



CITY BRANDING IN INDONESIA: THE URGENCY OF PUBLIC COMMUNICATION, INVOLVEMENT AND INTER-SECTORAL COLLABORATION

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Abstract

Contemporary cities are facing various challenges, both internally and externally. Internally, they are required to possess the qualities of sustainability, livability as well as smart, or being advanced in the use of technology. Externally, cities have to thrive in the globalized competition among cities all over the world to attract both capitals and best individuals. In light of this, city branding has become a widespread practice undertaken by most city managers to attract visitors, tourists, and investors. Indonesian cities are not exempted from this phenomenon. This study analyses the development of the city branding process that has been done through research in several cities in Indonesia for the last ten years. The finding of these studies gives a significant contribution to the field of city branding that focuses on practical operational in social and governance dimensions in the local context. It shows that the limitation of understanding on city branding concept from the local authorities in many cities has resulted in less efficient and effective branding. City branding in most cities in Indonesia was trapped merely in making slogan and logos with less consideration in public aspirations and local identities. In addition, the common problem of lack of intersectoral coordination has resulted in a situation where branding has been undertaken solely by the tourist management sectors without proper support from other sectors.

Keywords: City Branding, Collaboration, Indonesia, Public Involvement, Tourism

Introduction

The concept of city branding is increasingly popular among researchers and practitioners in the world. It is driven by the fierce competition in attracting investors, tourists, and visitors in the globalized world. The potential and attractive place will be able to attract those resources and ultimately will increase economic growth and welfare in the region. The competition has encouraged the local government to adopt branding strategies in urban development policy to compete with other cities in the world. The extent to which city branding encompasses is not only slogan and logo but also included other guidelines and strategies related to physic and non-physic aspects such as culture, community, environment, and economy (Kokkranikal, Cronje, & Butler, 2011).

Nowadays, new approaches to city branding have been differentiating cities with products. Cities, unlike products, are living entities that are dynamic. Concomitantly, in practice of city branding, researchers observed that some cities (i.e., Dubai and Beijing), have been successfully attracting worldwide attention without using general branding tools, such as slogans and logos. Their governments, instead, have been focusing on policy improvements, innovative strategies, and community engagements (Sevcik, 2011). It indicates that an immediate process of building good imagery and reputation through merely slogans are not applicable to cities, or places in general. A comprehensive approach needs to be taken into account in branding the cities, involving planning, policies, programs, and stakeholders' collaboration (Kokkranikal et al., 2011; Loho & Braun, 2014).

Previous research has been undertaken to explore the relationship between city branding and tourism development in several contexts (see, for example, Kokkranikal, 2011; Dredge, 2003; Go, 2012; Hosany, 2006). *“Place branding has become one of the most popular concepts in the field of marketing places in general and tourist destination in particular”* (Avraham & Ketter, 2008 p.16). Nevertheless, it is found that research in the context of Indonesia is quite rare. It is interesting, not only because Indonesia is the largest country in the Southeast Asian region, but also due to some indications on the widespread usage of city branding in attracting tourism in this country.

According to Miller (2013), Indonesian cities have been relatively late in implementing city branding. It is the city of Yogyakarta that is labeled as the first branded city in 2002 (Miller, 2013). In fact, the opportunity for the city governments to engage in city branding is increasing, particularly in the era of decentralization. With the enactment of the Law 32/2004 of the Local Governments (which then updated by the Law 23/2014 on the same matter) and the Law 33/2004 on the Local Budgets, municipalities and regencies are being given more authorities both in income generation and expenditure. Cities now are being actively promoting the potential of their places as a means to increase their income and to improve the welfare of their residents. It is a prospective development, yet a challenging one. Having more than 90 administrative cities and more than 500 urban areas, with various cultural values, ample options are available for these city managers to employ city branding to attract local and foreign investments. Nevertheless, the limited capabilities of the local bureaucrats, in particular when dealing with progressive attitudes of investments, provide an obstacle. Moreover, it is not much research has been undertaken to guide the municipalities in implementing a good practice of city branding.

Literature review

Place Branding and City Branding

Previous studies have reported cities are more and more in direct competition with each other. As a result of globalization, many services, people, and investments can move freely around the world, and they go to what is the most exciting, promising places. In this sense, a particular city is not only competing with its surrounding city but also with distant cities, sometimes not even on the same continent. In response to this, there has been an urgency for cities to promote themselves more actively. In the last 10-15 years, a city branding industry has developed among cities to promote products and brands in a growing worldwide competition (Green, Grace, & Perkins, 2016).

Given that technology advancement brought typical development to global cities, these cities are looking for something to differentiate each of them, or to be unique. At this stage, according to (Bouchon, 2013), culture holds an important role. It provides a platform in which cities can brand themselves (i.e. through film, music, restaurant, shop, etc.). In the light of this, for the last 10-15 years, a city branding industry has developed among cities to promote products and brands in a growing worldwide competition (Green, 2016). Cities are not only competing with their neighboring cities or surrounding cities for visitors, investments or talent but also with distant cities, sometimes not even on the same continent.

A large and growing body of literature has investigated the basic concept of place branding. It has been borrowing the idea from product branding, which considers place as a product that has characteristics such as identity, differentiation, and personality (Hankinson, 2007). However, recent evidence suggests that the

place is not as simple as products, which are static (Bouchon, 2013). Place consists of a set of people who are dynamic, so places are not a product; governments are not producers, and users are not consumers (Kavaratzis, 2005). Kavaratzis (2005) also argues that the acceptance and perception of the product and places are different because people are visiting heritage buildings, cultures, and communities that may have a variety of experiences.

Place branding, according to Avraham (2008), emerged due to global competition, which has given considerable influence in the development of an area where the movement of investment, capital, human resources, goods, knowledge, and people are getting faster due to various factors. It causes each region competing to attract these resources. In addition, the local level is also driven by the public and political awareness increasing in the face of global competition. According to Kavaratzis (2005), the development of place branding in the past few decades have demonstrated the proliferating phenomenon in many countries around the world to show their potential to other places. They also added that this phenomenon is not new in the countries in Europe and America, where the government incorporates marketing programs in their development programs.

Despite the importance of branding the cities, however, it is also found that many issues and research gaps should be faced in the implementation of city brandings, such as stakeholder engagement (Go & Trunfio, 2012) and local governments policy-making process (Braun, 2010). Therefore, it requires a proper identification of the problems and alternative strategies (Moilanen, 2015; Go, 2012) In reference to Bai (2010), it is known that most cities today in heavily on the usage of slogans and logos, without proper attention to other aspects that are indirectly related to the branding. For example, Braun & Kavaratzis (2010) found that words of mouth (WOM), as well as the physical quality of cities, are far more important in determining the success of branding strategy, as compared to slogans and logos. Besides, it has conclusively been shown that other policies are also essential in realizing the success of city branding. According to Marsh & Fawcett (2011), there is a strong connection between city branding and politics because the policy constructed will be related to the policy-making process that involved many sectors and stakeholders. Braun (2011) also confirms that city branding should be viewed as a part of urban governance that related to city marketing and public administration. It is true, especially when looking at government administration and governance, where most of the policies are taking place. Branding the city, therefore, is not solely about making identities of cities, but also determining an appropriate approach in formulating policies to support the aim of the brands (Herezniak, Magdalena Florek, & Anders-Morawska, 2015).

The implementation of a collaborative approach under local authorities is a crucial factor in developing competitive city brands. However, there is a consensus among researchers that successful city branding needs to be built on a consensus of the identity and core values of the city among city authorities and various stakeholders (Bai et al., 2010; García, Gómez, & Molina, 2012; Hatch & Schultz, 2010; M Kavaratzis et al., 2010; Rehmet & Dinnie, 2013; Zenker, Braun, & Petersen, 2017; Zouganeli, Trihas, Antonaki, & Kladou, 2012). In addition, the engagement and supportive behavior of internal stakeholders are essential determinants to create a consistent city brand in the long-term. In this regard, brand orientation plays a vital role in understanding the identity of a city as branded by city authorities and the brand reality as experienced by stakeholders in the city. A strong brand should be established based on representative elements of a destination and on strategies that convey the unique and distinct meaning of the city brand (Morgan & Pritchard, 2002).

In accommodating the notions above, this study is using Hankinson's brand orientation model as its theoretical framework (Figure 1A). The model proposes five elements of the brand: brand culture, brand departmental coordination, brand communication, brand reality, and brand partnership (Hankinson, 2012). As quoted in Hankinson (2012, p. 983), the definition of each element is as follow:

“Brand orientation is a managerial approach that puts the development and maintenance of brand identity at the center of marketing strategy and seeks to integrate an organization's processes around the implementation of that strategy. Brand reality refers to matching the brand experience to the brand promise. Brand culture relates to the organization's vision, beliefs, and values. Brand departmental coordination refers to a collection of specific activities that unite departments around the brand. Brand partnership refers to managing a brand in partnership with other organizations that deliver the brand experience.”

These five elements of brand orientation are essential because these are the basis for determining the direction of strategy and implementation that will lead to brand performance (Hankinson, 2012). This model then supplemented by Ahn, Kim & Lee (2016) who investigated and expanded the Hankinson model to several attributes, namely: *brand commitment*, *brand citizenship*, and *brand pride*. According to Ahn, et al. (2016), as a result of the brand orientation model proposed by Hankinson (2012), brand commitment then emerge. Brand commitment is defined as the psychological attachment of residents to the city brand. Such commitment then leads to brand citizenship, resulting in voluntary activities to promote and support the brand. Finally, brand pride among residents may be achieved if the positive emotions toward the brand meet the success of the brand implementation (Figure 1B).

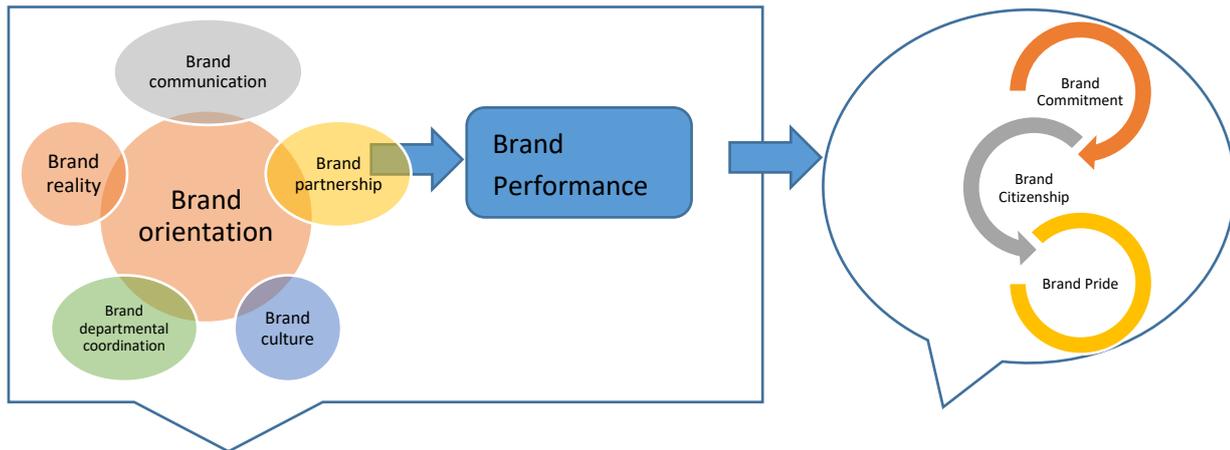


Figure 1A. Hankinson's (2012) Brand Orientation Model

Figure 1B. Ahn, et al. (2016) Expansion of Hankinson's Brand Orientation Model

These two models can be further examined that the Hankinson model will be determined the brand performance and also the brand attributes proposed by Ahn et al. (2016). It can be said that if the attributes expressed by Ahn are weak, then, there might be a problem with brand attributes put forward by Hankinson (2012). Ahn's attributes also emphasize the importance of society as one of the determinants of the success of branding.

Freire (2007) also stresses the importance of local people in the process of branding. Overall, such process also recommends that the extent in which the community is being involved the branding process, which could affect the success of the process of place branding (Ahn, Kim, & Lee, 2016; Eshuis, Klijn, & Braun, 2014; M Kavartzis et al., 2010).

Method and study area

The aim of this study is trying to review and to analyze the development of city branding in Indonesia through the use of city branding theoretical framework. Previous studies on the implementation of city branding in Indonesian cities are mainly on the base of single case studies. This paper provides a recapitulation of those previous studies (around thirty research) to gain insight into the general pattern of city branding in several Indonesian cities during the past ten years or so. Additionally, this study also analyses the pattern by the place branding concept, in particular, highlighting the importance of public involvement and the collaboration of inter-governmental sectors. It is widely perceived that the tourism sector is the only sector that is related to city branding in Indonesia. While it is true that significant impacts of city branding may have been influencing the tourism sector, city branding as a comprehensive strategy needs to involve other sectors as well.

This study takes into account previous research to understand the development of the city branding process in the country. Literature review and descriptive analysis are undertaken in this study. In addition

to this, a review of a national branding strategy is also outlined as a comparison with the regional branding strategies. A comprehensive list of challenges in the implementation of city branding and strategy to overcome them are also provided at the end of this article.

The method of this paper is a textual analysis based on several types of research documents in several cities in Indonesia. In this research, a text-based document (Mason, 1996) is used as data by compiling, describing, and comparing the result of their studies. He argued that critical awareness should be maintained since critical judgments will be made. “ Using documentary material as data is not much different from using interviews or observations” (Merriam, 2009 p150). Despite the limitations, these documents (personal papers) are an excellent source of data for numerous reasons such as easily accessible, free, contain information that might be could not be found in interviews or observation.

Results and discussion

Indonesia is bestowed with various cultures as well as panoramic landscapes that are the potential to be promoted through tourism. Before the emergence of the city branding, several regions have their brand based on people's perception and are not aimed at marketing the area, such as the “student city” of Yogyakarta and the “Island of Gods” of Bali.

The development of branding in Indonesia has been started since the 90s with the launch of nation branding “Visit Indonesia” and changed to “Wonderful Indonesia” in 2006. The existence of Law 32/2004 on decentralization increasingly opened the opportunity for the region to actively explored and developed its cities. The awareness of the importance of city branding has been seen with the proliferation of branding efforts through the city slogan and logo. For example, Jogjakarta with “Jogja, Never Ending Asia” wherein 2015 has been rebranded to “Jogja Istimewa”, Bali as “Shanti Shanti Shanti”, Solo “The Spirit of Java”, Surabaya “Sparkling Surabaya” and Jakarta “Enjoy Jakarta”. However, the branding process not supported by comprehensive policies, such as the provision of proper infrastructures and public facilities.

The tourism sector dominates the development of city branding in Indonesia because the brands are launched by the local tourism office that aims to attract tourists and investors. Tourism is a promising industry today, supported by the advance of technology, the increase of low-cost airlines, and the changed in people's lifestyles have encouraged the advancement of tourism in the world. Nevertheless, the city branding in Indonesia is a part of the promotion strategy solely conducted by tourism agencies (see Figure 4).

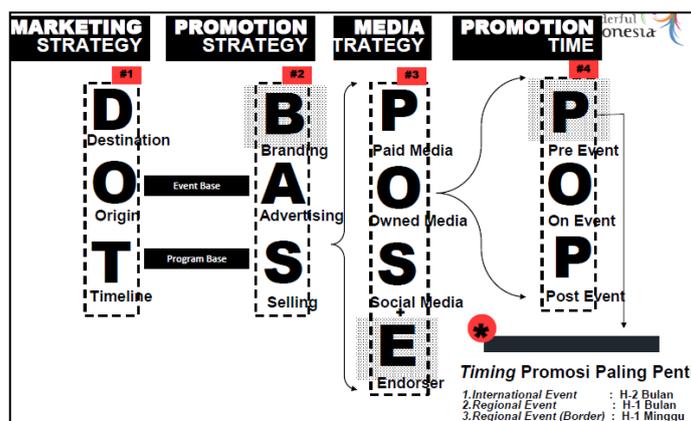


Figure 4. Comprehensive Branding Strategies

Source: Ministry of Tourism, 2014

Based on Figure 5 below, Lucarelli, Kalandides, & Olof Berg (2011) and Kavartzis & Ashworth (2005) emphasize the differences in branding perspectives as a part of marketing strategy or broader than just marketing. Both of these perspectives have a significant impact on the implication of a branding strategy. For example, if branding is only undertaken as a part of marketing, it will not be effective in creating a sense of place and ineffective in attracting investment. It will only be effective in attracting tourists and visitors. Conversely, if branding has been in the broader position than just marketing, it will be a strategic development tool. It is vital because it will involve a significant change in government policies. The change brought by this particular approach is a comprehensive one that will be effective in attracting resources like investment, tourism, and people. It indeed a big challenge for Indonesia to be able to position the branding in a collaborative level inter-sectoral.



Figure 5. Types of Branding in Relation to Marketing

Source: Kalandides, Kavartzis & Ashworth, 2005)

To gain more insight at the ground level, the following subsections provide a review of city branding strategies in several cities in Indonesia that is adopted from several studies. The choice of cities is limited to the availability of the studies.

A. City Branding of Solo

Solo is one of the icons of Central Java city that is currently promoting the city branding program with the slogan The Spirit of Java. Branding Solo conducted several intensive events such as Solo Batik Carnival (SBC), Solo International Ethnic Music (SIEM) Festival, Solo International Performing Art (SIPA), Indonesia Channel, and others. Besides, they also improved the physical arrangement of the cities such as Ngarsopuro area and some public spaces in Solo City such as city walk along Jalan Slamet Riyadi, Taman Balekambang, Monument 45 Banjarsari, Stadion Area Manahan, and Kalianyar River Crosses (Water Park of Tirtonadi and Taman Sekartaji) and other parks in Solo City (Primasari, Muktiyo & Kusumawati, 2014; Murfianti, 2016). Chaerani (2011) in her research, argues the city branding in Solo is well develop seen with various efforts from the government in the arrangement of cities and various events and festivals in attracting tourists. However, her research shows the city branding in Solo has not been able to invite people to come to Solo.

Based on a study conducted by Rahmanto (2014), city branding in Solo is undertaken by the local government without a specific strategic plan regarding the city brand. His investigation revealed that the branding of Solo city is just visual because both government and citizens do not understand the consequences of branding. It can be seen from the consistency of the slogan and logo, and there is no particular program to strengthen the brand identity. The policy formulation, in this case, ignores the understanding of technical and institutional dimensions. As a result, there are confusion and inconsistency towards the use of brand identity. Branding is executed as event activities and city arrangements that are implemented merely as sectoral programs. Rahmanto (2014) also argues that the process of policy implementation encountered many obstacles such as weak in monitoring the performance of branding, lack of understanding of government staff in city branding concepts, the difference agenda between agencies. The impact is the implementation of city branding seems to stuck in logo and tagline creation without further efforts in meaning exploration through city characters and its citizens.

B. City Branding of Surabaya

According to Oktavia & Muliawan (2009), their research found that the slogan of “Sparkling Surabaya” to promote and communicate the city image to a broader audience does not reflect the local identity and citizen perception. It uses the word “sparkling” since it refers to the state of the city as one of the metropolises and to generate the imagery of jewelry that is aimed to be associated with the city. This concept is still disputed for its effectiveness since the ideas are not rooted in the richness of Surabaya’s characteristics and cultural identity. It causes a lack of ownership from the local people. In 2015, Surabaya also held a competition regarding the rebranding of Surabaya city. For that reason, it suggests the city evaluate the extent to which the city identity has been acceptable to all elements of society.

C. City Branding of Banyuwangi

Banyuwangi is also one of the cities that implements city branding to attract visitors and tourists with its brand “*Banyuwangi, The Sunrise of Java*”. The city is at the eastern tip of Java Island that has a charm of beautiful nature and a variety of attractions. In addition, Banyuwangi also held several cultural activities annually, such as BEC (Banyuwangi Ethno Carnival), Petik Laut Ceremony, Kebo-Keboan, etc. The implementation of the city, branding is expected to attract tourists both inside and outside the city. Besides, the study finding undertaken by Jannah (2014) indicates city branding has a significant influence on the city image and visiting decisions. Thus, the government of Banyuwangi should increase the city branding management and also strengthen the cooperation between government agencies and local communities to improve the city image to increase the visitors and tourist.

D. City Branding of Jogjakarta

Fortunata (2014) argues that city branding in Jogjakarta emphasized the element of Javanese culture heritage from the ancient era that remained in the modern era. In addition, the hospitality of the people in the city is also emphasized, aiming to provide an attraction for tourists intending to visit the city. The local government comes with the slogan “Jogja Never Ending Asia” to reflect a capture of the elements above of branding. However, eventually, the slogan has no essential meaning even inspiring people to come to Jogjakarta (Fortunata, 2014; Pasande & Suhendra, 2017). It is suggested that the involvement of the society is initiated in the city branding process,

from planning, implementation, and evaluation. Therefore, the branding will reflect city identity and people's expectations. Taking into account public criticisms, in 2014, the local government held a public invitation that aims to attract community aspiration related to Jogjakarta branding, and in 2015, they changed the slogan to “Jogja Istimewa.”

E. City Branding of Pasuruan

Risanto (2016) provides an insight into how city branding has been initiated in Pasuruan, through the brand of “Exotic Pasuruan”. The study evaluates the tourism destination problems in Pasuruan City. According to the study in Pasuruan, which is located in East Java, has several popular destinations, such as Mount Bromo, Safari Indonesia Zoo, Kaliandra Sejati. Some less prominent destinations such as Kakek Bodo Waterfall, Jawi Temple, Banyu Biru Natural Water Park also has been promoted to the city manager. Using the phenomenology method and open questionnaire through an in-depth interview with ten tourism managers in the city, it is found that the essential problems are weak management systems, unspecific additional facilities, and no innovative marketing strategies. For example, in Kakek Bodo waterfall as one of the scenic tourist destinations, it should be supported by relating facilities such as camping ground and outbound facilities and also complement facilities like appropriate parking area and canteen. In fact, these facilities are either absent or not well-provided. Regarding the management system, the problems are a lack of innovative strategies such as innovation regarding broadening the media marketing and lack of maintenance for heritage destination (temple). In addition, it is found that there is a lack of communication between management and local government to manage related tourism destination. From this study, it can be seen that branding is not only about making a slogan and logo, but it needs to be supported by various supporting aspects.

F. City Branding of Jakarta

Jakarta as a Metropolitan Area, the biggest city in Southeast Asia with a population of more than 20 million, has attempted to brand the city through “Enjoy Jakarta” launched by local tourism agencies in 2006 (Ellisa, 2014). The campaign encompasses many dimension of tourism, including a campaign to “See and Do”, which includes “outdoor& adventure”, “culture & heritage”, “nature & environment,” “health & wellness,” “entertainment,” and “shopping”. It also includes recommendations on culinary highlights and tours. However, Adinugroho & Mutiaz (2012) found that the campaign had lacked a single and powerful message. Sugiwarsono (2009) also mentions that the execution of branding is not appropriate and ineffective as “Enjoy Jakarta” considers only a slogan and logo without any spirit that supports the brand.

Ardayan (2016), in his research on tourist’s perception of the brand of Jakarta, emphasized the importance of the relationship between the city brand and its people because of the love of community, and the tourist will determine the recommendation and revisit the city itself. *The concept of brand love means the relationship between brands and consumers. The more people love a city; the more they will come back and recommend to others (Ardayan, 2016, p13).* Nevertheless, the innovation of various programs and activities will encourage the quality of other attractive attributes of the city.

G. City Branding of Padang

In a study conducted by Adona (2014) on city branding in Padang city, it is found that the local government has not succeeded in establishing branding in accordance with the local characteristics of the region and not yet optimal in communicating it to the community. Admittedly, the branding process undertaken by the local government is not an easy task considering the entrepreneurial skills is a new thing in Indonesian local government managerial. Besides, the use of slogan and logo in branding the city of Padang does not reflect the local identity. Besides, media communication is still limited to exhibitions and seminars. As noted by Adona (2014), the efforts in the city through the event of Tour de Singkarak, a road bike competition in 2014, had not been visible. In particular, the community involvement in the branding process (horizontal branding) has been relatively minor as compared to the vertical branding undertaken by the government through advertisements. Such a campaign, however, is considered for having a distance from reality. Since what is promised through the advertisement media is relatively different from the fact, which is what the local community has been doing for a while.

Relationship Between Case Studies and Theoretical Framework

Based on the results of several examples of the above case studies on cities in Indonesia, a general pattern can be observed. The development of city branding undertaken by the tourism department is still limited to the creation of slogans and logos, without considering public aspiration. A clear example can be seen in the case of Jogjakarta and Surabaya, where public criticism has led the local government to arrange the public hearing to rebrand the city.

Reflecting the case with the model proposed by Hankinson (2012), some lessons could be obtained. Referring to the “brand departmental coordination”, in Banyuwangi and Solo, the branding process is merely a uni-sectoral program, involving only the tourism agencies. On the other hand, referring to “brand reality” in the model, Padang and Solo cases show that the slogans and logos did not meet the reality of the cities’ images and activities.

The creation process of branding strategies undertaken by local governments, therefore, have been affecting the ownership of the slogans and logos by their residents. This phenomenon is pointed out by Ahn (2016) in the notions of “brand commitment,” “brand citizenship,” and “brand pride.” Residents feel not being involved, and much of their aspirations have been likely ignored. Eventually, this leads to the performance of the cities brands.

The models proposed by Hankinson (2012) and Ahn (2016), therefore, are quite useful in determining the problems of city branding implementation. In particular, it is clear that if there is a problem in Hankinson’s attributes, it will cause the less optimal of the brand performance and also influence the Ahn’s attributes (brand commitment, citizenship, and pride).



Figure 7. The Relation of Case Studies and Hankinson's and Ahn's Model

Challenges and Strategies

The biggest challenge to be faced by cities in Indonesia today is establishing an acceptable city brand to all elements, as this will affect the community sense of ownership of the city branding and stakeholder involvement in the city branding process. *In general, city branding in Indonesia is done partially, and not through a comprehensive study or stages (Pakarti, 2016).* Go & Trunfio (2012) identify several challenges faced by cities, such as limited understanding of local government in city branding concept that led to poor management of city branding regarding strategy formulation, funding allocation, and stakeholder coordination. These challenges also faced by Indonesian cities today, where branding is only part of marketing. In fact, branding in the aforementioned case studies seems only serves as communication tools trough slogans and logos instead of strategic tools from a collaboration between sectors in government. Therefore, it will not be optimal in attracting tourists, investment, and a sense of pride in the city.

Reflecting on the existing context in Indonesia, two things could be observed. *First*, overall, these studies highlight the fact that city branding in Indonesia is limited in the making slogan and logo. Nowadays, experts agree that brands are not just names given to products, especially *places*, because there are many things to consider. A strong collaborative partnership between government, private, and community are crucial to building an effective understanding and decision making (Rukayah, Wibowo, & Wahyuningrum, 2015). Morgan (2002) adds that the long-term success of the brand is determined by the sense of belonging of its citizens toward the brand. Castelnovo, Misuraca, & Savoldelli (2015) also argue that one of the core issues in smart city governance and policy decision making is how to involve the community as a vital role in the decision-making process, giving an active role in planning, implementation, and evaluation of the policies and programs undertaken. As quoted in Castelnovo (2015), "*citizen engagement is, therefore, a fundamental cornerstone of smart city governance*" (p8). It implies that in the policy-

making process, the role of the community must be highly regarded, not only through traditional approaches by drawing people aspirations, but should also lead to collaborative partnership. The trend shows that citizen participation and collaboration is no longer a difficult task to achieve since given the increasing development of IT, so people are getting smarter and more comfortable to access the latest information. *Branding strategies nowadays require active communication between government and stakeholders, for example, by using the online communication media (Chaerani, 2011; Putro, Mayangsari, Siallagan, & Novani, 2016; Somantri & Budisetyorini, 2015).* Nevertheless, it will also depend on government efforts to encourage stakeholder involvement.

Second, the collaboration between government agencies is essential to assuring the quality of various attributes of the city, such as infrastructure, public facilities, healthcare, social service, culture, safety level, environment, and education. In Indonesian, city branding is undertaken solely under the tourism sector management with a lack of proper support from other sectors (Hankinson, 2007; Risanto & Yulianti, 2016). Ardyan (2016) adds that “*the more qualified and interestingly attribute is developed by the city government, the more people are going to love the city*” p14. In the Hankinson model, one of the attributes, namely *departmental coordination*, is a critical factor that will determine the brand performance. It will prove the extent to which other sectors support the city’s brand. For example, if the slogan and logo issued by the tourism department and not backed up by other sectors such as public works that ensure the quality of transport and public facilities, then it will undoubtedly affect the public perception of the “brand reality.” Another issue is the limited understanding of the local government officials on the concept of city branding could also lead to the ineffectiveness of the city branding process through inappropriate strategy undertaken. These two phenomena are observed at both the national and local levels.

Kotler & Gertner (2002) argue that the place faces a global challenge where competition is unavoidable. The rapid development of information technology is accelerating the risk of global economic, political and technological change, the risk of declining city function, and the risk of increasing the number of competitors in attracting potential resources. Kotler’s argument almost twenty years ago has succeeded in predicting the challenges that will be experienced by cities in the world today. The cities that are not able to answer these challenges will face the risk of defeat in the competition in the global world. Therefore, cities in Indonesia need to take into account the latest development of technology in their branding strategies. In particular, information technology allows different parties to collaborate on the same platforms to achieve sharing objectives. It is relevant in the case of branding the cities.

Another factor that influences the success of city branding proposed by Pike (2009) is the use of *Integrated Marketing Communication (IMC)*, which is a form of integrated product marketing communication ranging from public relations, personal selling, and media publicity. Kotler (2002) adds that in the effective implementation of IMC, several steps could be taken. *First*, identifying the community condition. *Second*, building a long-term vision that includes Strength – Weakness – Opportunities – Threats (SWOT) identification. *Third*, the need to develop long-term plans covering the stages of investment and transformation. The long-term plan is intended to ensure four critical factors in marketing: essential services, new attractions to attract investment, tourists and other business activities, community involvement in various marketing programs, and active collaboration of all parties in building long-term cooperation. It is also in line with Hankinson’s model (2007), who proposed five elements of the brand orientation model. Considering the

problems in the city branding in Indonesia, the strategies outlined above can be considered to be adopted by the relevant city managers.

Conclusion

Two concluding remarks can be observed in this study. The first one is related to the practice of city branding in Indonesia. The second one is related to the broader implementation of the city, or place, branding theoretical framework.

First, based on the result from research on city branding in several cities in Indonesia shows that the branding still limited to city promotion tools, which have not to reflect the local identity characteristic, lack of community involvement, lack of integration policies between government agencies. In reality, the branding through slogan has not been followed by other policies such as transportation and facilities improvement. Therefore, upgrading efforts are needed to accompany the branding strategy with comprehensive programs that result in positive impacts on the city. In the era of globalization, the role of government is increasingly important in building competitiveness. Branding is the task of all sector in city governance, and not only the responsibility of tourism agency but also all sectors should work together to achieve the same goal through a comprehensive city branding strategy in urban development.

Another thing that is frequently missing when doing city branding is the participation of stakeholders. City branding is not a commitment of the government only; they should invite all interested parties to participate in the city is committed to market the city. Private companies and residents (citizens) should be actively involved in becoming ambassadors for their cities. The development policy of cities is increasingly faced with various challenges involving many actors, agendas, and interests. The complexity of socioeconomic change requires enhanced capabilities that can follow the dynamic of demands from time to time. It is, therefore, community involvement in every aspect of development is encouraged.

Second, at the theoretical part, it is only a few kinds of literature on place branding have been addressing the city as the focus of the study (see, for example, Kavaratzis, 2004; Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005). However, most of the literature has been referring to “place” in general (see for example, Kotler & Gertner, 2002; Rainisto, 2003). Contrary to such phenomena, this study provides input to brand performance, which is a significant factor in the success of branding city (Chaerani, 2011; Jannah, 2014; Salampessy, 2015). When linked to the models proposed by Hankinson (2012) and Ahn (2016), this study proves that lack of a sense of community ownership of the city brand is indicated by the attributes of the Ahn model (brand commitment, brand citizenship, and brand pride) is due to the weak attributes as suggested by the Hankinson model (2012) namely departmental coordination, brand reality, brand culture, brand communication, and brand partnership. Therefore, the proposed further study is evaluating more detail each attribute of both models in the local context.

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