can be secured in their minds. In addition, to position the city in a favourable way in the minds of consumers, existing perceptions of the city need to be changed.

5.6.3.2 Integrate efforts to build synergy

Combining resources, skills and knowledge can lead to impactful results. In marketing communications contexts, this is known as integration. The concept of integrated marketing communications relates to the combination of various techniques to heighten brand exposure and to attain set brand targets. Earlier in this chapter, it was discussed that one of the experiences that the participants had of Kimberley was the lack of internal collaborative partnerships. The participants of this study believed that integration through collaboration was one of the ways to improve the Kimberley brand. The key words that emerged under this theme were, “combine”, “together”, “one vision” and “collaboration.”

In integrated marketing communications, one of the key benefits of combining resources and promotional techniques is synergy. Through integrated efforts, internal stakeholders in Kimberley are able to achieve synergy and create harmonious consistent messages. The idea is to integrate different efforts into a unified whole for greater impact. As stated by Ouwersloot and Duncan (2008) in Chapter 3 (see 3.2.5), through this, synergy is created in which the sum is greater than the parts combined. Kitchen and Schultz (1999) in Chapter 3 (see 3.2.3) states that IMC has increased impact, which is what synergy entails. Moreover, the authors state that creative ideas are much more effective when IMC is employed.

This theme delved into the subject of integration and synergy to see the efforts that are in place to achieve impactful messages and drive collaboration holistically. Moreover, the subject of integration was likened to partnerships. The participants believed that an increase in partnerships and collaboration will drive the Kimberley brand to a better position. One sub-theme that emerged from this was the need for a brand coordinator to drive collaborations and create harmony. Many of the participants agreed that collaboration was key to branding the city of Kimberley and building synergy. The responses below contextualise the participants' viewpoints:

**There is definitely a serious need from within the municipality, but it shouldn't be led by the municipality. It should be the municipality together with organised business, together with organised social formations and society. There needs to be a concerted and ongoing process. It needs to involve the municipality, other government departments, the*

premier's office, the media, the social formations and it needs to involve the churches as well.

**I think there must be a platform developed that we have some kind of a new structure that will develop a new brand approach. It's not only highlighting the Plaatjie or Robert Sobukwe or the Galeshewe figures but also what Kimberley can offer in terms of accommodation, cultural tourism, eco-tourism, the whole picture. And everybody can make inputs.*

**You need to involve your guesthouses, your hotels, your tour guides, your whatever to actually sell the package because the brand is there but the brand is not selling, so the package needs to be solved under the brand.*

**I think perhaps if all the stakeholders do work more closely together in terms of having one brand for Kimberley and then marketing it all, and all of us market it as such. So from municipal level, to the visiting sites, you know your museums or art galleries and tourism sector.*

**I think there should be one message coming from every stakeholder in terms of whatever the brand is.*

Yeshin (2008) in Chapter 3 (see 3.2.3), states that IMC is able to build participation and corporate cohesion however, in the context of Kimberley, stakeholders were not keen to participate in anything as this was impacting on building synergy. The following response is testament to this:

There is generally nothing else that one would like to take part in. Maybe we need to have more strengthened collaboration.

Expanding on the need for partnerships and combined efforts, Participant 5 believed that fora would foster collaborations amongst stakeholders and ultimately attract bigger investments into the city and, most importantly, through integrated resources, organise projects with greater impact. The participant's response follows below:

I think we need to somehow have a mind shift and we need to also when we plan, do better planning. It shouldn't be individual departments planning. It should be a forum, where stakeholders meeting, sitting together and saying....and I'm not talking about short term, I'm talking about long term, your big projects – this is what we want in the next five years which is your mid-year, mid-term and longer ten years plus this is the achievement we need to do. And there should be implementation, plans that needs to say this the due

date, that is the due date. For me it's all about working together and the contribution of...because once you have plans together, the funding becomes so much easier because now you don't have to because now you can put one money in one pot and know that it will have a huge impact on that project.

Get a brand coordinator

While there was a great consensus around the need for collaboration and integration efforts, two of the participants felt that a coordinator was needed to drive collaboration and partnership initiatives in the city. Koekemoer (2014) in Chapter 3 (see 3.2) states that one of the reasons behind the adoption of IMC was uncoordinated and inconsistent brand messages. It is therefore essential that coordination of brand messages is driven by a coordinator to ensure consistent messages. As noted by Belch and Belch (1998) in Chapter 2 (see 3.2.3), coordination and integration gives a company unified image. The following responses from the participants concur with the literature that brand coordination is essential:

**Firstly, I think you need a coordinator. If you have one department that is coordinating all these things, you don't have everyone buy in, but if you have each and every person doing their own things than you end up with a very fragmented brand approach.*

**As much as someone might acknowledge that we do need to be together. Someone needs to coordinate for it to be really be successful.*

Based on the responses from the participants, partnerships and fruitful collaborations could heighten the Kimberley brand. However, with no commitment from internal stakeholders to create opportunities for partnerships, the Kimberley city brand will not be promoted effectively. Most importantly, partnerships will ensure that all internal stakeholders in the city speak in one voice and work towards one vision. Given this, partnerships are pivotal in this regard.

5.6.3.3 Improve the visual image of the city

There are a number of elements, which contribute to the image of a brand. These can enhance the image, weaken or damage it. Building a positive brand image can be a complex task as numerous aspects need to be considered during this process. Although it is not easy to build and maintain a desirable brand image, it is easy to damage that image. Chapter 2 of this study argued that a strong brand can build brand equity for a city. The image of the city, as seen through different lenses, is important in building brand equity for the city. Brand image is an inherent component of brand equity. Furthermore, as noted by Rainisto (2004) in Chapter 2 (see 2.9), a desirable brand image is particularly important when cities want to attract visitors and residents. It was noted by Kavartzis (2004) earlier in Chapter 2 (see 2.15), that a city's image constitutes of spatial and non-spatial elements.

In terms of the Kimberley city brand, a number of factors were tarnishing the image of the city. Many seemed to share the same sentiments regarding the cleanliness of the city and its dilapidated infrastructure, which they believed were weakening the brand further.

Within the branding of places such as Kimberley, brand image is a critical element, which underpins every transaction between the brand and its consumers (Anholt 2008). Therefore, this element of building brand equity is crucial in city branding. The image of the city was highlighted as one of the most important aspects for building a strong brand for Kimberley. The responses from the participants indicated that the visual appeal of the city needed to be enhanced to restore the old Kimberley brand, which was once perceived as a strong brand and to improve it to attract tourists and investments into the city. Under this theme, two subthemes emerged, which are considered to be challenges, these are the cleanliness of the city as well as the infrastructure of the city. These sub-themes are discussed as separate headings below.

Clean the city

The cleanliness of a city contributes to its image and is part of the city's aesthetics. A clean city is one that is attractive. The participants complained about the cleanliness of the city stating that it was damaging Kimberley's city brand image. They believed that if this is

addressed, the city's brand can be improved.

Cities need to be visually appealing to attract more investors, residents and tourists. A city that is not clean cannot be attractive. It appeared that the city was not reflective of its slogan and did not sparkle as it is envisaged to. In Chapter 3 (see 3.3), the concept of brand contact points was discussed, which is any interaction with a brand at any given point. Owing to the fact that cleanliness contributes to the image and brand of the city, any interaction with dirt in the city can be viewed as a brand contact point. As indicated by Ouwersloot and Duncan (2008) in Chapter 3, any type of a touch point is a form of brand communication, which can be strategic and intentional or unintentional.

Participants indicated that the state of the city's cleanliness was not acceptable, making it unpleasant to conduct business in it. Many indicated that keeping the city clean should be everybody's responsibility and not only the government's and the municipalities' duty. The municipalities have rolled out cleaning campaigns that encourage the residents to keep the city clean. Owing to fact that some of the tourists who visit Kimberley are on their way to other towns, they prefer not to stop in a dirty town as it creates a negative experience. Additionally, the lack of cleanliness of the city could potentially pose health risks due to the increase in pollution.

Below follows responses from participants who expressed that cleanliness was one of the impediments to the improvement of the Kimberley city brand:

I think businesses as I mentioned earlier, businesses should start with themselves and **keeping their pavements clean.*

Each sector must do their bit. It's almost like; **keep your house clean so if you contribute even if it's just your small bit in front of your guest house, or your restaurant.*

We had the Commissar General last year from Australia. He said very strongly he's not coming back to Kimberley. It was quite a shocker and it was interesting because the first thing he said to us was that **this place is disgustingly dirty. So if you hear that from a Commissar General, that actually makes you worry because that means you don't even look at the history. He didn't even look at the heritage, **all he saw was the dirt and the state of the city.***

Look at Kimberley, I mean I say our national emblem is, “Kimberley is plastic bags**” because no matter what side of Kimberley you enter, **it’s dirty, it’s filthy, it’s plastic bags**. I mean it’s not the impression you want to leave with tourists when they come to a town. Although Sol Plaatje has been doing a lot to beautify the city, I do believe the entrances still need a lot of work.*

**If people just don’t dump, that can improve the visual image of the city.*

One of the participants above suggested a clean-up campaign as an initiative to keep the city clean and educate the public about cleanliness. The participant stated that the campaign should start from school level where a culture of cleanliness can be instilled in learners at a young age. She expressed her viewpoints as follows:

***Start with a cleaning campaign with the schools.** I think there are some initiatives by some private companies that are also starting with under privileged children as well, because it also starts with under privileged children as well because they don’t know and with privileged children too. I mean like I said before, it doesn’t matter what income and what race you are at, you can start anywhere. So that is one of the initiatives I want to start, even if its starts by changing the mind sets of a few people. Even if you can just start cleaning up a place, that will be like a start for me and it really changes the perception of people and when they come into the CBD or into the city.*

Given the above, it was clear that cleanliness was a concern for everyone in the sector, but most importantly, it was affecting the business of tourism. The tourism sector is about experiences and part of that experience is about the ambiance, aesthetics and appeal. The beauty of a city cannot be seen, captured and experienced if it is dirty. Tourism also gets promoted by word-of-mouth. If tourists have an unpleasant experience due to the lack of cleanliness in the city, it makes it difficult for them to sell the city to other potential tourists.

Pay attention to and upgrade infrastructure

While cleanliness was raised as a problem weakening the Kimberley brand, the city’s poor infrastructure was also identified as an aspect that needed to be addressed to improve the Kimberley brand. This sub-theme pertains to concerns raised about the poor infrastructure in the city, which needs to be upgraded to improve the city’s physical appeal. It also falls under the place element identified by Anholt (2006) in his city brand hexagon discussed in Chapter 2 (see Figure 2.1). A city’s infrastructure is therefore an important element that needs to be

considered when branding cities. Herget, Petrů and Abrahám (2015) in Chapter 2 (see 2.3) note that cities use various mechanisms and techniques to attract potential investors and tourists and one such way is through infrastructure development. A city's infrastructure therefore needs to be in a condition to be able to attract investors and tourists.

The issue of infrastructure also lends itself to the urbanisation and development in the city. The infrastructure of a city contributes to the city's competitiveness in comparison to other cities. These are also an indication of the city's economic development. The strength of the city's economy is reflected by its infrastructure as the city is able to use its gains to improve its infrastructure. When talking about the infrastructure of the city, the participants made special reference to the lack of tourist attractions. Participants also indicated that the roads in the city are "falling apart". This, they believe, negatively impacts on the success of the tourism sector in Kimberley as these conditions leave a bad impression on visitors. The participants reported as follows on the infrastructure issue:

I think the **municipality first at the local level needs to get it right with regards to infrastructure, the cleanliness of the city, with regards to the facelift of the city as well.*

There is so much. The roads first. I mean you can see its falling apart. **The water pipes, its infrastructure, everything is rotten under.*

In order to improve Kimberley we **need to develop the infrastructure ya (of) previously disadvantaged communities, the tourism infrastructure.*

We have quite a few attractions but the **infrastructure around those attractions is either dilapidated or it needs improvement or its non-existent.*

A lot of **work still needs to be done around our infrastructure, tourism infrastructure, but unfortunately for us at this stage tourism is not a priority.*

... Kimberley as a brand can be reflected in the ambience of Kimberley. **If you go into the CBD, it is terrible. If you go and drive on the major arterial roads, the conditions and quality of the roads themselves does not land to it being taken seriously as a brand.*

So you know, people go and Google the place and they have a look and they are like: ohh my soul, look what it looks like, **the roads are falling apart its dirty, it's filthy.*

Kavaratzis (2009) identified infrastructure in his city branding marketing framework as one

of the elements that need to be considered when branding a city. The infrastructure in the city is a form of a brand contact point in which targeted audiences can interact with the Kimberley brand. The infrastructure of the city communicates the quality of the brand the city carries. Given the above responses, it is clear that the dilapidating infrastructure in the city is an issue of concern for the internal stakeholders as it makes the city appear unkempt.

If you look at Kimberley now in terms of the economic, it's growing on the other side but **the town here is dying. That's what we need to say: how do we revitalise the town?*

If we really want our visitors to have a good experience and for them to talk about it to other people and to get other people here, we must ensure that the places they visit in Kimberley are **well maintained and well-kept and are worth while visiting. So **maintenance and infrastructure**, especially in terms of my tourism sites are critical and we lack in funding in that regard.*

Improve **centres, improve landmarks, improve iconic leaders to become part of brands, especially when it comes to government.*

Then those with deeper pockets needs to look at, and now I'm specifically talking about the municipalities needs to look at **their infrastructure plan and really prioritising tourism sites and centres in their IDPs.*

Brand contact points are a form of communication (Ouwensloot & Duncan 2008). Poor infrastructure development is an indication of a weak brand that is not competitive and an unclean state gives the impression that the city is neglected. The responses above suggest that there is a need for the infrastructure in Kimberley to be improved and for the city to be cleaned so it is truly representative of a *city that sparkles*. Brand contact points in a city, such as infrastructure, its cleanliness and other spatial elements can be strategically used to enhance the city's brand image. Moreover, it is clear that the infrastructure and the state of cleanliness in the city contribute to the visual image of the city and can inform brand associations.

5.6.3.4 Capitalise on city's culture and heritage

The culture and heritage of a city are unique facets of it as these differ from city to city and can distinguish a city from other cities. They contribute to the "personalities" of cities. Moreover, the histories of various cities play a role in shaping their unique heritages and

cultures. It is therefore difficult to separate a city from its heritage and culture. The participants of the study believe that Kimberley's history, heritage and culture are unique and need to be promoted in an effort to elevate the city's brand. The heritage and history of a city can contribute to its brand equity as suggested by Lucarelli (2012) in Chapter 2 (see 2.4). In their city brand management model (see 2.5 in Chapter 2), Gaggiotti *et al.* (2008) show that heritage, culture and history are intangible aspects of a city which need to be taken into account when managing a city. Some of the participants of this study feel very strongly about the history, heritage and culture of Kimberley and believe they need more prominence on marketing platforms. The strong beliefs stem from the fact they were born and bred in Kimberley. The responses from the participants follow below:

**We should celebrate our historical icons. We should celebrate our culture, we should celebrate our music. We should celebrate our ability in language. We should celebrate who we are as the people of Kimberley. When we celebrate that, we then put that into a brand and then we will have a very beautiful unique brand that can be sold in South Africa.*

**I think what we must first do, I know that there a quite a few initiatives to try and preserve the heritage, but I think there is a lot still that needs to be done to preserve the heritage. Uhhh also, uhhh initiatives that need to try and preserve the culture, the strong culture that we have.*

**... yha the Big Hole that is the attraction, but I think the attraction for Kimberley is our heritage and our buildings. The actual history of the city and all the firsts that we got. I mean we have over 120 or 130 firsts, so that to me should already be a selling point. Why are we selling Kimberley? Because of the history, because of the heritage.*

**Based on the oral history, which we documented, we have unearthed a lot of historical buildings, sites and monuments that can be transformed within Galeshewe.*

As residents of Kimberley, it is clear that the participants are strongly attached to the history, heritage and culture as sentimental aspects. These are sources of pride for them. Every city is unique in its own way. For the city of Kimberley, its heritage and culture contribute to the distinctiveness of the city. Using the city's history and heritage could be one of many ways to create favourable associations for Kimberley as these highlight the city's distinctiveness from other cities.

5.6.3.5 Improved service delivery

The tourism sector is a services driven sector. The success of the sector is dependent on the employees who deliver the services. The lived experiences of the visitors and tourists of Kimberley is what makes their trip or vacation memorable. As noted by Pine and Gilmore (1998: 98) in Chapter 2 (see 2.6.2), “an experience occurs when a company intentionally uses services as the stage, and goods as props, to engage individual customers in a way that creates a memorable event.” Moreover, these people will promote the city through word-of-mouth if they have had a positive experience in the city. As illustrated by Aaker (1996) [see Figure 2.3] in his brand equity model, perceived quality is a key component of brand equity, which gives consumers a reason to buy. Most of the participants of the study believed that if the services rendered by employees in the city were of a good standard, the Kimberley city brand would be improved. As can be seen by the following responses, the participants also believed that services of a high quality would leave a good impression with visitors and lead them to visit the city again:

**For me service delivery. Definitely service delivery, first hand. We need to up our game to make sure that we provide the service to the people firstly.*

Services – If we can improve on our services because you can only come back if you got a nice service the first time, but if ele gore (it said) our service is not up to standard, then there is no way we can be welcoming people back here. They will only come once and never again.

**Make sure that the service of your staff is up to standard.*

**No one is treating you with a smile, but they expect you to come back.*

**So, if all these sectors can improve on their service offering, client service jy ken (you know).*

Two of the participants remarked about the standard of services in Kimberley as can be seen in the responses below:

**Hela yaka obona die (just as you see our) taxi drivers, die (the) petrol attendants – some of them have not been trained on customer care wabona (you see). So, now wonder ele gore (that) service ya bone (their service) is not up to standard.*

**We can make sure that when we provide a service, it's a set standard, unfortunately the parameter at which service is measured, the standards are measured does not seem to be consistent right through. So certain products will be delivered at a very sub-standard level and then the next person will deliver the same product that has a much higher quality or level. So our standards needs to be brought in line so that there's enough trust out there that when you come here everything that you receive is on the same standard.*

Another two participants expressed their sentiments regarding the quality of services in Kimberley:

**So we are actually more dependent on our private product owners for them to deliver a good service at the end of the day to attract visitors. So for them to deliver a good service, uhmm keep your...make sure that the service of your staff is up to standard because for me actually, the service, there is still a need for improvement of delivery of services especially when it comes to your hospitality, your restaurants etc. here in Kimberley. So improving the quality of the service for them.*

**There is no quality control there is no pride in their work. It's like when there is a pipe burst, then you just see that pipe lying there. I'm like "geewesh" guys. There is no quality control. Is it just like to get the job done or is it to do it the right way?*

Expressing her disappointment with the services in Kimberley, Participant 13 said that "services sucks in Kimberley. It is such a bad service." The participant did however state that it is not everywhere in Kimberley where the service "sucks", but the services of most places, especially restaurants and retail outlets, were sub-standard.

I am not saying like every place, but there is a general thing you just accept that service is bad here and you just accept it. Yes, you will get that small niche market....ahhh we get such good service but we just accept that service is crap. It's like there are no more people that go out of their way to give you proper service.

In city branding, service quality plays an important role in building strong relationships and brand loyalty. In Chapter 2, Govender (2006) states that one of the solutions to city branding challenges are quality services to make cities competitive. The extended marketing mix, specific to the services industry, is discussed in Chapter 3 (see 3.2.4). The "people" element of the marketing mix refers to the quality of service that employees deliver in the sector. Therefore, quality service is an important element and is an inherent aspect of the marketing and promotion package of Kimberley. Given the above responses, it is clear that the quality

of services in the city needs to be prioritised by service providers. Most importantly, the offering of quality services needs to be standard across the city and should be representative of the Kimberley vision.

5.6.3.6 Heighten internal branding and marketing initiatives

The role of internal branding is to align employees and all relevant stakeholders to the organisational goals and mission. This theme presents the responses related to internal branding. The concept of internal branding follows an inside-out approach. Internal branding is based on the premise that what is communicated externally, needs to be harnessed internally first. One way of doing that is through employees.

Internal branding is an integral part of integrated marketing communications. Bergstrom *et al.* (2002) in Chapter 3 argue that employees are able to be more productive and can understand their value and contribution to the brand with the correct application of internal branding. A greater synthesis of this concept is discussed in Chapter 3 (see 3.4.3). Internal branding plays an important role in the implementation of IMC. In relation to better service delivery, some of the participants believe that internal branding and internal marketing needs to be adopted in the city to elevate the Kimberley brand. They said that this can be through ambassadors and staff members in the sector. The responses are captured below:

**Like I said, ambassadors – Let our kids, those in school and out of school be taught about the brand and be sent out as ambassadors to promote the brand. In so doing, kea go raya (I am telling you), we can attract a lot of people in Kimberley, as well as Galeshewe.*

**Government and other institutions, they are not playing their role, in ensuring that they promote that brand to its ambassadors who would be the residents, because if residents are aware of this brand then they can be the word of mouth to promote and market this brand.*

**The marketing should be done from internally and everyone that is here internally has the capability to market it but the problem is they don't really market*

**So maybe... I don't want to say better management but better workmanship ...*

This theme explored how employees, ambassadors and internal branding can be used to elevate the Kimberley city brand. The participants displayed a deep appreciation of internal

branding and of their employees as their most important brand ambassadors. Given the responses above, it is clear that there is a need for employees within the tourism sector of Kimberley to be aligned to the vision of the sector in order to deliver consistent messages to tourists and guests. Internal branding is therefore important in this regard. The responses provided by the participants indicated that employees, locals and other internal stakeholders need to be part of the brand communication strategy.

5.6.3.7 Enhance flow of internal communications

Communication is key to fostering mutually beneficial relationships amongst internal stakeholders in Kimberley. Internal communication ensures that all the key stakeholders understand the city's vision and mission. More importantly, internal communication is a strategic communication technique, which aims to impart knowledge, educate and keep internal stakeholders abreast of developments in the city. De Lange (2015), in Chapter 3 (see 3.2.4) defines internal communication as the movement of communication inside an organisation. Similarly, there should be flow of communication amongst internal stakeholders in the city of Kimberley while aligning employees to the city's vision and mission so they understand the essence of the brand.

Participant 3 highlighted the building of relationships with other stakeholders in the sector, and the importance of sharing information. The participant said that there were no efforts made in making sure that developments in the city are communicated to key internal role players. She therefore believed that improved communication would lead to an improved Kimberley brand that can compete with other cities.

Sometimes you will find that there are events taking place out there or new developments taking place out there and we are not informed of it. You will just find a poster up there to say ok there is an event this weekend at some or other guesthouse or whatever. So lack of communication... so better communication lines, I guess that is also part of relationships, the building stronger relationships with your other stakeholders.

Another participant extended the need for communication with internal stakeholders and also other relevant stakeholders stating that a platform of communication needs to be established so that stakeholders can engage with one another and share ideas on how to

better brand the city or promote it:

I think there must be a platform developed that we have some kind of a new structure that will develop a new brand approach.

There was a clear need for effective internal communications and structures as highlighted in the following responses from the participants:

**There should be one message coming from every stakeholder in terms of whatever the brand is. We need to promote it. All of us need to promote that brand so that there is no confusion as to what you get when you visit Kimberley.*

**You need a fully-fledged uhmm comms department that will not only deal with a new crisis, but that will look into what is it that we do to promote the city.*

**They should also play their role in speaking to the locals, the general population. When I say information, not only about their programmes but they become aware of new developments or how people do things in other cities and see how we can move forward in elevating the brand of the city.*

Building and maintaining relationships with various stakeholders in the sector is also a means of communicating with them when it comes to pertinent issues affecting them. Though the key role players in the tourism sector of Kimberley were from different tourism institutions, engagement and communication is pivotal in collectively building a favourable image for the city and helping each other address some of the challenges they encounter in that space. Under this theme, given the responses on the topic, it was discernible that internal communication was almost non-existent and that there are inadequate communication platforms for internal stakeholders.

5.6.3.8 Conduct brand research

Marketers often conduct research to gain insights on their customers' experiences and their suggestions for their brands. This helps them to better target their audiences and to understand what their needs and expectations of their brand are. In an effort to improve brand Kimberley, four of the fourteen participants believed that a brand research should be conducted to understand how local residents view the city brand and what their idea of the brand is. Studying people and interviewing them is part of the research process. These are

particularly important during the data collection stage (see 4.5 in Chapter 4). To provide solutions to identified problems, a research question should be posed to address those problems as suggested by Wimmer and Dominick (2010) in Chapter 1 (see 1.3).

Having identified some of the problems in Kimberley, one participant stated:

We have to make a study, a research – as to how we can change our brand with our people and I feel that Sol Plaatje hasn't changed that.

Other responses from participants pertaining to the need to conduct brand research follows below:

**We have to study the movement of people. You can never develop a business or a brand if you didn't study the people.*

**They can one, make research.*

**So they must do their research. They must interview people, and they must start coming up with a fresh brand.*

From the responses above, it is clear that levels of engagements and consultations in the city need to be widened and viewpoints from all stakeholder groups need to be gathered to ensure that the brand represents everyone who consumes it. Through research, the local communities can be part of the new brand-building journey.

5.6.3.9 Update information and improve brand contact points

The world is constantly changing. A city, which aspires to be globally competitive needs to ensure that it updates its information regularly as these changes or developments occur. These can be done digitally on websites, through the updating of print marketing collateral and key information inside the city such as signage and street names.

Four of the participants reported on the need for proper signage:

**You know putting up visible signs for the Big Hole, for the museum, for Maggerfontein.*

**So I would say visible signs taking you to where ever you must go.*

**Signage needs to be updated a bit.*

**Here in Kimberley, there are still signs of the Rand Afrikaanse Universiteit, the former University of Johannesburg.*

In a quest to be relevant and competitive, some of the participants stated that there was a need to regularly update information on marketing collateral as per their responses below:

**If your branding could have perhaps the correct boards or posters, pamphlets or whatever.*

**The issue here is, are they branding it in the correct fashion? By that I mean, how often do they often update it. Don't we have a poster of 7 years still hanging around? Or don't we have a poster of 7 years of a business that died 5 years ago?*

**The brochures, whatever they put out must also be correct. Don't go and put a brochure that's got maybe 5 years ago information. The person comes here and they ask about the aviation or birds and the aviation closed 6 years ago.*

Signage is a valuable piece of information, which is also a brand contact point. Signage in a city creates an impression that the city is progressive. Any brand contact is key in providing information to the consumer about the specific brand. Brand contact points are essentially brand communication vehicles. As noted by Ouwensloot and Duncan (2008) in Chapter 3 (see 3.3), brand contact points consist of every interaction that people have with that brand where it communicates something to them. Likewise, information, such as brochures and pamphlets, share information about the Kimberley brand and are therefore vital contact points that need to be regularly updated.

Signage provides information to people on where places are located. Given the responses above, it is clear that the updating of information and proper signage is not taken seriously in the city. The above responses also reflect on the lack of resources to continuously update important information. Moreover, it is clear that the essence of brand contact points is not grasped as a strategic method to communicate the brand. Although technologically adept people are able to rely on their mobile devices for navigation, others still rely on signage. Aside from showing that the city is a progressive, signage is an aspect that connects tourists to the city and makes them feel welcome.

5.6.3.10 Promote brand through events

Like any other brands, cities can be promoted through various techniques and measures. One of these techniques is through events. A few of the participants of the study believe that the city's promotional strategy needed to be diversified by including more events which can best promote Kimberley and communicate the city's brand. They opined that, through this, the Kimberley city brand could be improved and subsequently it could be developed into a competitive city.

Kimberley already hosts big events, which are part of the country's social calendar, such as the annual Diamonds and Dorings festival. Events and activities are city brand elements identified in Lucarelli's (2012) city brand equity framework discussed in Chapter 2 (see 2.4). As argued in Chapter 2, a strong brand builds brand equity for a city. Events are thus essential in strengthening the city brand through exposure and ultimately building brand equity. Below are responses from the participants who stated that events are one way to improve the Kimberley city brand:

**I think a multimedia thing that is affordable and also make it accessible to people. I'm talking about multimedia events for instance a poetry evening or a reading of an important person's books or something like that or a lecture about the history of Kimberley.*

**What we can all do as part of the stakeholders is think of special functions, exposing Kimberley as a city where we would now think of bringing fun into the city.*

**Also study events, study what our young people move towards because the material conditions in the past are in the past. The material conditions now are very different from the past. So we have to study the movement of people.*

**We need to look at activity-based attractions, things for to do for families in the city. Maybe restructure what you are offering the city.*

**Just find an event that will incorporate everyone else.*

In Chapter 2 (see 2.7.3), Hildreth (2010) notes that events are strategic tools which can be used to brand places. Events play an important role in showcasing the culture of the city. When planned properly and executed successfully, they can be effective in branding the city

and creating a strong city brand. Within the tourism sector particularly, events, especially major events, are able to create unity amongst the role players, as everybody is dependent on each other to make the event successful. From the responses above, it is clear that the participants were cognisant of the fact that good infrastructure and services alone would not attract visitors and tourists to city. Furthermore, irrespective of the reasons behind some of the visits, it is important that the city offers activities or hosts events to entertain visitors during their stay. It also appears that there is no variety of activity offerings in the city. Most of the events and activities were targeted at a specific group and there were not enough activities that catered for different audiences.

5.6.3.11 Transform and upgrade Kimberley brand

In the literature in Chapter 3 (see 2.3), it was discussed that city branding is a marketing technique employed by cities to attract residents and visitors and reap economic benefits. Owing to the fact that cities are competing for the same tourists, residents and investments, the branding of such cities needs to be striking and inviting. Given this, and as noted by Ashworth and Kavaratzis (2007) in Chapter 2 (see 2.3), it is important for cities to brand themselves so they are distinguishable from other cities. The participants of this study stated that the branding of Kimberley did not make an impression and was not representative of the evolution of the city. Responses from participants who believed that Kimberley needed a brand reconstruction for it to be improved follows:

**You need to look at those things and say: what is it that we are going to do with Kimberley and grow that particular brand.*

**Government must start getting a team together and get a fresh brand.*

**We need more public art, but we need to make sure that our city is branded freshly – that is the emphasis.*

Other participants were of the opinion that to transform and upgrade the Kimberley city brand, those responsible for marketing and promoting the city should ensure that the brand is striking, relevant and representative of developments in the city. The following responses encapsulate their viewpoints:

**I think that if you want to improve the brand it must be more vibrant, it must be more colourful, so when you have a specific product or a specific stakeholder in the community, whatever product he has should not be old and uninteresting. It must be redeveloped, given more attachments, more aspects that make it more interesting that can draw a crowd from young people right through to the old people. It must be seen, it must be recognisable, it must be in sync with what current trends are around the world.*

**We need to rebrand the city just to bring out the other anchors around the Big Hole, Robert Sobukwe for instance.*

Given the responses above, it is clear that there is a need for the Kimberley brand to first establish its identity and then reconstruct its brand accordingly. Most importantly, it needs to be reconstructed into a fresh brand, which relates to various audiences. Rainisto (2004), in Chapter 2 (see 2.9), notes that people responsible for city branding need fresh ideas to make sure that the city is able to survive fierce global competition. Times have evolved and it is therefore paramount for brands to evolve so that they are fully inclusive. Most importantly, as talks of decolonisation are at centre of transformation debates, brands that still embody colonial elements need to be transformed and decolonised. This is also particularly important for the Kimberley brand, which is said to be old and uninteresting.

5.6.3.12 City brand leadership needed

Good leadership is crucial in any organisation or city. Strong brands need visionary leadership for them to retain their strength and continue being successful. It is therefore important for a strong brand to have strong leadership. In the literature on city branding, Rainisto (2004: 14) in Chapter 2 (2.9) notes that “without talented leadership, a place cannot successfully make use of its resources and capabilities and risks losing its development and market position.” Good leadership from management in a city is crucial in sculpting brand image of the city and also upholding the core values of the city. Talking about what is needed to improve the Kimberley brand, Participant 13 made an interesting remark stating that Kimberley needs strong leadership. Below is a response from the participant in this regard.

I think it needs to start with a strong leadership. I think it starts there at the top. I think there needs to be a vision. Even if it's not vision. It needs to be a culture thing. I think there needs to be change management in the municipality or any other organisation and if you want to see change, I think you need like change management throughout your

organisation. I think the morale is also very low. So I think you need to change the whole moral within your organisation, within your structures, within your management. It's like you need to strategise. You need to implement like a game plan. I don't think there is like a game plan when it comes to implementing. It's like a struggle.

As noted by Burmann and Zeplin (2005) in Chapter 3, building a strong brand requires more than advertising. The above response not only emphasises the importance of good management but also highlights the essence of boosting staff morale, which internal branding seeks to achieve. An increased staff moral boosts staff productivity as they are more motivated to execute their duties. For the Kimberley city brand to prosper, those in leadership positions need to consider and pay attention to issues around workplace culture and employee morale.

5.6.4 Interview findings regarding interview question 4

What contribution can a strong city brand make to add value to Kimberley?

Strong brands yield multiple benefits. Within the context of city branding, one of the most notable benefits of a strong brand is that it can add value for the city and this ultimately leads to economic benefits. As noted by Dinnie (2011) in Chapter 2 (see 2.8), strong brands do not only provide economic benefits for cities, they also provide emotional and social benefits which are equally important for residents. The participants understood the value that a strong city brand can add for the city.

Several themes and sub-themes emerged from the data and these are presented below.

5.6.4.1 Economic development and growth

Most of the participants agreed that the most notable benefit that a strong city brand can add for Kimberley lies in the contribution that it could make to the economic development of the city. The economic benefits that a strong brand can yield for the city of Kimberley were verbalised as follows by the participants:

**Value - the growth in the economy.*

**You would literally have economic injection into the city, money that was not there.*

**I mean obviously if I'm coming here, I spend money on accommodation, I spend money on food and those are all part of the income – the economic benefits to the city.*

**Economic growth, economic potential*

**The whole economic system can benefit from good branding.*

**A main strong brand can contribute towards the economy of the city*

Economic development in the city of Kimberley is essential to the growth of the city and the successful implementation of the city's brand strategy. Additionally, a strong economic injection into the city means more capital to improve the lives of people in the city and the aesthetics of the city. As noted by Yananda and Salamah (in Purwanti 2017), in Chapter 2, (see 2.9) cities are the real contributors in a nation's economic development. Therefore, economic growth in Kimberley would contribute to the economic growth of the country. This economic growth can be made possible by several factors such as the ensuing sub-theme, namely, the inflow of investments into the city.

5.6.4.2 Increased flow of investments

In Chapter 2 (see 2.9), it was stated that city branding is increasingly being employed to attract more residents, investors and tourists (Petrea *et al.* 2013; Andersson & Ekman 2009). Four of the fourteen participants opined that a strong brand could attract investors to investment in the city. Below are their views:

**It can bring major investment if we can get the tourism activities back again.*

**A well-known brand will create investment opportunities.*

**The contribution that it will bring means more investments into the city. More investments meaning skills, meaning more businesses who would want to identify themselves with the city brand.*

**You (will) get an influx of either people or tourists or whatever or investors to want to come invest in the city.*

The responses above highlight one of the most notable benefits of successful city branding. It is clear that investors would want to associate themselves with Kimberley if it were a strong city brand. They will invest in the city with confidence knowing that they have made a worthy

investment in a good brand, which subsequently reaps benefits for them.

5.6.4.3 Job creation

The high rates of unemployment in South Africa have produced many entrepreneurs who are now employing more people. Dinnie (2011) in Chapter 2 (see 2.9) states that cities can provide job and business opportunities for residents, amongst other benefits. These opportunities can be easily attainable if the city has a strong brand that can draw economic attention. The participants stated that a strong brand attracts more capital and investments into the city, which creates jobs for unemployed people. The responses from the participants pertaining to job creation are captured below:

**We can create more jobs for the local community members.*

**Well a strong brand definitely will fight uhmm, will be able to create jobs.*

**Job creation and the sector grows bigger and more people to work there.*

**You can expand your business and at the end of the day you are going to get more work and give more work to people but that's not happening at the moment.*

The tourism sector, which is a service driven sector, has numerous opportunities for unemployed people to be self-employed and for business owners within the sector to create jobs for others. Given the responses above, it is clear that a strong city brand can alleviate the economic pressures for people in the city as there will be more employment in the city.

5.6.4.4 More tourists and visitors

Aside from the economic benefits that a strong brand can yield for a city, it can also attract more tourists, visitors and residents. Tourists consume services in the city and this ultimately means that they spend their money in the city. Some of the participants stated that the influx of tourists and people into the city was one of the benefits that a strong brand can yield for the city. Below are the responses from the participants:

**First of all if we have a strong city brand, we can attract more visitors.*

**A well-known brand means you are attracting people.*

**Personally I think automatically we will get more tourists and the tourism industry will get much stronger.*

**It can definitely draw more tourists. I think it can also be a nice stop over town. We can definitely draw more tourists, I mean it's in the middle of the country, people travelling from different parts of the country definitely can stop here.*

**If you have a strong brand hopefully it will increase the number of visitors to your town or your institution.*

**If the tourism is working correctly, you're getting a lot of tourists.*

Tourism is an important sector that has the potential to boost the economy significantly. However, the sector is only sustainable when there are tourists who can spend money in the city. The private sector is therefore the driving engine of this sector. The tourism sector is profitable only when there are significant numbers of tourists and visitors who spend money in the city. Using the “experience city” city branding strategy discussed in Chapter 2 (see 2.6.2), cities can attract tourists and people through the experiences the city can offer them. The tourism sector is essentially a services based sector centred on selling good experiences to tourists. All cities have experiences, which are unique to them, called place-bound experiences, as noted by Lorenzen (2010) in Chapter 2. These experiences are sold to tourists in an effort to propel economic development in the city. It is discernible that a strong city brand has the power to attract tourists and people through these experiences.

5.6.4.5 Infrastructure development

Good infrastructures and aesthetics can attract tourists because they add to the visual appeal of the city. One participant of this study was of the opinion that a strong city brand can contribute to infrastructure development of the city. The following response indicates the participant's conviction:

So when you have a stronger brand you have more visitors coming in, you have more expenditure, visitor expenditure at the end of the day can then contribute into improving the infrastructure of the city at the end of the day.

As discussed in the literature in Chapter 2 (see 2.9), Morgan *et al.* (2002) notes that a place needs to be visually and emotionally appealing and should have conversational capital so that

tourists can spend their money there. This theme is related to the above two themes, investments and more tourists. Capital is required to improve or upgrade the infrastructure of a place. This capital can be generated from investments and the tourism industry. The above responses indicate that a good brand can contribute to good infrastructure in the city because capital reinvested into the city can improve the aesthetics in the city.

5.6.4.6 Publicity and international exposure

Earlier in this chapter, it was discussed that a strong city brand is able to create brand awareness that exposes the brand to various audiences. In Chapter 2 (see 2.9), Keller (2013) notes that one of the benefits of a strong brand is “increased marketing communications effectiveness”. This means that the strength of a brand can be determined from the effectiveness of its marketing communications. Publicity and exposure can be garnered from intensive and effective marketing of the brand. Two of the responses from the participants below indicate that the benefits of a strong city brand for Kimberley are publicity and international/domestic exposure that attracts investors, tourists and resources.

**Apart from the growth in the economy, the exposure of Kimberley as a city to the outside world could make a lot more people interested in Kimberley and if those outsiders get in touch with Kimberley then the locals will also become aware of other places outside and the opportunities (economically) that they may hold for Kimberley. If people do not know about Kimberley, the resources won't come here.*

**Media attention – which means more international and more national media, will want to align themselves with this fresh brand or sell their products based on this particular fresh brand.*

The media is a vehicle to communicate with both internal and external audiences and is important to ensure the dissemination of information to these audiences. Media publicity and word-of-mouth are powerful conduits to generate positive publicity for the city. Most importantly, a strong city brand is able to achieve this without additional costs. As suggested by Belch and Belch (2012) in Chapter 3 (see 3.2.4.6), publicity is the non-paid communications through various media platforms. The city of Kimberley can therefore benefit greatly from free publicity and also save money from its limited marketing budget.

5.6.4.7 Improved quality of life

In Chapter 2 (see 2.13.3) Riza *et al.* (2012) state that the quality of life in a city contributes to the fierce competition amongst cities as many compete for the same residents and tourists. Also, the quality of life in the city is a measure of the degree at which the city is liveable. Furthermore, a number of factors determine the quality of life in a city and these can subsequently attract residents and visitors. Therefore, as indicated by the responses of two participants below, a strong city brand would contribute to a better quality of life:

**If you would also improve the living conditions of the city because you have more money to spend on other things, there will be spin offs.*

**Improve the livelihood of the people*

Cities are residential areas for most people and places where they conduct business. The quality of life in a city has an effect on the strength of the brand. Good quality of life in a city indicates good brand strength. Given that cities are also residential areas, it is important that they are habitable and have adequate basic services.

5.6.4.8 Empowerment and diversity

Florida (2003) in Chapter 2 (see 2.6.3) states that there are different sources, which are important in stimulating economic growth. One of those factors is diversity. The author notes that the creative class are attracted to cities, which are technologically advanced, tolerant and have talented people. Two of the participants said that empowerment and diversified offerings lead to diverse tourists who visit the city. Below are their responses:

**Empowerment, liberation, because it will open people's minds. Personally ke feela gore (I feel that) liberation ga e (is not) physical, but is on the mind. In as much as our minds have been captured, only ourselves can free ourselves. So it can add to the liberation of people, it can alleviate the poverty levels of people of that city, town or country. It can even fuel into a lot of spin off projects, tse di kgonang go diriwa ke (that can be made by) these very same individuals bae le goreng (who) ga ba tloganye (do not understand) what value they can add to this very same brand.*

**I think with tourism we will get a more diversified sector within the city because the more visitors you get, the more diversified interest you get with regards to offerings within the city.*

The responses above indicate that the benefits of a strong city brand are not only economically related. Empowerment allows people to be part of the knowledge economy where their liberated creative intellect can also benefit. Likewise, diversity is paramount to the tourism sector to cater for diverse groups.

5.6.4.9 Positive brand associations

In the literature (see 2.13.4), Klopper and North (2011) state that brand associations can be both tangible and intangible attributes of the city. Additionally, these can be feelings and images, as noted by Rahman (2013) in Chapter 2 (see 2.13.4). The concept of brand awareness is an important component of brand equity. In this study, it has been argued that a strong brand can build brand equity for a city. Positive brand associations contribute to the brand strength. According to two participants of the study, a strong brand can result in positive brand associations. Below are the responses from the participants:

**A strong brand only means positive things coming to the city, and the people of the city will be the beneficiaries of that.*

**The complete outlook of the city will change because from the inside outwards, the feeling will be more positive, so if the city has a strong brand and it's really visible, it's standing out there, then everyone in town associates with it and they already feel more positive. People will bring their standards up to a good level, it's a catch 22, it's almost the wrong way around but as soon as a brand is strong, then the people react to it, they become more positive and the service delivery and everything else becomes much more advanced or pleasing to the visitors.*

It is clear from the above responses that a strong city brand can yield positive outcomes for the city. These can include social and economic benefits. The strength of a brand is measured on the good outcomes and not only the negative forces it has faced. The above theme indicates that a strong city brand means positivity that can be experienced through the entire city, from residents to businesses and to tourists. Everyone can benefit in this regard.

5.6.4.10 Contributions that stakeholders can make to add value to Kimberley brand

In response to the last interview question above, the participants shared what they, as stakeholders could do to add value to the Kimberley brand. Their responses indicate that they

are committed to addressing some of the challenges facing the Kimberley city brand in an effort to add value. The various sub-themes which, emerged from their responses are below.

Increase resources to add value

One of the participants, speaking from an organisational perspective, said what they could contribute to add value to the Kimberley city brand is to allocate more financial and human resources. This comes in light of budget constraints to market the city adequately and to employ skilled people to market the city. Below is the response from the participant:

I think for us it will be to actually strengthen our initiatives when it comes to cooperation when it comes to marketing efforts with the city. Probably also give capacity with regards to **human resources development in marketing itself. Maybe **allocate more financial resources** towards marketing because I think there we are lacking very much.*

I think they **need to capacitate the tourism office financially with more resources, more human resources as well.*

Below are responses from participants who indicated that they were experiencing financial challenges, which hampered effective and adequate marketing.

**I think if I can get better funding for propagating that we are doing, it would help a lot. I'm talking about an article....say for instance an influential magazine for instance, not the local newspapers. If we get a main line interview or a series of interviews it will help a lot.....more explicit publicity outside the parameters of Kimberley.*

**I only have a R10 000 budget for marketing for the whole year - that is my budget. Now I'm sitting here with places that I can market in and the prices are ranging from R3 000 up you know to advertise us somewhere. So I'm very limited in what I can produce in terms of that cost money to market Kimberley.*

From the above responses, it is clear that there are inadequate resources to make Kimberley highly competitive. The internal stakeholders are dependent on a good budget and enough capacity to execute marketing duties in the city successfully. The human capital invested in the city is essential in managing a city brand.

Using skills and experience to add value

Effective marketing communications for the city of Kimberley can add value to the city and also create impact by reaching set objectives need to be driven by all internal stakeholders. Personal commitment from internal stakeholders to elevate the Kimberley city brand can supplement and therefore heighten marketing efforts. This sub-theme discusses the responses from participants regarding what they can contribute to the Kimberley city brand. Gaggiotti *et al.*'s (2008) city brand management model illustrates "people" as a critical aspect in managing a city brand. The authors note that people skills can propel economic growth in the city. The human capital is therefore essential in managing and successfully branding a city. As noted by Florida (2003) in Chapter 2 (see 2.5), people are the drivers of economic and regional growth. The responses from participants who believed that, through the contribution of their skills and experiences, they can add value to the Kimberley city brand:

**There is a modest amount of knowledge that I can bring. My experience in the city, but also based on the fact that I have lived in another city for 25 years, and that is Cape Town. Some of my ideas that I have are based on my reading up of what is happening in other cities in the world and in South Africa. Lastly my passion for making sure that the economy of Kimberley grows.*

I also think **through my experience. I think a lot of funding and investment needs to go into your events also to try and address seasonality in the district and also to not only in Kimberley but to also attract visitor to our other smaller towns based in the district.*

I mean from a **skills development we have a technical training college that we train young people not only from our mining operations but we train people from the other industries. We train individual people who go through to that. We contribute to the University that trains young people from a Kimberley perspective. So our contribution would be: this is what we are doing to the community of Kimberley.*

Cities are not only competing for visitors and tourists, but they are also competing for talent and want to retain and attract highly skilled individuals. Talent in a city contributes to the competitive advantage of the city. One of the city branding strategies discussed in Chapter 2 (see 2.6) to make a city competitive is that of the "creative city", which postulates that people are the economic drivers of the city and therefore targets people with the best skills and knowledge. As noted by Dinnie (2011) in Chapter 2 (see 2.6.1), the skills, education and talent

of people can make the city economically prosperous. Based on the responses from the participants, it is clear that the skills set, education, talent and knowledge are pivotal tools for economic success.

Build strategic partnerships with the private sector

The tourism sector is said to be government led but private sector driven. The participation of the private sector in promoting the Kimberley city brand is important. Private sector brands are part of the broader Kimberley brand. Some of the participants suggested that internal stakeholders in the city need to be aligned and attached to the Kimberley brand. Success of the Kimberley city brand equates to success of the private sector as well. A number of participants called for the private sector to be more active and visible in their initiatives and to be more involved in the city's development plans. The participants noted that partnerships with the private sector need to be strengthened. Their sentiments follow below:

If we can get our **private sector to work with our government, with our local municipalities it will also assist us a lot so building stronger relationships with our private sector.*

You know government – all these three sorts of stakeholders are not present and participating and without that we can't achieve anything. **So I think the private sector needs to come on board.*

****Build strong relationships** with the public and private sector.*

I think, you know what the big problem is in Kimberley as well? [It] is **the tourists, guest houses, the farms, the guest farms or whatever you want to call it. They've all become so ... we just don't care anymore because nothing is being done so each and every little individual is doing his own little thing at the moment. Nobody is actually standing together.*

From private companies' point of view I think the other **private companies needs to find out what is it that the city does with the rest -- it offers to communities a lot, so that they can contribute towards that.*

The above responses indicate that being proactive in the city in which you have invested as a business is important. Lack of participation in the city's branding initiatives will hamper the city's vision. Gaggiotti *et al.* (2008) in Chapter 2 note that partnerships are important to tackle

the economic challenges of the city. Partnerships are needed to implement the city's vision and brand strategy. Moreover, if they are aligned to a common vision, this can achieve economic prosperity. Combined efforts and resources from all internal stakeholders can create synergy and produce a better outcome. Strategic partnerships are key to the implementation of a city brand strategy. The responses from the participants also indicate that internal stakeholders are cognisant of the challenges they are facing and they are also aware of what is required from each other to add value to the Kimberley city brand. Moreover, it also indicates that there is a lack of commitment to initiate partnerships and to implement strategies to improve the Kimberley city brand.

Build social cohesion

In Chapter 2 (see 2.3), Petrea *et al.* (2013) says that a city's brand can be a social enhancement instrument if it is well managed and designed. Participant 12 indicated that building social cohesion amongst all the internal stakeholders would add value to the Kimberley city brand.

Get more of the role players in specific sectors together on a social level and get them to connect on a social level, get to know one another and have a better trusting relationship with them into the financial side of it and start to work together. So we need to put in a bigger effort to bring people together socially. A social interaction will make a much bigger change than just trying to get people to work together.

Social activities and networking build platforms to create dialogues, foster relationships and exchange ideas. As discussed in Chapter 3 (see 3.5), relationships are key to achieving set objectives and building relationships can build brand equity for the city. Pike (2008) in Chapter 3 (see Section 3.5) notes that good relationships with customers over time can be economically beneficial if internal stakeholders interact more frequently.

Transparency and open communication

For brands, such as city brands, two-way communication is essential to observe the views of the receiver of a message. Furthermore, city brands, like corporate brands, are regarded as complex brands due to their multiple stakeholder groups. Given this, it is thus essential that information and progress updates are shared with these stakeholder groups. As noted by

Mishra *et al.* in Chapter 3 (see 3.4.1), internal communication fosters a culture of transparency between management and employees in organisations.

Participants 1 and 9 noted that communication amongst internal stakeholders and other stakeholders could add value to the Kimberley city brand. Below are the responses on what internal stakeholders should do to add value to the Kimberley brand:

They should share information and reach out about what it is that they are doing in their programmes. They should also explain what their challenges are in promoting the city brand. But also, they should be open and honest enough to tell us as the municipality what it is that we are not doing correct. So there needs to be **open communication. They should share their programmes and their resources around Kimberley as a brand and the current and future programmes that they anticipate.*

They should make sure they **speak to all stakeholders, including the majority, which is the township people – what they think about the current brand, how can they improve a new brand.*

The above responses indicate that all internal stakeholders need to engage regularly to share information amongst themselves and other stakeholders. Additionally, benchmarking the city's performance against other cities will allow for the exchange of ideas around city branding strategies. Knowledge sharing is key to the advancement of any brand. For cities, it is particularly important to research brand building initiatives from other cities and within the city, and to gather contributions from all internal stakeholders. This further allows the city to align itself with the nation brand.

Contributing through good reputation and skills development

Another participant said that their own institution's brand contributes to the Kimberley city brand because they are a reputable brand and they also add value to the Kimberley brand through their technical training college and their contribution to Sol Plaatje University which trains and provides tertiary education for young people in Kimberley. Below is the response from the participant:

We obviously add in terms of the good reputation that we have. It adds to the reputation of the city. So our brand, adds to the brand of the city and the brand of the city does add

to the brand of De Beers.

A positive reputation equates to a strong brand leading to a competitive advantage over other brands. In Chapter 2 (see 2.3) Prilenska (2012) states that city branding is concerned with creating a positive image for the city. From the above response, it is discernible that a good reputation can contribute to the image of the city. Brands with negative reputations are often faced with challenges in attracting new consumers and maintaining them because people do not hold positive associations with that brand. A positive reputation ensures that the brand secures a positive position in the minds of consumers.

Restoring and building brand loyalty

Chapter 2 argued that a strong city brand can build brand equity for the city. Building loyalty is an important component of brand equity. One of the advantages of strong brands is that they provide greater loyalty, as highlighted by Keller (2013) in Chapter 2 (see 2.9). Through increased brand loyalty, the strength of the brand increases, as value is added. One participant said that he can contribute to building brand value for the Kimberley city brand by restoring the faith of people in the Kimberley city brand:

I want people to have faith; I want people to have trust in the brand. The brand should be known as a service....when you look at the name, Kimberley or when you see the brand or whatever, you don't have to know what it means or what it stands for. Ummm, actually when you see it, you need to know exactly what you going to get out of that. It must be something that is so powerful. That is what I want, so powerful when you look at it or when you see it or when somebody mentions it, it must be the first thing you know, it must be a powerful brand and you know that definitely that is a trusted brand.

The above response is an indication that the brand is currently weak and that people have lost faith in what the brand offers them. Rebuilding the trust that people once had for the Kimberley city brand is one of the steps to restore the strength of the brand.

Share a common vision

The vision of any brand contributes to its identity. In order for cities to achieve set objectives and to be globally competitive, they need to have a vision of what they aspire to be. It is

therefore necessary for the vision to be incorporated into the city's branding strategy. In the case of brand Kimberley, it appears that the vision of the city is not lucid, as stakeholders do not completely understand the vision and mission of the city. Participant 2 was of the opinion that all internal stakeholders need to have a common vision to add value to the Kimberley city brand. Below is his response.

I think generally we should share a common vision for the city. Private sector, government, communities – I think we need to start cooperating in that regard. We need to be participants in crafting that vision for the city. I don't think there is participation.

Highlighting the essence of a coordinator who can ensure that all stakeholders in the city have a common voice and work towards a common goal, Participant 10 called for all stakeholders to contribute towards adding value to the Kimberley city brand.

I think if everyone with what they have, do contribute, but in some of way I still feel there should still be some kind of coordinator, coordination so that we speak the same, we send out the same message.

All stakeholders in the city need to be aligned to the brand to ensure consistent communication of branding messages and branding initiatives. The vision is how the city positions itself amongst other cities and people. The positioning of the city is pivotal to how the city brand is managed as indicated in the city brand management model proposed by Gaggiotti *et al.* (2008) in Chapter 2 (see 2.4). The above responses emphasise the importance of a common vision within the city. As noted by Metaxas (2010) in Chapter 2 (see 2.5), the vision and development strategies of the city need to be considered to ensure an effective marketing plan which is able to elevate the Kimberley city brand. Moreover, the vision of the city is a blueprint for future plans for the city.

Improve basic services in the city

The basic services in the city are critical to its operational efficiency. Households and businesses need running water and electricity to foster a habitable environment, build good business relations and to create an environment conducive for operating a business. One participant mentioned how internal stakeholders – in this case the municipalities – could

improve the basic services in the city:

I think the local municipality needs to start with improving the service delivery of the basic service. Basic services are a huge component in the tourism industry. If we don't have the roads, if we don't have the water, if we don't have proper electricity then we cannot attract the visitors, then we won't be able to deliver also on our services that is required from tourists visiting the city and the district. So, I think a lot of work needs to be done, a lot of investments and funding needs to go into tourism. So if our local municipalities can also invest more money into the development of tourism it will assist us a lot.

Referring to the cleanliness in the city, Participant 13 stated she wanted people to be active in keeping the city clean to enhance the image of the city.

I think each person can just take pride of their space, like their remote space that could like just add value.

Good basic services are also crucial within the tourism sector, which largely depends on municipal services to generate an income. Basic services are just as important as the infrastructure of the city. In Chapter 2, Hergret *et al.* (2015) note that one of the reasons behind the practise of city branding is the growing demand of developing cities that are more sophisticated and have better infrastructure, services and offerings. The above responses highlight the role that municipalities play in upholding the image of the city. Municipalities act as custodians of the visual image of the city as they are responsible for providing water, electricity, functioning sewerage systems, fixing roads in the city and collecting garbage.

Establish an internal culture

A unique culture contributes to the distinctiveness in the city, which adds a competitive advantage for the city. In Chapter 2 (see 2.14), Kavaratzis' (2009) city branding marketing framework is discussed which shows that a city branding marketing strategy needs to be based on eight essential city branding components. One of these components is internal culture, which is the internal workmanship, internal management and municipal administration of the city.

The culture of a city is an intangible element, which can be utilised for an effective branding strategy. Furthermore, in the city brand management model proposed by Gaggiotti *et al.*

(2008) in Chapter 2 (see 2.5.1), it can be used to assess the city's current situation for better management of the city brand. Two of the participants believe that, if all stakeholders can foster an internal culture of providing a standard service across the city and maintaining a certain ambiance that speaks to that culture, this will indicate that stakeholders are aligned to the brand. Their sentiments are reflected in their responses below:

Maybe collectively as stakeholders, we can adopt a certain kind of culture that can distinguish us from the rest as tourism stakeholders. We can adopt a certain kind of culture e eleng gore waitsi gore (of which you know that) when you come to Kimberley or you visit Kimberley, this is the kind of reception you are going to get wabona (you see), this is the kind of welcome you are going to get. It does not matter, once o tsena ka (as soon as you come into) Kimberley, this is what you get. Maybe that will make us stand out. It will make us to be able to attract even those who never heard of Kimberley before wabona (you see).

Now coming back to your question, our accommodation people need to be aware of the brand and the importance of the brand so that when they package their marketing material, they also align themselves with the right brand. The experience that you get in that particular accommodation must make you remember it is associated with this particular brand. The transport people need to be conscientised about the brand, they need to know the brand.

The responses above indicate the need for standardisation of services across the city. It is clear from the participant's response that the internal stakeholders in the services sector of Kimberley do not have a common voice and experience with which they can attract tourists. The city of Kimberley has a rich history and a colourful culture, which stakeholders can capitalise on to promote the brand beyond the borders of the city and the country. The internal culture in the city contributes to the personality of the city.

Community upliftment in the city

Corporate social responsibility remains pivotal in today's changing world. As a gesture of goodwill and giving back to communities, corporates invest in their social responsibility programmes through sponsorships and being involved in community development initiatives. One participant said that he can contribute through his association that is involved in poverty alleviation campaigns in the city. He said the association could donate food and toiletries.

Below is his response.

... we as the association can contribute in a way by giving blankets, giving tins of food which is not going to go bad, towels, soaps even, soaps that are being used in the guesthouses which is ...

In Chapter 3 (see 3.4.2.2), Ouwensloot and Duncan (2008) state that sponsorships are able to generate publicity for brands. The above response indicates that internal stakeholders can be active and can contribute to the Kimberley brand through various initiatives such as sponsorships. Most importantly, it shows that care and concern from stakeholders presents a united front in fighting social ills.

5.7 SUMMARY

This chapter presented the findings of the in-depth interviews with the role players in the tourism sector based on Groenewald's (2004) phenomenological method. Their responses elucidated on the four questions underpinning phenomenological research, experiences, feelings, beliefs and convictions. The themes and sub-themes, which emerged from the participants' responses to the questions, were discussed with relevant supporting sources from the literature.

The phenomenological results chapter was presented in light of the objectives of the study. It addressed the third secondary objective of this study. Verbatim quotes were used to capture the in-depth thoughts and feelings of the participants. All the themes and sub-themes were discussed with supporting relevant literature from Chapters 1, 2 and 3. The responses from the participants provided an overview of the city branding landscape in Kimberley and highlighted some of the challenges they face in effectively branding the city.

The next chapter will present the conclusion and recommendations of this study and provide guidelines for an internal IMC approach in the tourism sector of Kimberley to improve brand Kimberley, which is the primary objective of this study.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The main objective of this study was to provide guidelines for an internal IMC approach in the tourism sector of Kimberley in order to enhance brand Kimberley.

In the previous chapter, the insights obtained from the in-depth interviews conducted with employees working in the tourism industry in Kimberley were discussed. In this final chapter, the conclusions and recommendations of the study, based on the research goal and objectives, and more specifically the research questions put forward, will be addressed.

The chapter will commence with a brief reflection on the research goal and objectives of the study. The information contained in this study ultimately indicates the importance of functioning from within an integrated IMC approach. In this concluding chapter, remarks will be made on the research objectives. The conclusions will lead to the recommendations. The value of the study will be highlighted as well as the limitations experienced. To conclude, suggestions for future research will be made.

In the following section, the goal of the study, and the objectives identified to reach the goal, will be reiterated to act as a framework for this final chapter. Thereafter, the conclusions drawn from the study, linked to each objective, will be presented.

6.2 REVIEW OF THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The goal of this study was to provide guidelines for an internal IMC approach in the tourism sector of Kimberley to enhance brand Kimberley.

In order to address this goal, the following objectives were set. These entailed:

- To discuss the nature and scope of city branding and brand equity
- To give an overview of the importance of an internal focus in integrated marketing communication

- To investigate the knowledge and experiences of the role players in the tourism industry of Kimberley regarding brand Kimberley

6.3 CONCLUSIONS RELATED TO RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

In this section, the conclusions of the research related to each of the research objectives are presented.

6.3.1 Conclusions regarding the first secondary research objective (RO)

The nature and scope of city branding and brand equity

The first secondary objective discussed the nature and scope of city branding and brand equity. This objective was expounded in Chapter 2 of this study. Through a review of relevant literature on branding and city branding, it was established that city branding is essential to position the city in the minds of its stakeholders. The concept of city branding in South Africa has gained great prominence in some of the country's biggest cities, such as Cape Town, but, for smaller cities such as Kimberley, the adoption of suitable city branding practices remains a challenge. The literature in Chapter 2 revealed that one of the main reasons cities are branding themselves today is because of the fierce competition amongst cities for economic prosperity, investments, talented individuals, residents and tourists (see 2.3).

Moreover, the literature showed that the practice of city branding is an attempt to enhance the strength of brands. It was concluded that a strong city brand is a result of successful city branding, which ultimately builds brand equity for a city. In Chapter 2 (see 2.8), it was noted that one of the guidelines of building a strong city brand is to promote the unique features and characteristics of the city. For cities to brand themselves successfully and to achieve set objectives, they need to adopt a city branding strategy (see 2.6 in Chapter 2). There are various strategies that can be employed in city branding. The literature advises that cities ask key questions pertaining to identity, outcomes, communication and coherence (see Table 2.3). City branding techniques (see 2.7) include graphic designing, marketing

communications, architecture and events, branded exports and online and mobile marketing. While the adoption of a city branding strategy is essential, the management of a city brand (see 2.5) is equally crucial to ensure brand success and improve the brand's strength.

One of the key defining characteristics of a strong brand is that it provides greater loyalty, which is reflected through the sense of pride and emotional attachment the stakeholders hold towards the city. Brand loyalty is one of the core components of brand equity and this is therefore important for building brand equity for Kimberley's city brand. The brand equity of Kimberley is determined by the value the stakeholders place on the city through measuring different components of brand equity. A number of elements of a city brand need to be taken into account when building brand equity for Kimberley. In Chapter 2 (see 2.14), these elements, are outlined.

City branding can be an effective method to enhance both the internal and external image of Kimberley. Brand image is one of the core constructs for building a city brand equity model and can therefore be used to enhance the Kimberley city brand. Internal image was particularly important for this study, which had an internal focus. There was greater emphasis placed on the visual image of the city by the participants, some describing it as a challenge and others highlighting the interventions and projects in place to enhance the visual image of the city. The brand image of the city is an important element for building brand equity as discussed in Chapter 2 (see 2.14).

The literature in Chapter 2 (see 2.15) revealed that the image of a city does not constitute the visual aspects only; it is both the internal and the external image of the city. A strong favourable brand image is crucial to the success of Kimberley in order to build its equity. The benefits of strong brand image and brand equity are evident in this regard.

While a strong brand image can be beneficial for the Kimberley city brand, awareness needs to be first step towards building brand equity. It was clear that there is a lack of knowledge among the community of Kimberley and other external communities on what the city is able to offer. After a review of various brand equity models, a conceptual model for city brand equity was proposed in Chapter 2 (see 2.17). The models reviewed were mainly developed

with a corporate branding focus. Although the principles of corporate branding are applicable to city branding, the researcher deemed it appropriate to propose a brand equity model (see Figure 2.13) which incorporates some of the elements of city branding. The proposed model was specifically developed for the Kimberley city brand, through using various methods and techniques, to enhance its image. To build an equitable city brand for Kimberley, the model also proposed brand positioning, brand identity and brand loyalty as key instrumental categories. The literature reviewed in Chapters 2 and 3 showed that there is not sufficient literature on building brand equity for cities, especially South African cities. It is therefore concluded that cities need to strengthen their brands in an effort to build brand equity owing to the fact that there are inadequate city brand equity models or frameworks that can be followed.

The next section reviews the second secondary objective, which expands further on the various marketing communications techniques that create brand awareness, and the role internal branding plays in those techniques.

6.3.2 Conclusions related to the second secondary RO

Give an overview of the importance of an internal focus in integrated marketing communication

The second secondary objective analysed the role internal branding, internal marketing and internal communications play in an internal integrated approach to marketing communications. The literature that was reviewed in relation to this objective was presented in Chapter 3 of the study. The chapter argued that IMC is an effective method of communication that ensures that consistent, impactful messages are sent to various stakeholders, and that internal branding, marketing and communications play an important role in establishing a strong city brand. These arguments were supported with the relevant literature on internal branding and IMC.

An integrated approach to marketing requires input and efforts from various parties in the

tourism sector. IMC is an effective approach to use for the creation of consistent and impactful messages to all the stakeholders of Kimberley. One main benefit of an integrated approach to marketing communication is the communication of messages consistently and its ability to create synergy. The notion of synergy indicated that the combination of various marketing communication techniques has a larger effect than the sum of the techniques combined. In Chapter 3, the benefits of IMC (see 3.2.3) were discussed and it was noted that, through the integration of various parts, a unified whole can be created, which results in synergy. This ensures that consistent messages, which are impactful and effective, can be communicated to various stakeholders. When all the stakeholders understand the vision and mission of the city and talk in “one voice”, they can collectively work towards enhancing the brand and reaching its marketing objectives. Fractured marketing communication and working in silos damages the strategic intent of integration and confuses customers with multiple unrelated messages. It can therefore be concluded that uniformity and synergy are imperative for a holistic approach when marketing brand Kimberley. The literature proved that a holistic approach to marketing is able to intensify the city branding strategy that produces effective results. Internal marketing and relationship marketing are important to achieve this holistic approach. Internal marketing is focused on the idea that any external marketing strategy first needs to be supported by an internal strategy. Leading from the discussion on internal marketing, it is apparent that marketing should not only be the responsibility of marketing departments, but of everyone else in the organisation. This means that marketing should not only be implemented from a managerial level but also on an operational level.

The success of the implementation of this internal marketing is, in part, dependent on solid relationship marketing and proper internal marketing is needed to achieve the objectives of relationship marketing. This proves that the two concepts are reciprocal as both contribute to the creation of impactful, consistent messages. While internal marketing is concerned with aligning employees to the organisational goals, customers who are the organisations’ most important stakeholders, are a key focus of relationship marketing. When the vision and mission of an organisation is properly positioned in the minds of the employees, they too are able to sell it to the consumers as they have more confidence when they have organisational

knowledge. This helps employees to be customer centric.

Knowledge of the Kimberley city brand is imperative for front line employees who deal directly with customers and other stakeholders as they represent the brand and therefore serve as brand ambassadors and act as brand customer touch points. Imparting key organisational knowledge empowers employees who are brand ambassadors. Without knowledge and empowerment, their brand promotional efforts will have no impact. Chapter 3 indicated that, through internal communications (see 3.4.1), the right messages can be communicated to employees by integrating various communication techniques. This will enable them to promote the brand. Moreover, it establishes trust between the employer and employees. Internal communications is an inside-out approach to communication activities. The idea herein is that all brand messages communicated externally should be communicated internally first to employees.

When employees are more knowledgeable about the organisation and included as part of the customer relationship marketing, they become motivated to satisfy the customers by meeting their needs and offering them the best service. Through promoting service quality, employees can play an important role in the tourism sector and contribute to building a strong city brand for Kimberley. Given this, it can be concluded that, to build a strong city brand, branding efforts need to be first coordinated internally as a strategic initiative for building brand equity.

Internal branding is an important building block of IMC. The literature discussed in Chapter 3 (see 3.4.3) shows that internal branding serves as the foundation of the IMC strategy. While most of the IMC techniques are employed for external messaging and communication, internal branding can support the external strategy of impact, uniformity and message consistency, which are the core objectives of IMC. It can therefore be concluded that internal branding bridges the gap between internal marketing communications and external marketing communications. A relationship of symbiosis therefore exists between internal branding and IMC. The literature revealed that the concept of internal branding is about effective brand communication to employees, convincing them of its relevance and worth and linking every job in the organisation successfully to the brand essence. Additionally, this brings many benefits for an organisation as staff morale is boosted, loyalty is built and

productivity increases. From a brand communications perspective, internal branding integrates all the brand aspects of the organisation. Through this, internal branding, as an additional technique of IMC, is a form of the strategic communication, which is able to create cohesiveness in a company, more specifically, in the city of Kimberley.

The next section of this chapter presents the last secondary objective of this study.

6.3.3 Conclusions regarding the third secondary RO

To investigate the knowledge of role players of the tourism industry in Kimberley about brand Kimberley and their experiences of brand Kimberley

The third secondary research objective entailed the examination of the perspectives of individuals working in the tourism industry in Kimberley. This objective addressed the research question: *How knowledgeable are the role players of the tourism industry in Kimberley about brand Kimberley and how do they experience brand Kimberley?*

To answer this question, empirical data was gathered from the responses to each of the four interview questions. From the data, it could be established that a lot of problems were experienced with the branding initiatives of the city of Kimberley that included: a lack of brand awareness; poor brand management; distorted internal brand image; a lack of internal collaborative partnerships; negative brand attitudes; a lack of communication; inadequate marketing communications and weak internal relationships. These were highlighted as challenges by the participants, despite the fact that they have strong brand associations with the city that has unique brand features and brand loyal internal stakeholders.

The conclusions relating to each interview question will now be discussed.

6.3.3.1 Conclusions regarding interview question 1

Do you experience Kimberley as a brand? YES/NO? Motivate

The first interview question pertained to experiences and sought to gain an understanding of whether the participants experienced Kimberley as a brand. The participants had *mixed opinions about Kimberley's status* as a brand, indicating that brand awareness was weak and that Kimberley was not viewed as a dominant brand.

Many of the participants indicated that they experienced Kimberley as a brand due to its rich cultural history of mining and diamonds. Consequently, this was a *strong brand asset* for the city. The first diamond in South Africa was discovered in Kimberley and this led to the mining of diamonds in the biggest man-made hole dubbed as the "Big Hole" which has grown to be one of the most popular tourist attractions in the city (see 1.1) attracting both domestic and international tourists. This is what placed the city on the global stage and it is what uniquely distinguishes the city from other cities in the country.

A strong sense of brand loyalty could be detected as the participants were tasked to enhance the brand and its image. The participants of the study had different associations with the Kimberley brand, which were informed by their experiences of Kimberley. The most striking brand association, which emerged from the findings, was Kimberley being the "*city of firsts*". A number of developments in the country first took place in Kimberley due to the industrialisation that came as a result of mining activities in the city. The association they had with the Kimberley brand in this regard was an element of pride. It can therefore be concluded that *internal stakeholders are brand loyal* and therefore protective of the Kimberley brand. The participants also emphasised that the local slang in the city is distinguishable from other cities. It was evident that Kimberley has *unique brand features*, which are essential for brands to be competitive. Although the local slang in the city was well-known by the participants as a unique feature of the city that could contribute to brand recognition, it was further concluded that there was a *lack of brand awareness* in the city as participants highlighted that the city was not visible enough. A brand cannot build equity if it is not a known brand. For cities to build strength and attain value, they need to be recognisable. The lack of awareness in the city indicated *poor management of the Kimberley brand* because the city was not

adequately promoted and marketed. The poor management system was also reflected in the *poor internal brand image* of the city.

From the responses supplied by the participants it was also concluded that no concerted and integrated efforts were made to promote Kimberley as a brand as no standard procedure was in place. The participants' experiences around Kimberley revealed the *lack of internal collaborative partnerships*, which led to the conclusion that relationship building efforts were inadequate. The different role players appreciated the essence of building relationships in the sector to brand Kimberley however, the *internal brand relationships in the city proved to be weak*.

Another factor that impeded the building of strong positive relationships that could advance efforts to build a strong city brand for Kimberley was a *lack of communication and engagement*. Communication is pivotal, not only for delivering messages, but it is the foundation of relationships. In order for internal stakeholders to market brand Kimberley successfully, an effective and efficient system of communication is required. Different structures were in place for the stakeholders, such as meetings, fora, and associations for the various stakeholders to establish mutually beneficial relationships however, these were not always effective. The role players understood the concepts of relationship marketing and management, but not that of purposeful dialogue, as most of the gatherings were futile based on the responses from the participants.

From the responses given by the participants to interview question 1, it can be ascertained that Kimberley, as a brand, is fragmented. Although it is recognised as a brand, it is not being managed or operated the way a successful brand should be managed. It can therefore be surmised that participants' experiences of the brand indicate that there are many challenges and that attention should be paid to basic branding and communication principles and their integration into the process of branding the city.

6.3.3.2 Conclusions regarding interview question 2

How do you feel about brand Kimberley?

The second interview question set out to establish how brand Kimberley made participants feel. From the emotions recorded by the participants, it became clear that negative emotions were associated with the brand and that attention needs to be paid to this in order to develop Kimberley into a well-established brand. Feelings of disappointment, disheartenment, depression, anger and shame were recorded, amongst others. This indicated the *negative brand attitudes* that the participants had towards the city. The participants' disappointment with the brand emanated from issues and challenges which, they believed, were weakening the brand, such as the city's cleanliness and poor management by those responsible for managing the city. The deterioration of the Kimberley city brand is a reflection of the structural and managerial problems in the city. The city's history of colonialism is a painful subject for some of the participants. These participants were *enraged by the city's history* because, despite the political progression in the country, the city of Kimberley has not transformed to represent a democratic South Africa. They hailed Big Hole, as the city's main tourist attraction, but also felt it was over-advertised. Other participants felt it reminds them of the past therefore they do not celebrate the Big Hole.

Based on the above, it can be concluded that the marketing and communication efforts were inadequate and that the internal role players who are supposed to be marketing the city and enhancing the brand felt that their efforts were futile which led them to feel *disheartened towards the marketing and communications efforts* in the city. It can also be concluded that the marketing and communications efforts were not integrated in Kimberley.

The inadequate marketing communication efforts are also a result of the lack of brand identity and common vision. The stakeholders indicated that there was no clear consensus on what the Kimberley brand is. To achieve a common vision, stakeholders need to have a common voice. Unfortunately, this was not the case for Kimberley as *stakeholders felt that they were*

not operating as a unified system. City brands have multiple stakeholders who are key to the success of the brand. These stakeholders need to be positive to enable them to make meaningful contributions to the brand and to execute their roles in elevating the Kimberley with pride.

From the emotions expressed by the participants, it could be concluded that there is frustration in the city around the Kimberley brand. These pessimistic feelings were evoked from their dissatisfaction with how the brand is managed. It was clear that the marketing communications efforts in the city disappointed the participants. This was an indication that the marketing of the city was poor, ineffective and lacked collaboration.

6.3.3.3 Conclusions regarding interview question 3

What should be done to improve brand Kimberley?

The third interview question addressed the participants' beliefs on what should be done to improve the Kimberley city brand in light of the challenges already highlighted. This question attempted to gain insights from the participants on feasible solutions to remedy the problems that they believed were preventing the Kimberley city brand from being a strong and recognised brand.

It was concluded that a number of issues needed to be addressed first in an effort to improve the Kimberley brand. Although there were enough marketable elements to Kimberley that could develop it into a strong brand, these assets were not utilised to their full potential.

It is imperative that serious attention be paid to *effective brand awareness initiatives* to ensure that people know about the Kimberley brand and understand what the brand entails and stands for. The need for *integrated efforts* to develop the Kimberley city brand and thus produce synergy was also stressed. A *poor visual brand image* prevailed due to dilapidating infrastructure and the lack of cleanliness. This could pose a health risk to residents and other visitors. The city's visual image needs to be improved by *cleaning the city* and *upgrading its*

infrastructure. Physical and visual appeal is a critical element in the branding of cities that contributes to their competitive advantage. An appealing city is able to attract visitors, investors and residents to the city. It is therefore important for the infrastructure, transport system, schools and hospitals to be in a good condition for the city to be highly competitive. It was concluded that the “the city that sparkles” was gloomy and not radiant as it should be. In an effort to restore the “sparkle” and the image, these issues of infrastructure and cleanliness needed attention. These were seen to be detrimental to the establishment of a strong city brand and were tainting the tourism sector of the city. The poor aesthetics in the city indicated that there was inadequate maintenance of the city.

The need for proper signage and updated marketing collateral was emphasised. Given this, it seemed that the cognitive and affective aspects of brand images, which are equally important to the visual aspect of a brand image, were not a focus area. These were also important to create favourable brand associations for the stakeholders.

As noted previously, Kimberley is known as a historical destination because the city has a rich history and heritage. The participants suggested that the city should *capitalise on its rich heritage and culture* to improve the brand. A city’s culture and heritage contribute to its uniqueness and can be used to brand and market the city. The participants viewed the culture and heritage of the city as important assets, which could be utilised to promote the city. They believed that these two elements were under-utilised and not adequately publicised to entice the historical tourist and to educate the residents about the history of the city.

While heritage and history needed to gain more prominence in the city’s’ branding strategies and efforts, the participants strongly believed that *improving service delivery* in the city would improve the Kimberley brand. The tourism sector is a services based sector and its core mandate is to sell positive experiences to clients. Negative experiences of services rendered to clients and customers in Kimberley automatically taint the city’s brand. As key stakeholders in the tourism sector of Kimberley, they recognised the pivotal role quality services play in how the city is presented and how it is branded.

Earlier in this chapter, it was discussed that some of the participants did not experience

Kimberley as a brand because they believed it was not marketed as such and was not representative of their own understanding of brands and branding. It could be concluded that the marketing and branding initiatives in the city were not effective and needed improvement. A different, innovative approach is required. Therefore, it is important for the city to *conduct brand research* to elicit the views of other internal community members, the local residents, on what they think of the brand and how the brand can be improved. One commonality that emerged, based on the responses from the participants, was that most of the marketing communication efforts were directed at external audiences as Kimberley and its offerings were still unknown to some internal stakeholders such as the residents. The findings indicated that there were no real efforts or strategies to create awareness of the brand internally aside from educational cleaning campaigns. *Effective brand awareness initiatives* were essential in building knowledge about the Kimberley brand. Moreover, before creating awareness externally, it needed to be done internally first. This can assist with an internal integrated approach to marketing communications for branding Kimberley. The lack of internal branding and internal marketing initiatives are a result of poor strategic intent. Imparting knowledge to employees in the city and developing their skills is imperative to ensure they promote the brand to clients and customers in the city.

Employees are pivotal to the operational efficiency of any organisation. Aligning employees within the tourism sector of Kimberley to the vision and mission of the city across various spectrums is integral in this respect. The essence of internal branding, as one of the internal marketing communication techniques, can communicate the brand vision and mission of the city. The benefits of this are able to propel the city's overall vision successfully. Within the city of Kimberley and its tourism sector, the practice of internal branding was not adequately utilised. Employees are at the forefront of its operations and therefore need to be empowered, motivated and knowledgeable to deliver good services to guests. When employees are knowledgeable, they are able to disseminate what they offer or represent more confidently to other stakeholders.

It could also be concluded that the need for *heightened internal branding and marketing initiatives*, together with the enhanced *flow and quality of internal communications*, could

improve the Kimberley brand. The importance of communicating with all stakeholders, more specifically with different groups of stakeholders, was also highlighted. Communication with various stakeholders in the sector is pivotal, and although technology has revolutionised the way in which people communicate with each other, the value of face-to-face interpersonal communication should not be underestimated and remains essential in any communication strategy.

Given the lack of awareness around the Kimberley brand, the participants suggested a *transformation and upgrade of the Kimberley brand* to improve the city's image and its positioning to undo the historical disparities of the city through a fresh brand. This can be done through an integrated approach to marketing communications. The proposal came in light of the branding of Kimberley as "colonial". Democracy in South Africa calls for transformation of societies in the country to ensure that they are fully representative of all the people who live there. The Kimberley brand has not yet evolved to entice various target audiences. Kimberley is branded around the "Big Hole", whereas the many other attractions in Kimberley, as a result, do not feature prominently on marketing collateral. Target audiences were reached through "archaic" branding initiatives. IMC was not employed in the city to heighten marketing initiatives.

Various methods are used to promote the Kimberley brand by the various tourism entities, institutions and offerings. Although different IMC techniques are employed by the stakeholders, these are not integrated to create synergy and uniformity in messaging. This displays a lack of vision in the branding of Kimberley. The adoption of IMC for branding Kimberley requires a different approach to marketing and the need for new forms of media to be incorporated in the branding strategy.

One of the problems that became apparent was the fact that the role players were promoting Kimberley from the perspectives of their entities and therefore only using the IMC techniques relevant and functional within those entities. The focus was on marketing their entities first and then Kimberley as a city. This indicated that there was no holistic approach to marketing Kimberley and no brand coordination in its messages. Creating coordinated messages is one of the functions of IMC. It was suggested that Kimberley *gets a brand coordinator* who will

ensure that consistent messages are sent and that messages are centralised to create an impact.

Aside from a lack of internal awareness that was pointed out by the participants, there was also a lack of integration amongst the role players and their marketing efforts, even though they met on a regular basis. This hampered the creation of synergy discussed earlier. Essentially, the lack of integration and interrelatedness in the tourism system of Kimberley indicated that it was not communicating in “one common voice” which is what synergy seeks to achieve. Synergy for brand Kimberley can be created when the different parts and stakeholders come together and unite for greater impact.

The concept of synergy relates to the General Systems Theory, which was adopted as the Grand Theory of this study. This theory, as discussed in Chapter 1 (see 1.6.1), advocates for systems to be seen as an integrated whole where all the different parts of the system are interrelated. This theory needs to be applied to the tourism sector of Kimberley, so that everyone in the sector has a common vocabulary when it comes to their communication efforts (Littlejohn & Foss 2008).

Promoting Kimberley through events was suggested as one of the many ways to improve the Kimberley brand. The city branding hexagon presented in Chapter 2 (see Figure 2.1), highlighted this. As noted earlier, Kimberley is a historical destination but there are minimal activities in the city to keep tourists, visitors and locals entertained. Promoting the city through events will lead to momentum and prominence. The literature in Chapter 2 (see 2.4) reveals that events are one of the many city branding techniques and it is therefore essential to incorporate events as part of Kimberley’s city branding strategy.

Above everything else that is required to improve the Kimberley city brand, the city’s leaders need to facilitate the implementation of plans. One participant noted that *managers within the city needed to display their leadership skills* by being visible and more involved. A city, like any other brand, requires strong leaders who can govern the city effectively and achieve its set objectives.

6.3.3.4 Conclusions regarding interview question 4

What contribution can a strong city brand make to add value to Kimberley?

All the participants acknowledged the number of challenges facing the city and appreciated the value of marketing Kimberley in an effort to make it a strong brand. The last interview question sought to establish what value a strong a city brand could add to Kimberley. In the city branding literature in Chapter 2 (see 2.9), the benefits of a strong city brand were discussed. The chapter argued that a strong city brand can build brand equity for the city. The following conclusions were drawn with regards to the contribution a strong city brand could make to add value to Kimberley.

A strong city brand is able to withstand marketplace challenges and branding crises, and it is effective in its marketing efforts. The benefits of a strong city brand are also displayed in the city's *economic growth and development*. Given the opinions expressed by the participants, it can be concluded that a strong city brand is able to make the city of Kimberley economically stable as it is able to attract capital and money into the city through visitor expenditure and investments.

Subsequently, investments into the city means an increase of business opportunities and industries, which all require human capital and, as result, *employment is created* for the local community of Kimberley. It is therefore concluded that a strong city brand can have a ripple effect on the economy of Kimberley.

This ultimately leads to *infrastructure development* in the city that is suitable for a strong city brand. World-class cities use infrastructure as part of their city branding strategies to be highly competitive. A strong city brand can maintain and upgrade its infrastructure as investments are made into the city.

Strong brands are said to have high marketing communication effectiveness. For Kimberley in particular, the value that a strong brand can add for the city is *increased publicity both*

locally and internationally. From the opinions expressed by the participants, it became clear that Kimberley could benefit if it were a strong brand. One such benefit is the creation of brand awareness, which is already a challenge for the city. A strong city brand will generate awareness for itself. With an economic injection into city, an upgrade in infrastructure and employment for the local community of Kimberley, *the quality of life in the city will improve.* This will be the result of better services, improved transport systems and road conditions, and improved facilities. Given the above, it is evident that a strong city brand will yield *positive brand associations* for Kimberley and bring about renewed energy for the city. It will serve as a beacon of hope that effectively tackles socio-economic challenges in the city.

As key role players in the tourism sector of Kimberley, the participants also noted the contributions they and other internal stakeholders could make to add value to the Kimberley city brand. These included: *increasing resources; using skills and experience to add value; building strategic partnerships with the private sector; building social cohesion; having open and transparent communication; contributing through good reputation and skills development; restoring and building brand loyalty; sharing a common vision; improving basic services in the city; establishing an internal culture; and uplifting the community of Kimberley.* These contributions showed that the internal stakeholders were committed to the elevation of the Kimberley brand and that they all want Kimberley to be a competitive city brand.

6.4 RECOMMENDED GUIDELINES FOR AN INTERNAL IMC APPROACH IN THE TOURISM SECTOR OF KIMBERLEY TO IMPROVE BRAND KIMBERLEY

Against the backdrop of the empirical results obtained and the literature review that was executed, the following guidelines are recommended to improve the city of Kimberley's brand through an internal IMC approach in the tourism sector of Kimberley.

It was evident from the findings of the study that brand Kimberley was found lacking and that attention to the different aspects of an integrated IMC approach to city branding was not being given. The recommendations are made based on the "4 p's" of city brand management (see 2.5 in Chapter 2), namely, place, processes, people and partnerships plus IMC and city branding principles. Additional recommendations will be suggested based on some of the

elements of the city brand hexagon (see figure 2.1). The recommended guidelines based on both the city brand management model and city brand hexagon, aim to provide solutions to identified internal challenges in the tourism sector of Kimberley, highlighted in the previous chapter.

6.4.1 Recommendations related to the primary research objective

The recommended guidelines are based on the key findings of the study, discussed under the four elements of the city brand management model. These guidelines were informed by the literature discussed in the previous chapters.

IDENTIFIED ISSUE (Positive and/or negative)	RECOMMENDATION
<p>PLACE: Physical and non-spatial elements, i.e tangible and intangible attributes, contribute to the quality of a place and how it is perceived. In light of identified issues, the following guidelines are recommended:</p>	
<p>Internal brand positioning challenges</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The findings revealed a lack of clear consensus from the internal role players of the tourism sector of Kimberley on how the city needed to be positioned. City branding is essential to position the city in the minds of stakeholders, particularly internal stakeholders. It is recommended for Kimberley to develop an internal positioning strategy: Establish a clear positioning for the city through the development of an identity that addresses questions: <i>Who are we? What do we want to be? How do we want to be known?</i> • The vision and mission of the city should be clearly defined to ensure everyone works towards a common goal. A solid brand identity for Kimberley should comprise its vision, mission, brand personality, an identifiable slogan and logo. It is also recommended that internal city brand values should be developed to lead governance and practises in the city.
<p>Poor internal brand image</p>	<p>Enhance internal image of the city through:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Maintaining and upgrading the infrastructure in the city • Improving quality of physical features of the city as well keeping the city clean.

<p>Unique brand features</p> <p>Negative brand attitudes amongst internal stakeholders</p>	<p>Differentiate the brand by utilising all unique elements related to the city to establish competitive advantage.</p> <p>Manage brand perceptions through harnessing positive brand attitudes from internal and external stakeholders.</p> <p>Brand and marketing strategies should appeal to emotions of stakeholders to develop a positive attitude towards the brand.</p> <p>Curb negative perceptions through a well-defined reputation management strategy.</p>
<p>PROCESSES: Various processes are followed to advance brands. Processes entail all systems in place to drive economic development. With regards to process, the following is recommended:</p>	
<p>Poor brand management</p> <p>Ineffective and non-integrated marketing communications</p> <p>“Archaic” and uninspiring branding”</p> <p>Lack of internal communication and engagement</p>	<p>Visionary leadership should be implemented by city brand leaders and authorities to propel the vision of the city.</p> <p>Branding activities need to be coordinated internally first, within the city and amongst all stakeholders before targeting external audiences.</p> <p>Internal branding need to be integrated as part of the brand management strategy for the city.</p> <p>Adopt an internal integrated marketing communication approach to build synergy, achieve brand coordination and message consistency. IMC and internal marketing initiatives should be integrated to produce a synergistic effect.</p> <p>Branding research should be conducted to inspire innovative and inclusive ways to rebrand Kimberley into a fresh brand.</p> <p>Communication in the city should be two-way, to create purposeful dialogue.</p> <p>Stakeholders need to communicate strategically for internal integration.</p> <p>Communication with stakeholders should seek to inform, clarify and build knowledge.</p> <p>Internal communications in the city of Kimberley should be enhanced to support and drive external communications.</p>

<p>Lack of consultation</p> <p>Lack of brand awareness</p>	<p>Participatory communication needs to be practised to elicit views of others, especially those of all stakeholders in the city as Kimberley is their immediate community.</p> <p>IMC and internal branding should be used concomitantly to create brand awareness of the city brand to both internal and external audiences. Branding targeted at locals needs to be enhanced to ensure they understand the city’s brand values, vision and mission.</p> <p>Create visibility for Kimberley and its tourism sector through use of technology and digital marketing.</p> <p>Build brand knowledge through brand communications and elevation of positive inspiring stories.</p> <p>Create city brand awareness through celebration and promotion of city’s culture, history and key events.</p> <p>Stakeholders should be aligned to the brand vision of the city so the understand the brand and promote it accordingly.</p>
<p>PEOPLE: People are the economic drivers of a city. The following recommendations are made in this respect:</p>	
<p>Poor service delivery in the city</p> <p>Internal stakeholders are brand loyal</p>	<p>Empower and motivate employees in the sector to strive for service excellence through:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Building knowledge and proficiency of employees in internal tourism sector • Customer service training to enhance skills essential in delivering quality services <p>Utilise internal branding and internal marketing practices to motivate staff/residents/internal stakeholders by boosting their morale.</p> <p>Empower employees to be productive and efficient to contribute to improved quality of life in the city through their services.</p> <p>Enhance brand loyalty for the Kimberley city brand by instilling city pride in all stakeholders, including the local community, by making them understand the brand values and form solid relationships by continuously communicating with them.</p>

<p>Stakeholders not operating as a system</p> <p>No “pulse” – Lack of event based activities</p> <p>Internal culture lacking</p>	<p>Stakeholders in the city need to commit towards a system based approach in their strategic relationships.</p> <p>Local entrepreneurs should make use of the existing gap in entertainment in the city to develop regular event based activities and in turn contribute to the economic development in the city.</p> <p>Cultivate an internal culture within the city for standardisation of services and reception in the city.</p> <p>A well-defined internal culture should be established to build a strong community base with internal audiences.</p>
<p>PARTNERSHIPS: Partnerships are essential in the implementation of a city branding strategy and achieving targeted goals. In terms of partnerships it is recommended:</p>	
<p>Lack of internal collaborative partnerships</p> <p>Weak internal brand relationships</p>	<p>Foster mutually beneficial and strategic partnerships to mobilise resources and create impact.</p> <p>Stakeholders should function as a system to address issues of operational silos system and to create interrelatedness in the system, spurring interactivity amongst the role players.</p> <p>Constant engagements through project collaborations to strengthen relationships over time.</p> <p>Employ relationship marketing to strengthen internal relationships and build brand through continued communication.</p>

The next section discusses the limitations the researcher experienced during the study’s research process.

6.5 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

The concept of city branding has gained popularity owing to its advantages for cities and it continues to be explored to add value to these brands. Cities, like corporate brands, are complex due to their multiple stakeholder groups. The city of Kimberley has a number of

stakeholders who contribute to the city in various ways and who have a vested interest in the city as residents, investors, entrepreneurs and employees. This study only focused on a certain sector of Kimberley, the tourism industry.

Much of the city branding literature focuses on urban areas in the city but there is little focus on townships and previously disadvantaged communities. This study looked at the city of Kimberley from a holistic viewpoint but did not focus on all segments of the city. Townships tourism is on the rise in South Africa and future studies could focus on this important growing segment, which does not receive much attention in academic literature.

6.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

As mentioned above, cities have multiple stakeholder groups. The data provided by the participants indicated that more voices need to be heard to understand the branding landscape of Kimberley. Future research can include other stakeholder groups, such as tourists, residents and investors from various sectors including education, sports and the arts.

This study opened new areas of research, which could be further explored such as the relationships between city branding, urban governance and cultural branding. The Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR), characterised by digital technologies, is changing the world as robotics and artificial intelligence take over. It is a global trend, which integrates people and technology. With urbanisation and industrialisation, people are moving into cities in a quest to improve their lives. It is anticipated that modern technologies will revolutionise the way people work within the marketing context and the way marketers reach and communicate with their audiences. As such, it is recommended that further studies explore how technology can be strategically used to brand cities of the future and how to package experiences through robotics and artificial intelligence.

In the study, the historical disparities of the city of Kimberley were highlighted with many participants indicating the need for a transformed brand, which is representative of the new democracy and is inclusive of all the people of Kimberley. It is therefore recommended that future research on city branding studies how to decolonise city brands and to create inclusive city branding strategies.

6.7 VALUE OF THE STUDY

This study will contribute to the body of knowledge of city branding by establishing city branding guidelines and strategies through an internal focus. The study will also contribute to debates, discourses and discussions of place branding and destination branding and could be used to identify gaps in literature and thus stimulate discussions for future research.

The study contributes to the body of knowledge of marketing communications and tourism in South African cities. Most importantly, the research findings, the proposed city brand equity model in Chapter 2 (see Figure 2.13) and the guidelines provided in the study will provide insight and assistance to marketing, urban governance and all relevant authorities in the city of Kimberley on how to improve the Kimberley brand.

REFERENCES

- Aaker, D. A. (1991). *Managing brand equity. Capitalizing on the value of a brand name*. New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Aaker, D. A. (1992). The value of brand equity. *Journal of Business Strategy*, 13(4), 27–32.
- Aaker, D. A. (1996). *Building strong brands*. New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Aaker, D. A. (1998). *Managing brand equity*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Aaker, D. A. (2008). *Strategic market management*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Aaker, D.A. (2014). *Aaker on branding: 20 principles that drive success*. New York, NY: Morgan James Publishing.
- Aaker, D. A., & Joachimsthaler, E. (2009). *Brand leadership*. New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Al-Hawary, S. I., Al-Qudah, A. K., Abutayeh, M. P., Abutayeh, M. S. & Al-Zyadat, D. Y. (2013). The Impact of Internal Marketing on Employee's Job Satisfaction of Commercial Banks in Jordan. *Interdisciplinary Journal Of Contemporary Research In Business*, 4(9), 818-826.
- Allan, M. (2014). The benefits of city and regional destination branding - attracting people, investment & airlines. [PowerPoint Presentation]. Delivered at European Regional Airports conference in Madrid. 13-14 February 2014. Retrieved 20.05.2017 from http://www.placematters.co/pdf/OsloRegionPresentation_FINAL_TheBenefitsofCityandRegionalDestinationBranding_030614_200514_reduced.pdf
- Andersson, M., Ekman, P. (2009). Ambassador networks and place branding. *Journal of Place Management and Development*, 2, 41-51.
- Anholt, S. (1998). Nation brands of the twenty-first century. *The Journal of Brand Management*, 5(6), 395–406.

- Anholt, S. (2002). Foreword. Introduction. *Brand Management*, 9(4-5), 229 –239.
- Anholt S. (2006). The Anholt-GMI city brands index: How the world sees the world's cities. *Place Branding*, 2, 18–31.
- Anholt, S. (2006). Branding places and nations. In R. Clifton & J. Simons (Eds.), *Brands and branding*. London, UK: Profile Books Ltd, pp. 213-226.
- Anholt, S. (2007). *Competitive identity: The new brand management for nations, cities and regions*. London, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Anholt, S. (2008). Editorial. Place branding, is it branding or not? *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, 4, 1-6.
- Arshed, N., & Danson, K. (2015). The literature review. In R. MacIntosh, K. O’Gorman (Eds.), *Research Methods for Business and Management: A Guide to Writing Your Dissertation* (2nd ed.). (Global Management Series). 31 – 41. Oxford, UK: Goodfellow Publishers.
- Ashworth, G. J., & Kavaratzis, M. (2007). Beyond the logo: Brand management for cities. *Journal of Brand Management*, 16(8), 520-531.
- Attri, R., Urkud, A. M., & Pahwa, M. S. (2011). Measuring public sector oil marketing companies brand awareness. *Journal of Brand Management*, 3(4), 7-24.
- Azevedo, A. (2004). Cities as brands: The role of communication strategy in place marketing. *Context, Livro de Actas do 4º SOPCOM*, 1777-1786.
- Babbie, E. & Mouton, J. 2001. *The practice of social research*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Babin, B. J. & Zikmund, W. G. (2016). *Essentials of marketing research*, (6th ed.). Canada: Cengage Learning.
- Baker, B. (2007). *Destination branding for small cities: The essentials for successful place*

- branding*, Creative Leaps Books. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Son.
- Baker, B. (2012). *Destination branding for small cities: The essentials for successful place branding*, (2nd ed.). Creative Leaps Books. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Son.
- Baker, M. J. (2008). Marketing mix. In M. J. Baker & S. Hart, (Eds.), *The marketing book*. (6th ed.). Oxford, UK: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Balmer, J. M. T. & Gray, E. R. (2003). Corporate brands: What are they? What of them? *European Journal of Marketing*, 37(7/8), 972–97.
- Balmer, J. M. T., & Greyser, S. A. (2006). Corporate marketing: Integrating corporate identity, corporate branding, corporate communications, corporate image and corporate reputation, *European Journal of Marketing*, 40(7-8), 730-741.
- Baloglu, S., & Uysal, M. (1996). Market segments of push and pull motivations: A canonical correlation approach. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 3(8), 32-38.
- Basu, K., & Palazzo, G. (2008). Corporate social responsibility: A process model of sensemaking. *Academy of Management Review*, 33, 122-136.
- Batey, M. (2008). *Brand Meaning*. New-York: Routledge.
- Beangstrom, P. (2017). Tram nightmare. Diamond Fields Advertiser. 24 August 2017.
Retrieved 19 May 2018 from <https://www.dfa.co.za/news/tram-nightmare/>
- Belch, M. A. & Belch, G. E. (1998). *Introduction to advertising and promotion: An integrated marketing perspective*. Irwin: McGraw-Hill.
- Belch, G. E., & Belch, M. A. (2012). *Advertising and promotion an integrated marketing communications perspective*. (9th ed.). Boston, MA: McGraw Hill Higher Education.
- Bergstrom, A., Blumenthal, D., & Crothers, S. (2002). Why internal branding matters: The case of Saab. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 5(2/3), 133-142.

- Berndt, A., & Tait, M. (2012). *Relationship marketing and customer relationship management*. Cape Town: Juta.
- Bidgoli, S. J., Aran., A. A. S., & Bidgoli, F. O. (2014). City branding position and challenges. *Indian Journal of Fundamental and Applied Life Sciences*, 4, 166-173.
- Biggam, J. (2015). *Succeeding with your Master's dissertation : A step-by-step handbook*. (3rd ed.). Berkshire, England: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Blackett, T. (2009). What is a brand? In R. Clifton, S. Ahmed et al., *Brands and Branding*. The Economist. New York, NY: Bloomberg Press, 13-26.
- Blain, C., Levy, S. E., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (2005). Destination branding: Insights and practices from destination management organizations. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43(4), 328-338.
- Bless, C., Higson-Smith, C., & Kagee, A. (2006). *Fundamentals of social research methods: An African perspective*. (4th ed.). Cape Town: Juta.
- Bothma, M. (2015). A city branding framework for selected cities in the North West Province. Unpublished Master's Dissertation. North-West University. Potchefstroom, South Africa.
- Boyatzis, R. E. (1998). *Thematic analysis and code development: Transforming qualitative information*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage Publications.
- Boyce, C., & Neale, P. (2006). Conducting in-depth interviews: A guide for designing and conducting in-depth Interviews for evaluation input. *Pathfinder International Tool Series Monitoring and Evaluation*, 2, 1-16.
- Brandt, M., & Johnson, G. (1997). *Power branding™: Building technology brands for competitive advantage*. International Data Group. San Francisco, CA: ProBrand.
- Brandt, C., & Mortanges, C. P. (2011). City branding: A brand concept map analysis of a university town. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, 7, 50-63.

- Buil, I., Martínez, E., & De Chernatony, L. (2013). The influence of brand equity on consumer responses. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 30, 62-74.
- Burgess, E. (1982). The state of economic development in South Carolina. *Business and Economic Review*, 29, 5-15.
- Burmann, C. & Zeplin, S. J. (2005). Building brand commitment: A behavioural approach to internal brand management. *Journal of Brand Management*, 12(4), 279–300.
- Burmann, C., Zeplin, S., & Riley, N. (2009). Key determinants of internal brand management success: An exploratory empirical analysis, *Brand Management*, 16(4), 264-284.
- Buzz South Africa. (2018). Top 20 Largest Cities and Towns in South Africa. Retrieved 19.05.2018 from <https://buzzsouthafrica.com/largest-cities-south-africa/>
- Carter N., Bryant-Lukosius, D., DiCenso, A., Blythe, J., & Neville A. J. (2014). The use of triangulation in qualitative research. *Oncology Nursing Forum*, 41, 545-547.
- Cheng, P. L. K., & Taylor, J. L. (2007). Branding of former Soviet cities: The case of Almaty. *The ICFAI Journal of Brand Management*, IV(4).
- Churchill, J. A., & Iacobucci, D. (2009). *Marketing research: Methodological foundations*. (10th ed.). Boston, MA: Cengage Learning.
- City of Johannesburg. (2002). Joburg gains a brand. 6 June 2002. Retrieved 27.05.2017 from https://joburg.org.za/index.php?option=com_content&task=view&id=407&Itemid=52
- Cohen, J. & Basu, K. (1987). Alternative models of categorization: Toward a contingent processing framework. *Journal of Consumer Research*. 13(4), 455-472.
- Collis, J., & Hussey, R. (2009). *Business research: A practical guide for undergraduate and postgraduate students*. (3rd ed.). London, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Conradie, E., Roberts-Lombard, M., & Klopper, H. B. (2014). Brand awareness in the services sector influenced by eight internal marketing elements. *Journal of Global Business and*

Technology, 10(1), 25-37.

Ćoric, D. S., & Vokić, N. P. (2009). The Roles of Internal Communications, Human Resource Management and Marketing Concepts in Determining Holistic Internal Marketing Philosophy. *Zagreb International Review of Economics & Business, 12(2), 87-105.*

Correia, A., Oliveira, N., & Silva, F. (2009). Bridging perceived destination image and market segmentation - an application to golf tourism. *European Journal of Tourism Research, 2, 41-69.*

Creswell, J. W. (2007) *Qualitative inquiry & research design, choosing among five approaches.* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Inc.

Creswell, J. W. (2009) *Research design, qualitative, quantitative and mixed method approaches.* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Inc.

Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P. S. (2006). *Business research methods.* Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill.

Crompton, J. (1979). Motivations of pleasure vacations. *Annals of Tourism Research, 6(4), 408-424.*

Cronin, P., Ryan, F., & Coughlan, M. (2008). Undertaking a literature review: A step-by-step approach. *British Journal of Nursing, 17, 38-43.*

Crowell, S. (2013). *Normativity and phenomenology in Husserl and Heidegger.* New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Dawson, C. (2002). *Practical research methods: A user-friendly guide to mastering research techniques and projects.* Oxford, UK: How To Books.

De Chernatony, L. (1993). Categorising brands: Evolutionary processes underpinned by two key dimensions. *Journal of Marketing Management, 9(2), 173-188.*

De Chernatony, L. (1999). Brand management through narrowing the gap between brand

- identity and brand reputation. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 15, 157-179.
- De Lange, L. (2015). Leadership communication and Integrated Communication. In Mulder, D. & Nieman-Struweg, I. (eds.), *Strategic Integrated Communication*. Van Schaik. Pretoria: 135 -159.
- Dolphin, R.R. (2005). Internal Communications: Today's Strategic Imperative. *Journal of Marketing Communications*, 11(3), 171-190.
- Dinnie, K. (2011). *City branding: Theory and cases*. Tokyo: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Dissanayake, D. M. N. S. W. (2012). Integrated communications, integrated marketing communications and corporate reputation: Evidences from Dell Computer Operations. *Journal of Arts, Science and Commerce*, 3(3), 26-33.
- Doorley, J., & Gracia, H. F. (2007). *Reputation management. The key to successful public relations and corporate communication*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Doyle, P. (1989) Building successful brands: The strategic options. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 5, 76-77.
- Dreyer, A. (2010). Tourist perceptions of the Klein Karoo National Arts Festival's corporate brand. Honours Research Report. North-West University. Potchefstroom. South Africa.
- Duckham, B. C., & Schreiber, J. C. (2016). Bridging worldviews through phenomenology. *Social Work & Christianity*, 43(4), 55-67.
- Dülgeroğlu, I., & Taşkın, Ç. (2015). Internal marketing in public service sector and its effect on job satisfaction. *Electronic Journal of Vocational Colleges*, 5(2), 1-6.
- Duncan, T., & Moriarty, S. (1997). *Driving brand value: Using integrated marketing to manage profitable stakeholder relationships*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Egan, J. (2015). *Marketing communications*. (2nd ed.). London, UK: Sage Publications.
- Elliot, R., & Percy, L. (2007). *Strategic brand management*. New York, NY: Oxford University

Press.

Eshuis, J., & Edwards, A. (2013). Branding the city: The democratic Legitimacy of a new mode of governance. *Urban Studies*, 50(5), 1066-1082.

Eshuis, J., & Klijn, E. (2012). *Branding in governance and public management*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Evans, G. (2003). Hard-branding the cultural city: From Prado to Prada. *International Journal of Urban and Regional Research*, 27(2), 417-440.

Faircloth, J. B., Capella, L. M., & Alford, B. L. (2001). The effect of brand attitude and brand image on brand equity. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 9(3), 61-75.

Fan, Y. (2006). Nation branding: What is being branded? *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 12, 5-14.

Farquhar, P. (1989). Managing brand equity. *Advertising research*, 30(4), 7-11.

Feldwick, P. (1991). Defining a brand. In D. Cowley, (Ed.) *Understanding Brands*. London, UK: Kogan Page.

Feldwick, P. (2002). *What is brand equity anyway, and how do you measure it?* World Advertising Research Centre. Norwick.

Fernández-Cavia, J., & Lopez, M. (2013). Communication, destination brands and mobile applications. *Comunicacion y Sociedad*, 26(2), 95-113.

Fill, C., & Turbull, S. (2016). *Marketing communications: Discovery, creation and conversations*. (7th ed.). Edinburgh, UK: Pearson.

Finney, S., & Scherrebeck-Hansen, M. (2010). Internal marketing as a change management tool: A case study in re-branding. *Journal of Marketing Communications*, 16(5), 325-344.

Florian, B. (2002). The city as a brand: Orchestrating a unique experience. In T. Hauben, M.

- Vermeulen & V. Patteeuw, *City branding: Image building and building images*. Rotterdam: NAI Uitgevers.
- Florida, R. 2002. *The rise of the creative class: And how it's transforming work, leisure, community and everyday life*. New York, NY: Basic Books.
- Florida, R. (2003). Cities and the creative class. *City & Community*, 2, 3-19.
- Fong Ng, P., Butt, M. M., & Khong, K. W. (2013). The Antecedents of Green Brand Equity: An Integrated Approach. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 121, 203-215.
- Foster, C., Punjaisri, K., & Cheng, R. (2010). Exploring the relationship between corporate, internal and employer branding. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 19(6), 401-409
- Freire, J. R. (2009). 'Local People' a critical dimension for place brands. *Journal of Brand Management*, 16(7), 420-438.
- Friesen, N., Henriksson, C., & Saevi, T. (2012). *Hermeneutic Phenomenology in Education Method and Practice*. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.
- Fyall, A., & Garrod, B. (2005). *Aspects of tourism marketing: A collaborative approach*. Trowbridge, Wiltshire, UK: Cromwell Press.
- Gaggiotti, H., Cheng, P., & Yunak, O. (2008). City brand management (CBM): The case of Kazakhstan. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, 4(2), 115-123.
- Gammack, J. G., & Donald, S. (2007). *Tourism and the branded city: Film and identity on the Pacific Rim*. Farnham, UK: Ashgate Publishing Limited.
- Giorgi, A. (2008). Difficulties encountered in the application of the phenomenological method in the social sciences. *Indo-Pacific Journal of Phenomenology*, 8, 1-9.
- Govender, P. P. (2006). Marketing branding in Pietermaritzburg: An exploratory evaluation of the opinions and perceptions of residents and their levels of satisfaction and

- dissatisfaction towards the city. Unpublished Masters Dissertation. University of KwaZulu Natal. Westville.
- Grigoresc, A. & Lupu, M. (2016). Integrated Communication in Private Sector Organisations. *HOLISTICA Journal of Business and Public Administration, Association Holistic Research Academic (HoRA)*, 7(2), 58-68.
- Groenewald, T. (2004). A phenomenological research design illustrated. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 3, 1-26.
- Gudjonsson, H. (2005). Nation branding. *Place Branding*, 1(3), 283-298.
- Guerrero-Castañeda R. F, Menezes T. M. O., & Ojeda-Vargas M. G. (2017). Characteristics of the phenomenological interview in nursing research. *Rev Gaúcha Enferm*, 38(2).
- Haider, D. H., Kotler, P. & Rein, I. (1993). *Marketing Places - Attracting Investment, Industry and Tourism to Cities, States and Nations*. (1st ed.). New York, The Free Press.
- Hair, J. F., Wolfinarger, M. F., Ortinau, D. J., & Bush, R.P. (2010). *Essentials of marketing research*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Irwin.
- Hankinson, G. (2001). Location branding: A study of the branding practices of 12 English cities. *Brand Management*, 9(2), 127-142.
- Hankinson, G. (2004). Relational network brands: Towards a conceptual model of place brands. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 10(2), 109-121.
- Hankinson, G. (2005). Destination brand images: A business tourism perspective. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 19(1), 24-32.
- Hankinson, G. (2007). The management of destination brands: Five guiding principles based on recent developments in corporate branding theory. *Brand Management*, 14(3), 240-254.
- Hankinson, G. (2010). Place Branding Theory: A Cross-domain Literature Review from a

- Marketing Perspective. In G. J. Ashworth, & M. Kavaratzis (Eds.), *Towards Effective Place Brand Management: Branding European Cities and Regions*. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.
- Hankinson, G. (2010). Place branding research: A cross-disciplinary agenda and the views of practitioners. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, 6(4), 300-315.
- Hanna, S., & Rowley, J. (2011). Towards a strategic place brand-management model. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 27(5-6), 458-76.
- Hasaballah A. H., Ibrahim, S. B. & Abdallah, M. A. (2014). Internal marketing and employee empowerment: The mediating role of the relationship quality: Study on commercial banks in Sudan. *International Journal of Science and Research*, 3(12), 231–241.
- Helbrecht, I. (1994). Conflict, consent, cooperation: Comprehensive planning in Germany beyond market and state. In G. O. Braun (Ed.), *Managing and Marketing of Urban Development and Urban Life*. Berlin: Dietrich Reimer Verlag.
- Hemmonsby, J. D. (2015). The strategic value of sport to the Cape Town city brand. Unpublished Master's Dissertation, Cape Town Peninsula University of Technology, Cape Town, South Africa.
- Hennink, M., Hutter, I., & Bailey, A. (2011). *Qualitative research methods*. London, UK: Sage.
- Herget, J., Petrů, Z., & Abrahám, J. (2015), City branding and its economic impacts on tourism. *Economics and Sociology*, 8, 119-126.
- Hildreth, J. (2010). Place branding: A view at arm's length. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, 6, 27-35.
- Hislop, D. (2005). *Knowledge Management in Organizations. A Critical Introduction*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Hofmeyr, F., & Rice, B. (2000). *Commitment-led marketing: The key to brand profits is in the customer's mind*. Chichester, NY: John Wiley & Sons.

- Holm, O. (2006). Integrated marketing communication: from tactics to strategy. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 11(1), 23-33.
- Hopkins, R. M., Regehr, G., & Pratt, D. D. (2017). A framework for negotiating positionality in phenomenological research. *Medical Teacher*, 39, 20-25.
- Hospers, G.-J. (2008). Governance in innovative cities and the importance of branding. *Innovation: Management, Policy and Practice*, 10 (2-3), 224-234.
- Husserl, E. (1970). *Logical Investigations Volume 2*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Hycner, R.H. (1985). Some guidelines for the phenomenological analysis of interview data. *Human Studies*, 8, 279-303
- Ilmonen, M. (2007). Branding a city – selling a product or creating an identity? Branding city – vendre un produit ou créer une identité ? In *L`attractivité des territoires: regards croisés., Actes des séminaires, 2007*, 33-36. Retrieved 11.06.2016 from http://rp.urbanisme.equipement.gouv.fr/puca/edito/actes_attr_territoires.pdf
- Jain, A. (2009). *Principles of Marketing*. New Delhi, India: V. K. Publications.
- Janiszewska, K., & Insch, A. (2012). The strategic importance of brand positioning in the place brand concept: elements, structure and application capabilities. *Journal of International Studies*, 5(1), 9-19.
- Jankovic, M. (2012). Integrated Marketing Communications and Brand Identity Development. *Management - Journal for theory and practice of management*, 63, 91-100.
- Jo, S. & Shim. W. (2005). Paradigm shift of employee communication: The effect of management communication on trusting relationships. *Public Relations Review*, 31, 277-280.
- Jobber, D., & Fahy, J. (2009). *Foundations of Marketing*. (3rd ed.). London, UK: McGraw-Hill Higher Education.

- Judson, K. M., Gorchels, L. & Aurand, T. W. (2006). Building a University Brand from Within: A Comparison of Coaches. *Perspectives of Internal Branding, Journal of Marketing for Higher Education*, 16(1), 97-114.
- Jurene, S., & Jureniene, V. (2017). Creative Cities and Clusters. *Transformations in Business & Economics*, 16(2), 214-234.
- Kapferer, J. N. (1992). *Strategic brand management: New approaches to creating and evaluating brand equity*. London, UK: Kogan Page.
- Kapferer, J. N. (2004). *The new strategic brand management: Creating and sustaining brand equity long term*. London, UK: Kogan Page.
- Kaplan, M. D., Yurt, O., Guneri, B., & Kurtulus, K. (2010). Branding places: Applying brand personality concepts to cities. *European Journal of Marketing*, 44(9), 1286-1304.
- Kaplan, R. S. W. (2017). Internal marketing and internal branding in the 21st century organization. *IUP Journal of Brand Management*, 14(2), 7-22.
- Kavaratzis, M. (2004). From city marketing to city branding: Towards a theoretical framework for developing city brands. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, 1, 58–73.
- Kavaratzis, M., & Ashworth, G. J. (2005) City branding: An effective assertion of identity or a transitory marketing trick? *Tijdschrift voor Economische en Sociale Geografie*, 96(5), 506-514.
- Kavaratzis, M., & Ashworth, G. J. (2008). Place marketing: How did we get here and where are we going? *Journal of Place Management and Development*, 1(2), 150 - 165
- Kavaratzis, M. (2008). From city marketing to city branding: An interdisciplinary analysis with reference to Amsterdam, Budapest and Athens. PhD Thesis, Groningen: Rijksuniversiteit Groningen.
- Kavaratzis, M. (2009). Cities and their brands. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, 5, 26-37.

- Kavaratzis, M., & Hatch, M. J. (2013). The dynamics of place brands: An identity-based approach to place branding theory. *Marketing Theory, 13*, 69-86.
- Kazançoğlu, D., & Dirsehan, T. (2014). Exploring brand experience dimensions for cities and investigating their effects on loyalty to a city. *Business and Economics Research Journal, 5*, 17-37.
- Keller, K. (1993). Conceptualizing, measuring and managing customer-based brand equity. *Journal of Marketing, 57*, 1-22.
- Keller, K. (1998). *Strategic brand management. Building, measuring, and managing brand equity*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Keller, K. L. (2001). *Building customer-based brand equity: A blueprint for creating strong brands*. MSI Working Paper Series. Cambridge, MA: Marketing Science Institute.
- Keller, K. L. (2008). *Strategic brand management: Building, measuring, and managing brand equity*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Keller, K. L. (2013). *Strategic brand management: Building, measuring and managing brand equity*. (4th ed.). London, UK: Pearson.
- Keller, K. L. (2015). Designing and implementing brand architecture strategies. *Journal of Brand Management, 1350*(231), 1-14.
- Keller, K. L., & Lehman, D. R. (2006). Brands and branding: Research findings and future priorities. *Marketing Science, 25*(6), 740-759.
- Kerr, G., Schultz, D. E., Patti, C., & Kim, I. (2008). An inside-out approach to integrated marketing communication. *International Journal of Advertising, 27*(4), 511-48.
- Kimberley City Portal (2018). The Vintage Tram. Retrieved 19.05.2018 from <http://www.kimberley.co.za/places/kimberley/free/the-vintage-tram/>
- Kitchen, P. J., & Schultz, D. E. (1999). A multi-country comparison of the drive for IMC. *Journal of Advertising Research, 39*, 21-38.

- Khaled, M. (2010). Increasing brand communication through brand visibility in retail outlets in small cities and rural areas of Bangladesh. *International Management Review*, 6(2), 83-89, 106.
- Klopper, H. B., & North. E. (2011). *Brand management*. London, UK: Pearson Education.
- Knox, S., & Bickerton, D. (2003). The six conventions of corporate branding. *European Journal of Marketing*, 37(7), 998-1016.
- Koekemoer, L. (2014). *Marketing Communications: An integrated approach*. Cape Town: Juta and Company.
- Koll, O., & Von Wallpach, S. (2014). Intended brand associations: Do they really drive consumer response? *Journal of Business Research*, 67(7), 1501-1507.
- Kong, L. (2012). City branding. In K. A. Anheieir, & Y. R. Isar, *Cities, cultural policy and governance*. London, UK: Sage.
- Kotler, P., Haider, D. H., & Rein, I. (1993). There's no place like our place! The marketing of cities, regions, and nations. *The Futurist*, 27, 14-21.
- Kotler, P. (2004). Opinion pieces: Where is place branding heading? *Place Branding*, 1, 12-35.
- Kotler, P., & Kapferer, J. (2008). *The new strategic brand management: Creating and sustaining brand equity long term*. (4th ed.). London, UK: Kogan Page.
- Laaksonen, P., Laaksonen, M., Borisov, P., & Halkoaho, J. (2006). Measuring image of a city: A qualitative approach with case example. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, 2(3), 210-219.
- Lebedenko, V. (2004). Opinion pieces: Where is place branding heading, *Place Branding*, 1, 12-35.
- Lee, J. L., Jamers, J. D., & Kim, Y. K. (2014). A reconceptualization of brand image. *International Journal of Business Administration*, 5(4), 1-11.

- Lendel, V., & Varmus, M. (2015). Proposal of Innovative Approaches of Relationship Marketing In Business. *Business: Theory and Practice*, 16, 63-74.
- Ligas, M., & Cotte, J. (1999). The process of negotiating meaning: A symbolic interactionist perspective. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 26, 609-614.
- Linton, I., & Morley, K. (1995). *Integrated Marketing Communications*. Oxford, UK: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Littlejohn, S., & Foss, K. (2008). *Theories of human communication*. (9th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Lloyd, S. (2002). Branding from the inside out. *Business Review Weekly*, 24(10), 64-66.
- Loo, T., & Davies, G. (2006). Branding China: The Ultimate Challenge in Reputation Management? *Corporate Reputation Review*, 9(3), 198-210.
- Lorenzen, M. (2010). Knowledge city models: Lessons from a study of the Danish creative class. The 3rd Knowledge Cities World Summit: From theory to practice (Melbourne, Australia, November 16-19), 363–390.
- Loureiro, S. (2013). The effect of perceived benefits, trust, quality, brand awareness/associations and brand loyalty on internet banking brand equity. *International Journal of Electronic Commerce Studies*, 4(2), 139-158.
- Lucarelli, A., & Berg, P. O. (2011). City branding: A state-of-the-art review of the research domain. *Journal of Place Management and Development*, 4(1), 9-27.
- Lucarelli, A. (2012). Unraveling the complexity of city brand equity: A three-dimensional framework. *Journal of Place Management and Development*, 5(3), 231-252.
- Lucas, S. (2014). Northern Cape Brics Conference, Kimberley, Northern Cape.
- Luxton, S., Reid, M., & Mavondo. F. (2015). Integrated marketing communication capability and brand performance. *Journal of Advertising*, 44, 37-46.

- Machado, R., & Diggines, C. (2012). *Customer Service*. Cape Town: Juta.
- Madhavaram, S., Badrinarayanan, V., & McDonald, R. E. (2005). Integrated marketing communication (IMC) and brand equity as critical components of brand equity: A conceptual framework and research propositions. *Journal of Advertising*, 34(4), 69-80.
- Makvandi, F., Aghababapoor, T., & Mondanipour, I. N. (2013). Studying the effect of internal marketing on employees' self-esteem case study: Employees of Isfahan University of Medical Sciences. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 3(12), 519-528.
- Malala, V. (2015). Food for thought: So just a hole then. *Diamond Fields Advertiser*. Retrieved 04.02.2015 from <http://www.financialmail.co.za/opinion/foodforthought/2015/01/29/food-for-thought-so-just-a-hole-then>
- Malmelin, N., & Hakala, J. (2009). Guided by the brand: From brand management to integrative corporate corporations. *Business Strategy Series*, 10(5), 248-258.
- Marshall, C. (2006). Data Collection Methods. In G. B. Rossman & C. Marshall, (Eds.), *Designing qualitative research methods*. London, UK: Sage Publications.
- Martinez, N. M. (2012). City marketing and place branding: A critical review of practice and academic research. *Journal of Town & City Management*, 2(4), 369-394.
- Martinez, T. L., & Barrio-García, S., Zapata, J. A. I., & Molina, M. A. R. (2007). Modeling a city's image: The case of Granada. *Cities*, 24(5), 335-352.
- Matanda, M. J., & Ndubisi, N. O. (2013). Internal marketing, internal branding and organisational outcomes: The moderating role of perceived goal congruence. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 29(9-10), 1030-1055.
- Mathews, J. (2015). Brand personality: Finding compatibility between human personality and brand characteristics. *IUP Journal of Brand Management*, 12(2), 21-38.

- Matson, E. W. (1994). Can cities market themselves like Coke and Pepsi do? *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 7(2), 35-41.
- Matthews, D. R., Son, J., & Watchravesringkan, K. (2014). An exploration of brand equity antecedents concerning brand loyalty: A cognitive, affective and conative perspective. *Journal of Business and Retail Management Research (JBRMR)*, 9(1), 26-29.
- Maurya, U. P., & Mishra, P. (2012). What is a brand? A perspective on brand meaning. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 4(3), 122-133.
- McIntosh, R., & Gupta, W. (1977). *Tourism: Principles, practices, philosophies* (3rd ed.). Columbus, OH: Grid.
- Merriam, S. B. (2009). *Qualitative Research: A guide to design and implementation*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley and Sons.
- Merrilees, B., Miller, B. D., & Herington, C. (2009). Antecedents of residents' city brand attitudes. *Journal of Business Research*, 62(3), 362-367.
- Metaxas, T. (2010). Place marketing, place branding and foreign direct investments: Defining their relationship in the frame of local economic development process. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, 6(3), 228-243.
- Mishra, S. (2010). Internal marketing - A tool to harness employees' power in service organizations in India. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 5(1), 185-193.
- Mishra, K., Boynton, L., & Mishra, A. (2014). Driving employee engagement: The expanded role of internal communications. *Journal of Business Communication*, 51(2), 183-20.
- Mlangeni, P. V. (2009). Implications of urban branding to local economic development in the inner city of Johannesburg. Master's dissertation, University of Witwatersrand, Johannesburg.
- Moilanen, T., & Rainisto, S. (2009). *How to brand nations, cities, and destinations: A*

planning book for place branding. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Moran (2000). *Introduction to Phenomenology*. London and New York: Routledge

Morgan, N., & Huertas, A. (2011). Advancing the study of place brands, tourism and reputation management. *Catalan Journal of Communication & Cultural Studies*, 3(2), 149-158.

Morgan, N., Pritchard, A., & Pride, R. (2002). Introduction. In N. Morgan, A. Pritchard, & R. Pride, (Eds.), *Destination branding: Creating the unique destination proposition*. Oxford, UK: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Morgan, N., Pritchard, A., & Pride, R. (2011), Tourism places, brands and reputation management. In N. Morgan, A. Pritchard and R. Pride, (Eds.), *Destination Brands. Managing Place Reputation*, (3rd ed.). Oxford, UK: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Mouton, J. (2001). *How to succeed in your master's and doctoral studies*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Mulder, D. (2008a). *An integrated communication model for marketing the UFS*. PhD Thesis, Bloemfontein: University of the Free State.

Mulder, D. (2008b). A conceptual model for integrating communication and corporate culture. *Communitas*, 13, 171-189.

Mulder, D (2015). Introduction to Integrated Communication. In D. Mulder & I. Nieman-Struweg, (Eds.), *Strategic Integrated Communication*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Murphy, J. M. (1992). *Branding, a key marketing tool* (2nd ed.). Basingstoke, UK: Macmillan Academic and Professional.

M'zungu, S. D. M., Merrilees, B., & Miller, D. (2010). Brand management to protect brand equity: A conceptual model. *Journal of Brand Management*, 17(8), 605-617.

Nath, P., & Bawa, A. (2011). Measuring of brand equity: Scale construction and validation.

Journal of Services Research, 11(2), 135-154.

Natarajan, T., Balasubramaniam, S. A., & Srinivasan, T. (2017). Relationship between internal branding, employee brand and brand endorsement. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 12, 95-110.

Nchaka, M. (2009). The Lesotho National Manpower Development Secretariat in the stakeholder century: An integrated marketing communication approach. M.A. Dissertation, Department of Communication. University of the Free State. Bloemfontein.

Ndlovu, J. (2009). Branding as a strategic tool to reposition a destination: A survey of key tourism stakeholders in Zimbabwe. PhD Thesis. Department of Tourism Management, Faculty of Economic and Management: University of Pretoria.

Neal, W., & Strauss, R. (2008a). *Value creation: The power of brand equity*. Boston, MA: Cengage Learning.

Neal, W., & Strauss, R. (2008b). Framework for measuring and managing brand equity. *Market Research*, 20(2).

Neuman, W. L. (2000). *Social Research Methods. Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Niemann, L. (2002). Integrated marketing communications and the role of public relations therein: A case study of RAU. Unpublished Masters Dissertation. University of Johannesburg. South Africa.

Northern Cape Economic Development, Trade and Investment Promotion Agency. (2012). Trade and Investment opportunities in the Northern Cape: Exploring Investment Diversity in the Northern Cape. Retrieved 13.03.2014 from <http://www.nceda.co.za/Documents/TradeInvest/NCEDATradeInvestmentBrochure.pdf>

- Northern Cape Tourism Authority. (2014). Kimberley. Retrieved 13.04.2014 from http://northerncape.org.za/getting_around/towns/Kimberley/
- Oliver, P. (2014). *Writing Your Thesis* (3rd ed.). Los Angeles, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Collins, K. M. T., Leech, N. L., Dellinger, A. B., & Jiao, Q. G. (2010). A meta-framework for conducting mixed research syntheses for stress and coping researchers and beyond. In G. S. Gates, W. H. Gmelch, (Series Eds.), & K. M. T. Collins, A. J. Onwuegbuzie, & Q. G. Jiao, (Vol. Eds.), *Toward a broader understanding of stress and coping: Mixed methods approaches*. The research on stress and coping in Education (Vol. 5). Charlotte, NC: Information Age.
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Leech, N. L., & Collins, K. M. T. (2012). Qualitative analysis techniques for the review of the literature. *The Qualitative Report*, 17(28), 1-28. Retrieved from <http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR17/onwuegbuzie.pdf>
- Ouwersloot, H., & Duncan, T. (2008). *Integrated Marketing Communications*. London, UK: McGraw-Hill.
- Park, C. W., MacInnis, D. J., Priester, J., Eisingerich, A. B., & Iacobucci, D. (2010). Brand attachment and brand attitude strength: Conceptual and empirical differentiation of two critical brand equity drivers. *Journal of Marketing*, 74(6), 1-17.
- Parkerson, B., & Saunders, J. (2005). City branding: Can goods and services branding models be used to brand cities? *Place Branding*, 1(3), 242-264.
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative Research and Evaluation Methods*. (3rd ed.). New Delhi: Sage Publications.
- Pearce. P. L. (1994). Fundamentals of tourist motivation. In D. G. Pearce, R. W. Butler, (Eds.), *Tourism Research: Critiques and Challenges*. London: Routledge.
- Pellisier, R. (2013). Management Research. Workshop handouts, Postgraduate Seminar Series, University of the Free State, Bloemfontein, 19 September 2013.

- Petrea, R., Petrea, D., Olău, P. E., & Filimon, L. (2013). Place branding as efficient management tool for local government. *Transylvanian Review of Administrative Sciences*, Special Issue, 124-140.
- Pike, S. D. (2008). *Destination marketing: An integrated marketing communication approach*. Burlington, MA: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Pine II, J. B., & Gilmore, J. H. (1998). Welcome to the experience economy, *Harvard Business Review*, 76(4), 97-103.
- Porcu, L., Del Barrio-García, S., & Philip, K. (2012). How integrated marketing communications (IMC) works? A theoretical review and an analysis of its main drivers and effects. *Comunicación Y Sociedad*. 25, 313-348.
- Prilenska, V. (2012). City Branding as a Tool for Urban Regeneration: Towards a Theoretical Framework. *Architecture and Urban Planning*, 6, 12-16.
- Purwanti, A. (2017). An evaluation of city branding to reinforce the city competitiveness (a case study of Surabaya). Proceedings of 63rd The IRES International Conference, Bangkok, Thailand, 5th-6th March 2017. Reviewed 15.05.2017 at http://www.worldresearchlibrary.org/up_proc/pdf/696-149061424236-41.pdf
- Rafiq, M., & Ahmed, P. K. (2000). Advances in the internal marketing concept: Definition, synthesis, and extension. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 14(6), 449-462.
- Rahman, K. (2013). Discovering brand meaning: Deriving the domains of a sub-brand. *Market and Social Research*, 2, 38-53.
- Rainisto, S. (2004). Opinion pieces: Where is place branding heading? *Place Branding*, 1, 12-35.
- Rajasekar, N., & Nalina, K. G. (2008). Measuring customer-based brand equity in durable goods. *Journal of Marketing Communications*, 4, 48-58.
- Rau, A. (2014). Thematic analysis for qualitative data. Workshop handouts, Postgraduate

Seminar Series, University of the Free State, Bloemfontein, 18 September 2014.

Reinold, T., & Tropp, J. (2012). Integrated marketing communications: How can we measure its effectiveness? *Journal of Marketing Communications*, 18(2), 113-132.

Ressler, W. (2013). Integrating external objectives with internal outcomes: Benefits of culturally based, holistic approaches to IMC in Minor League Baseball. *International Journal of Integrated Marketing Communications*, 5(1), 39-53.

Ritchie, J. R. B., & Ritchie, R. J. B. (1998). *The branding of tourism destinations: Past achievements and future challenges*. Proceedings of the 1998 Annual Congress of the International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism, Destination Marketing: Scopes and Limitations, Peter Keller (Ed.). Marrakech, Morocco: International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism, 89–116.

Riza, M., Doratli, N., & Fasli, M. (2012). City branding and identity. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 35, 293-300.

Romaniuk, J., & Nenyož-Thiel, M. (2013). Behavioural brand loyalty and consumer brand associations. *Journal of Business Research*, 66, 67-72.

Rust, R. T., Zeithaml, V. A., & Lemon, K. N. (2004). Customer-centred brand equity. *Harvard Business Review*, 82(9), 110-118.

SA Places, (n.d). *Kimberley*. Retrieved 31.01.2019 from:

<https://www.places.co.za/html/kimberley.html> on 31

Sahin, S., & Baloglu, S. (2014). City branding: Investigating a brand advocacy model for distinct segments. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 23(33), 239-265.

Salkind, N.J. (2006). *Exploring research*. (6th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.

Schmitt, B. (1999) Experiential Marketing. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 15(1-3), 53-67.

- Schurink, E. M. (1998). The methodology of unstructured face to face interviewing. In A. S. De Vos, *Research at grass roots*. Pretoria: Van Schaik
- Schultz, D. E., Taunnenbaum, S. I., & Lauterbaun, R. F. (1994). *The new marketing paradigm: Integrated marketing communications*. Chicago, IL: NTC Business Books.
- Scott, A. J. (2006). Creative cities: Conceptual issues and policy questions. *Journal of Urban Affairs, 28*, 1-17.
- Sevcik, T. (2011). Strategic urban narratives: Beyond conventional city branding. *Development, 54*(3), 343–344.
- Sevin, H. E. (2014). Understanding cities through city brands: City branding as a social and semantic network. *Cities, 38*, 47-56.
- Šimberová, I. (n.d). Synergy in marketing management-challenge for innovation of industrial company offer, 783-791.
- Smith, P. R., & Taylor, J. (2004). *Marketing communications: An integrated approach*, (4th ed.). Philadelphia, PA: Kogan Page.
- Smutkupt, P., Krairit, D., & Khang, D. B. (2011). The impact of permission-based mobile advertising on consumer brand knowledge. *International Journal of Mobile Marketing, 6*, 94-108.
- South Africa Inspiring New Ways. (2018). *Top ten cities*. Retrieved from <http://country.southafrica.net/country/us/en/top10/entry/top-10-cities-enus>
- South African Radio Astronomy Observatory. (2017). About – SKA SA. Retrieved 14.10.2017 from <https://www.ska.ac.za/about/>
- Spitzer, R., & Swidler, M. (2003). Using a marketing approach to improve internal communications. *Employment Relations Today, 30*, 69-82.
- Stàncioiu, A. F., Botos, A., Orzan, M., Pârgaru, I., & Arsènein, O. (2013). Integrated marketing

- communication in tourism - An analysis case study: Muntenia & Oltenia. *Theoretical and Applied Economics*, 6(583), 7-34.
- Stigel, J., & Frimann, S. (2006). City branding - all smoke, no fire? *Nordicom Review*, 27(2), 245-268.
- Strydom, F. (2013). Qualitative Research in Practice. Workshop handouts, Postgraduate Seminar Series, University of the Free State, Bloemfontein, 9 May 2013.
- Tadić, D. P., Jurič, B., & Šuput, B. (2012). Interaction and Synergy of Marketing management and Quality Management in Croatian Companies. Papers from the 9th International Circle Conference. Special Issue. *International Journal of Management Cases*, 14(4), 132-141.
- Ter Horst, J. (2005). Constructing the Bubble: Dutch Senior Tourists in Portugal. Masters dissertation. Bournemouth University, Bournemouth, UK.
- Thellefsen, T., & Sørensen, B. (2013). Negotiating the meaning of brands. *Social Semiotics*, 23(4), 477-488.
- Theron, E., & Terblanche, N. S. (2010). Dimensions of relationship marketing in business-to-business financial services. *International Journal of Market Research*, 52(3), 383-402.
- Todor, R. D., (2014). The importance of branding and rebranding for strategic marketing. *Bulletin of the Transilvania University of Braşov*, 7(2), 59-64.
- Tuominen, P. (1999). Managing brand equity. *LTA*, 1(99), 65-100.
- Trueman, M. M., Cornelius, N., & Killingbeck-Widdup, A. J. (2007). Urban corridors and the lost city: Overcoming negative perceptions to reposition city brands. *Journal of Brand Management*, 15, 20-31.
- Trueman, M., Klemm, M., & Giroud, A. (2004). Can a city communicate? Bradford as a corporate brand. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 9(4), 317-330.

- Turok, I. (2009). The distinctive city: Pitfalls in the pursuit of differential advantage. *Environment and Planning A*, 41, 13-30.
- Tybout, A. M., & Calkins, T. (Eds.) (2005). *Kellogg on Branding: The Marketing Faculty of the Kellogg School of Management*. Hoboken, New Jersey: John Wiley and Son.
- Uysal, M., & Hagan, L. A. R. (1993). Motivation of pleasure travel and tourism. In M. Khan, M. Olsen, & T. Var, (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of Hospitality and Tourism*, 798-810.
- Valentine, G. (2001). At the Drawing Board: Developing a Research Design. In M. Limb, & C. Dwyer, (Eds.), *Qualitative methodologies for geographers: Issues and debates*. London, UK: Arnold.
- Van Ham, P. (2004). Opinion pieces: Where is place branding heading? *Place Branding*, 1, 12-35.
- Van Limburg, B. (1998). City marketing: a multi-attribute approach. *Tourism Management*, 19(5), 475-477.
- Vanolo, A. (2008). The image of the creative city: Some reflections on urban branding in Turin. *Cities*, 25(6), 370-382.
- Van Riel, C. B. M., & Balmer, J. M. T. (1997). Corporate identity: The concept, its measurement and management, *European Journal of Marketing*, 31(5-6), 340-355.
- Verghese, A. K. (2017). Internal Communication: Practices and Implications. *SCMS Journal of Indian Management*, July - September 2017.
- Virasamy, B. (2011). Cultural brandwagon to cultural brand-wagon: A study of the cultural branding and the influence of culture-led urban regeneration and city branding on resident arts organisation in Newtown, Johannesburg. Johannesburg. University of Witwatersrand.
- Walker, L. J. H. (2012). Place brands and the relational branding communication process. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Studies*, 16. Special Issue.

- Wang, A. (2006). When Synergy in Marketing Communication Online Enhances Audience Response: The Effects of Varying Advertising and Product Publicity Messages. *Journal of Advertising Research*. 46 (2), 160-170.
- Welman, J. C., & Kruger, S. J. (1999). *Research methodology for the business and administrative sciences*. Johannesburg, South Africa: International Thompson.
- West, R., & Turner, W. (2010). *Introducing communication theory analysis application*. (4th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Wildenboer, N. (2015). Shabby city under fire. *Diamond Fields Advertiser*. 2 February 2015.
- Wilson, J. E., Bengtsson, A., & Curran, C. (2014). Brand meaning gaps and dynamics: Theory, research, and practice. *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal*, 17(2), 128-150.
- Wimmer, D., & Dominick, R. (2006). *Mass Media Research: An Introduction*. (3rd ed.). Belmont, CA: Thomson Wadsworth.
- Wimmer, D., & Dominick, R. (2010). *Mass Media Research: An Introduction*. (9th ed.). Belmont, CA: Thomson Wadsworth.
- Wise, R., & Zednickova, J. (2009). The rise and rise of the B2B. *Journal of Business Strategy*, 30, 4-13.
- Wood, J. T. (2004). *Communication theories in action*. (3rd ed.). Belmont, CA: Thomson Wadsworth.
- Yeshin, T. (2001). *Integrated marketing communications: The holistic approach*. Oxford, UK: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Yeshin, T. (2004). *Integrated Marketing Communications*. (2nd ed.). Oxford, UK: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Yeshin, T. (2008). Integrated Marketing Communications. In M. J. Baker, & S. Hart, (Eds.),

- The Marketing Book*. (6th ed.). Oxford, UK: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Yousaf, U., Zulfiqar, R., Aslam, M., & Altaf, M. (2012). Studying brand loyalty in the cosmetic industry. *Science Journal of Logistics*, 8(4), 327-337.
- Yuan, S., & McDonald, C. (1990). Motivational determinants of international pleasure time. *Journal of Travel Research*, 24(1), 42-44.
- Zarantonello, L., Schmitt, B. H., & Jedidi, K. (2014). How to advertise and build brand knowledge globally. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 54(4), 420-434.
- Zaumane, I. (2018). Internal Communication Challenges in 21st Century Organization: Leadership Perspective. *IJRDO - Journal of Business Management*, 4(2), 92-101,
- Zeithaml, V. A. (1988). Consumer perceptions of price, quality, and value: A means-end model and synthesis of evidence. *Journal of Marketing*, 52(3), 2-22.
- Zenker, S., Knubben, E., & Beckmann, S. C. (2010). *Your city, my city, their city, our city – different perceptions of a place brand by diverse target groups*. 6th International Conference Thought Leaders in Brand Management, Lugano - Switzerland, April 18-20.
- Zenker, S., & Martin, N. (2011). Measuring success in place marketing and branding. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, 7, 32-41.
- Zhang, L., & Zhao, S. X. B. (2009). City branding and the Olympic effect: A case study of Beijing. *Cities*, 26(5), 245–254.
- Zhang, Y. (2015). The impact of brand image on consumer behaviour: A literature review. *Open Journal of Business and Management*, 3, 58-62.

APPENDIX A: ETHICAL CLEARANCE



Faculty of the Humanities

15-Mar-2017

Dear Miss Mabula

Ethics Clearance: **An internal integrated marketing communication approach for city branding**

Principal Investigator: **Miss Refilwe Mabula**

Department: **Communication Science (Bloemfontein Campus)**

APPLICATION APPROVED

With reference to your application for ethical clearance with the Faculty of the Humanities, I am pleased to inform you on behalf of the Research Ethics Committee of the faculty that you have been granted ethical clearance for your research.

Your ethical clearance number, to be used in all correspondence is: **UFS-HSD2016/1302**

This ethical clearance number is valid for research conducted for one year from issuance. Should you require more time to complete this research, please apply for an extension.

We request that any changes that may take place during the course of your research project be submitted to the ethics office to ensure we are kept up to date with your progress and any ethical implications that may arise.

Thank you for submitting this proposal for ethical clearance and we wish you every success with your research.

Yours Sincerely

Prof. Robert Peacock
Chair: Research Ethics Committee
Faculty of the Humanities

Office of the Dean/Kantoor van die Dekaan/Ofisa ya Dine
T: +27 (0)51 401 2240 | F: +27 (0)51 401 7363 | E: bea@ufs.ac.za
P.O. Box/Posbus 339 | Bloemfontein 9300 | South Africa/Suid-Afrika | www.ufs.ac.za



APPENDIX B: PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM



CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY

I, _____ (participant name), 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 in-depth interview.

I have received a signed copy of the informed consent agreement.

Full Name of Participant: _____

Signature of Participant: _____ Date: _____

Full Name(s) of Researcher(s): Refilwe Marlene Mabula

Signature of Researcher: _____ Date: _____

