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The process of implementing aspirational place brands

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ABSTRACT

There is increasing interest on the part of governments and associated agencies in place branding - the practice of applying marketing and brand principles to geographic entities. While existing literature advocates the need and benefits of place branding, there is a call for more empirical research particularly into the process of implementing a place brand. Contemporary authors refer to the similarities between the more developed literature on corporate brand and that of the place brand. However, in both domains there remains a need for greater understanding of the process of engaging and harmonising multiple stakeholders towards the acceptance of an adopted brand strategy. This study addresses this need.

This research investigates the process of place brand implementation in a number of locations which have applied a place brand strategy and applies an inductive methodology to this new domain of place branding and identifies through case study research, stages that are important to the place brand implementation process. The research provides empirical evidence and a suggested framework for the implementation of a place brand strategy. Further, this work contributes to the extant literature on place branding and the improvement of professional practice, assisting those who have the responsibility to effectively implement a place brand strategy. As a result of this study it is concluded that there is a process, consisting of stages, which are necessary to improve the likelihood of successful place brand implementation. The stages of implementation developed as a result of this research have been identified as activating, energising, concepting, expanding and re-energising.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to place on record my ongoing gratitude to the people who have motivated, tolerated, guided, and participated in this work.

My wife, Cheryl, and daughters, Elizabeth and Stephanie, who not only provided support but I acknowledge the opportunities that they have forgone in order that I can complete this project.

Associate Professor Peter Gibson who provided motivation and guidance at the commencement of this endeavour, as well as my great friend, Peter Reid, who shared with me his passion for learning and research, regardless of one’s age. Dr. Tony Ball, Dr. David Williams and Dr. Grace McCarthy who also provided motivation and feedback during this time.

Professor John Glynn and Associate Professor Gary Noble who despite their busy workloads provided sound advice and direction in their role as my supervisors.

The community representatives from the cities of Armidale, Lithgow and Wollongong who gave up their time and were willing participants in this research.
AUTHOR’S DECLARATION

I, Gregory Mark Kerr, declare that this thesis, submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Business Administration, in the Sydney Business School, University of Wollongong, is wholly my own work unless otherwise referenced or acknowledged. The document has not been submitted for qualifications at any other academic institution.

Gregory Mark Kerr
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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Marketing is identified as a “social and managerial process by which individuals and groups obtain what they need and want through creating and exchanging products and value with others” (Kotler, Brown et al., 2004, p.8). The concept of marketing came to prominence in the 1950s when during these post-war boom years companies had excess capacity. Marketing was first applied to consumer goods. Since this time marketing knowledge has broadened, as has its application. Even the very definition of marketing is on the change agenda of organisations such as the American Marketing Association (2008) with its definition updated to read:

“Marketing is the activity, set of institutions, and processes for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging offerings that have value for customers, clients, partners, and society at large.”

Marketing specialisations have developed in areas such as; business to business marketing, services marketing, social marketing, not-for-profit marketing, international marketing, internet marketing, relationship marketing, tourism marketing and events marketing. More recently the domain of place marketing has emerged through a recognition that places operate in a competitive environment; that is, competing with other places for resources.

Kotler, Haider et al. (1993 p.19) in their work on marketing places identify the markets for places as being:

- Goods and Service Producers,
- Corporate Headquarters and Regional Offices,
- Outside Investment and Export Markets,
- Tourism and Hospitality Businesses,
- New Residents.
It is important to emphasise that place marketing is broader than tourism marketing as there are not only more markets to consider, but appealing to these markets might be the responsibility of different government or private sector agencies within the same location (Kerr, 2006). Pursuant to the principles of the marketing concept, place markets can be segmented and the most preferred segments targeted. Apart from the notion of segmenting, other accepted principles of marketing can also be applied to places such as promotion. Ward (1998) reminds readers that a great deal of place promotion was undertaken during the 1800’s in the United States during the phase of expansion of the American West. Ward’s statement has consistency with the current marketing literature which points out that promotion is only part of the marketing approach.

In addition to promotional strategies, a number of other strategies are available to the marketer to attract segments and out-perform competitors. These include product strategies, pricing strategies and distribution strategies. The development and application of these ‘supply-side’ strategies aimed at attracting target segments and out-performing competitors is the framework for strategic marketing. Within this framework, there are a number of marketing techniques that can be used by the marketer. In the context of applying strategic marketing practices to places, one technique that is gaining interest, is to treat the name of a place as a brand and apply brand management principles to that place. It will be the practice of place branding which will be the focus of this thesis.
1.2 Research Study

There is growing interest in the field of place branding. As will be shown in Chapter 2, there is increasing interest on the part of governments in place branding and there are calls in the literature for research to gain knowledge of the processes and outcomes of place branding. It is the purpose of this research to contribute to knowledge by examining the work on place branding to date and respond to calls in the literature to undertake empirical studies with the aim of better understanding place branding. The title of this thesis is:

‘The Process of Implementing Aspirational Place Brands’,

By way of empirical research, this thesis will seek to understand and provide a framework which explains:

‘How are aspirational place brands implemented?’

A background to the topic is now provided which addresses the reasons, changing attitudes and current practice of place branding.

1.3 The Reasons for Place Branding

In, ‘Marketing Places’, Kotler, Haider et al. (1993) referred to the condition of places in the United States. The authors claimed that almost all places are in trouble and their situations fall along a continuum ranging from the “dying or chronically depressed” to the “favoured few.” The situation is very similar in parts of Australia. Collits and Gastin (1997) argued whether Australian towns in decline should be helped or to let market forces determine their fate. Authors including Kotler, Haider et al. (1993), Collits and Gastin, (1997), Papadopoulos and Heslop (2002) and Schultz (2004) identify likely causes of the decline of places which include:
The loss of the industry base that warranted the very existence of the place,

The influence of technology making many industries less labour dependant,

The loss of the younger population who pursue careers and opportunities in the larger metropolitan areas,

An aging population resulting in the cessation of some businesses that cannot be sold on or transferred to family members,

The centralization of industries such as retailing and finance to larger centers at the expense of smaller towns,

Stronger ‘competitor towns,’

The ‘mindset’ of many towns people who believe that their town is ‘doomed’,

A lack of leadership and a vision for the future.

These issues reinforce the need for those charged with managing a place to be more strategic in their thinking and it is argued that the application of marketing knowledge to places will be of benefit. Gardyn (2002 p. 36) points out that;

“…choices of where to live, where to visit and where to do business have expanded over the past decade, as advances in communications technology increasingly enable individuals and companies to operate efficiently pretty much anywhere regardless of geography.”

An example gained whilst undertaking this work was a person who arranges the crew scheduling for a US airline from the northern NSW city of Armidale. There is now greater competition between places as they seek the attention of more mobile businesses and populations. At a government level, marketing places usually exists within the domain of economic development. For example, in an Australian context, Walker (2005) reported on the “state against state” battle between New South Wales and Queensland in Australia as the Queensland Government commenced a $4.5 million advertising campaign to entice NSW
businesses and spent $78 million a year in business grants and subsidies. The NSW government accused the Queensland government of buying jobs with massive subsidies as more than half of the 1000 people who move to Queensland each week come from NSW.

It is within the context of the growing level of competitiveness between locations and the ultimate decline of many, that a need has been identified for places to have a marketing focus. Such a focus initially requires the application of marketing fundamentals; to identify markets, select segments and develop a marketing mix to position a place within the desired segments. Modern marketing requires not only a holistic approach involving multiple stakeholders, (Kotler and Keller, 2007), but the communication of superior value to existing and potential customers. It is a brand that has the ability to communicate value as Lindsay (2004) claims that a brand is an executive summary of all the expectations, thoughts, feelings and associations we carry in our minds about the product it represents.

In the context of a place, its geographic name and/or associated symbols and taglines is the brand which can communicate a level of value. It is now regarded as being both important and possible to manage the place brand. As Hanmin (2003 p. 51) states, “in the battlefield of economic development, it is widely believed that branding by cities and countries has become a necessary competitive advantage.” As with other domains of marketing, the identification of markets, targeting of segments and positioning should be part of the place marketing strategy. The brand strategy should be supported by a comprehensive marketing plan. Moving directly to emblems, logos or taglines is a high risk approach. A comment on the
Wisper Brand Consultancy (2007) website with reference to the Czech Republic, as shown in Figure 1.1, illustrates this point.

“Sadly, last year’s attempt at designing a logo and strap line based on speech bubbles to reflect the many facets of Czech life, is typical of many misplaced place branding efforts - trying to satisfy all stakeholders but failing to capture and dominate a single market segment.”

Figure 1.1 The Czech Republic Logo

This view is consistent with marketing principles in that the full marketing mix should be considered, not just advertising and promotion. In the context of increasing awareness for place marketing, Syrett (2006) argues in favour of the need for cities to develop governance structures that promote their locational characteristics, enhance their competitiveness and allow them to respond rapidly to changing market conditions. He not only recognises the importance of city promotion to communicate an image and vision for a city, but the need to coordinate institutions and policy making to develop strategic capacity for the development of urban assets as well as the emphasis upon the provision of good quality services (transport, education, housing, etc.) which underpin broader competitiveness.

Van Ham (2001) claims that the unbranded state has a difficult time attracting economic and political attention and Dickinson (2007) refers to the “competitive state” where the government intervenes to create competitive advantage, at either
a general level or within specific sectors. What has become apparent during the course of the review of the relevant literature has been the application of marketing principles to places, albeit deliberate or otherwise, by a number of disciplines, particularly political science, urban geography and town planning including Nassar (1998), Finucan (2002) and Metaxas (2002).

1.4 Changing Attitudes towards Place Branding

There is broadening acceptance of place branding on the part of academics and practitioners, with substantial changes in attitude evidenced within the literature on place branding over the last ten years. In the context of tourism marketing, Witt and Moutinho (1995) claimed that it is virtually impossible to develop a place as a brand. In 2001 Hankinson (p.140) claimed research to date suggests branding places is at best complex and at worst impossible and stated, “…there are relatively few articles to be found in the academic literature with regard to the promotion of locations as brands”.

By 2004 the journal of Place Branding was launched with its publishers claiming that it was the first such publication to concentrate on this “fast-growing field”, (Henry Stewart Publications, 2004). Also by 2004, Hankinson’s analysis of place branding had changed from his claim of 2001. “The branding of places is now widespread.... the recognition by marketers that branding can make an effective contribution to ... towns and cities is now well established” (Hankinson, 2004 p. 6).
In a timeframe of less than a decade, the literature on place branding has developed from a ‘not possible’ stance, to a ‘maybe,’ then to ‘a must’. Gilmore (2002) refers to ‘the risk’ of not applying brand strategy to places in that [locations] that do not seek to brand themselves, run the risk of being positioned by competitors or interest groups. For example, places like Mexico might have words such as ‘drugs,’ ‘poverty’ and ‘crime’ associated with the name ‘Mexico’ by people who have not actually been there but may have been influenced by American-made movies for example. The impact of the movie ‘Midnight Express’ upon the reputation of Turkey (Mutlu, 2005) is an example of a movie ‘managing the brand.’ Finucan (2002) makes the point that a multitude of modern communication options has the ability to influence the reputation of a place almost instantly, where previously a location’s reputation was forged over decades. Mommas (2003 p.34) suggests that place branding is associated primarily with the “economically inspired desire to position cities more positively in the midst of a scaled-up, more mobile and flooded market of locations and destinations.”

An example of the growing interest and importance of place marketing is the launch by the Institute of Place Management in conjunction with the Association of Town Centre Management (ATCM), and the Manchester Metropolitan University Business School (MMUBS). The Journal of Place Management and Development publishes articles on “the management, marketing and development of places worldwide and aims to further the knowledge of people working in areas such as town centre management, neighbourhood renewal or tourism,” (Institute of Place Management, 2007).
Contemporary authors in place branding argue that the application of brand principles to places is vital if places are to survive and be one of the “favoured few” (Kotler, Haider et al., 1993 p. 4) in a world of greater competitiveness between places. It is the intention of this research to respond to this challenge.

1.5 Place Branding Practice

There are a growing number of cases of governments making commitments towards place marketing strategies. The brand consultancy Whisper (2007) provides many examples of place branding initiatives in Europe, United States of America and Africa. In Australia place branding is evident at all levels of government. In New South Wales a number of local government authorities have become involved in marketing and branding strategies. Such a role is supported by the relevant legislation with Chapter 3 of the Local Government Act NSW (1993) setting out the charter of a local council which includes, “to exercise community leadership”. Further, Chapter 6 of the legislation confers the service or non-regulatory functions and provides a “non exhaustive list” which includes inter alia “industry development and assistance” and “tourism development and assistance”. These functions are in keeping with the explanation of place marketing provided earlier. By way of example to demonstrate the growing interest in and acceptance of, place branding, the Blue Mountains City Council in 2007 won an award for Local Government Management Excellence for its application of brand principles, details of which are provided in Figure 1.2.
Local government has embraced corporate concepts such as business units, customer service and benchmarking but not too many councils have set out to flog a “brand”.

Blue Mountains City Council has done just that and won the gold award for sustainability in our 2007 Local Government Management Excellence Awards.

The World Heritage-listed Blue Mountains is the “brand” and sustainability is the “product”. If a local business undergoes training for economic, environmental and social sustainability it is permitted to use the Blue Mountains brand and logo to promote itself as “being at another level”.

The program is called Blue Mountains Business Advantage and is part of the council’s 25-year vision, Towards a More Sustainable Blue Mountains.

Developed by the council in partnership with Blue Mountains Tourism and BIZNET, the local Chamber of Commerce, the program aims to unite tourism, business, council and the community under a common branding and to promote the image of the Blue Mountains as a World Heritage destination.

In addition to the above example, in a report into tourism for the New South Wales Government, O’Neill (2008 p. 89) recommended that:

“A Brand Sydney entity (Global Sydney Pty Ltd) be formed as a joint vehicle for key government and private sector organisations to coordinate their activities in shaping and promoting Brand Sydney across the full domain of Sydney’s global identity, including tourism, events, corporate, education, arts and other intellectual endeavours.”
This recommendation demonstrates not only the interest in place branding but its application beyond tourism.

Despite the growing practice of place branding, both practitioners and academics are calling for more research. As will be shown in more detail in the literature review in Chapter 2, while the benefits of place branding are recognised, there are uncertainties about the issues of implementation of place brands. It is these issues which guided the identification of the need for research.

1.6 The Identification of the Research Need

Section 1.4 identified the academic interest in place branding, as evidenced by academic publications, as well as actual cases of implementation. Despite this interest, the ‘newness’ of this field, as well as reports of varying levels of success, supports the need to undertake research. It is worth noting that initially the research topic proposed was “the role and influence of community leaders in communicating the place brand”. However, as will be explained in Chapter 3, the application of an inductive research approach using case studies, found that there was a more pressing problem in need of research. It was found that in some instances community leaders were not even given a role in the place brand implementation stage.

As an example, a person in charge of the place brand in one location said:

“The Chamber of Commerce, all of them were very supportive. They didn't actually do anything, but they were very supportive, ”

And in another location:

“... the leadership in the community wasn't backing [name].”

Another respondent claimed with reference to their brand strategy:
“I don’t think that even the brand has been managed that well... ad hoc use. There is no sort of guide ... I think they need some kind of implementation plan ... there needs to be a bit more research on how to actually implement it and make sure that it is taken up mainstream.”

It became apparent early-on that a more pressing need was an investigation of the broader process of implementing a place brand rather than a sole focus on the role of community leaders. This will be the focus of the literature review in Chapter 2.

1.7 Objective of the Research

The aim of this thesis is to undertake empirical research in place branding. A case study methodology is utilised with the objective of developing a framework of place brand implementation which will contribute to theory and as well make a practitioner contribution by providing a ‘how to’ guide to assist those charged with the implementation of a place brand. Importantly however, it is emphasised that the focus of the study is on the internal implementation of the place brand rather than the communication of the brand to its external markets. Similar to corporate brand strategy (Vallaster and de Chernatony, 2006), there seems no point implementing the brand externally if the senior management team of the place, its community leaders (Kerr, Noble et al., 2007) and its local citizens do not accept the strategy and may even openly criticize it.
1.8 Structure of Thesis

This thesis is organised into thirteen (13) chapters with the numbering, title and purpose as shown in Table 1.1 below.

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<td>Explains how the application of marketing has broadened from consumer goods to corporate level marketing and more recently to places. The chapter concludes by identifying the research need, the objectives and the structure of the thesis.</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>The first objective is to demonstrate that the researcher has a breadth of understanding of the topic. An overview of the meaning and application of brands is provided. Evidence is provided showing the increasing academic and practitioner interest in place branding and the calls for research. The second objective is to identify and justify the need for the work.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Methodology</td>
<td>With reference to the nature of the research question and studies undertaken to date, the research methodology is explained and justified.</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>The Selected Cases</td>
<td>The purpose of this brief chapter is to introduce the cases and explain why the cases were selected.</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>The Framework of Place Brand Implementation</td>
<td>This chapter provides an overview to the framework and the five developed stages [activating, energising, concepting, expanding and re-energising] which explain the process of place brand implementation.</td>
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<td>6 - 10</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>Theoretical Contribution</td>
<td>This chapter compares and contrasts the framework with existing literature with the aim of arguing the validity of the findings.</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>Practitioner Contribution</td>
<td>The practitioner implications are examined including the better understanding and improved likelihood of success of place brand implementation.</td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>The shortcomings of the research are identified and an agenda for further research is suggested.</td>
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Table 1.1 Structure of Thesis
1.9 Conclusion

This chapter has provided a background to development, and by way of examples, the growing interest in place marketing. Based on the information provided, it is concluded that there is need for academic and practitioner research in place marketing. The previous section presented the structure of this thesis. The next chapter addresses the literature that is relevant to this research.
CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction
The literature in three relevant areas has been assessed. First, a general overview of the meaning and application of brands is undertaken to provide the necessary background for this work. Second, a focused review of corporate brands is undertaken as authors including Olins (1999), Anholt (2002), Trueman, Klemm and Giroud (2004) and Kavaratzis (2005) suggest that despite the additional complexities of place brands, the foundation to better understand place brands is found in the study of corporate brands. This review is important as it will have relevance to what will be shown as ‘enfolding the literature’ (Eisenhardt, 1989) as any theoretical contribution to place brand implementation should compare and contrast the existing relevant literature. Third, the need for more research in place branding is established which leads to the identification of the research problem and the originality of this study.

2.2 The Meaning of Brand
The definition of a brand adopted by the American Marketing Association (2005) is commonly referred to in the literature on brands. A brand is “a name, term, sign, symbol, or design, or a combination of them intended to identify...and to differentiate.” Hankinson and Cowking (2003) reviewed the definitions of brands and brand terminology and identified four “streams of conceptualisation”. First brands can be used to communicate. This is the input orientation to branding. This has consistency with the AMA definition in that a brand can identify and
differentiate. Petromilli, Morrison et al. (2002 p. 23) argue that logos, taglines, jingles, and spokespeople are merely representations of the brand. They claim that the actual brand is how customers think and feel about the business or the product. This is consistent with Hankinson’s second criteria of brand conceptualisation – the output orientation to branding. As a ‘perceptual entity’ a brand can appeal to the reason or emotion of the consumer. The third characteristic identified by Hankinson and Cowking is that of brands as value enhancers. It is argued that brands can create value. This relates to the term ‘brand equity’. The accounting literature provides methods of calculating the value of a brand. A common approach is to use net present value methods applied to the additional profit that the brand is expected to generate in the future (Clifton and Maughan, 2000). Branding acquires its power because the brand can surpass the actual product as a company's central asset (van Ham, 2001).

Given the value of brands, the laws of many countries allow brands to be registered and protected. This applies not only to product and corporate brands but there are now cases of places seeking to register their geographic name or an associated logo or tagline as a trade mark. The registration of the brand name ‘Surf City USA’ by Huntington Beach, Los Angeles, caused a great deal of controversy, particularly from government and business interests in ‘the competing’ Santa Cruz, San Francisco which had been using the same brand name to promote their location (Elsworth, 2005).

In addition to the example of Huntington Beach, Maher (2005) in The Australian reported that Byron Council in northern NSW is seeking legal advice on making
its name a brand, meaning in this situation to register Byron Bay as a trademark, “in a bid to stop outside businesses cashing in on its reputation.” These instances are examples of the growing level of awareness on the part of place administrations to manage and protect their brand. In future governments may seek to trademark their geographic brand. Perhaps in the future governments may even charge for the use of a geographic name in a business name. Florek and Insch (2008 p. 304) in their study of New Zealand argue:

“… ownership and protection of country trademarks are central issues that need to be made explicit with appropriate governance mechanisms in place to ensure the integrity and longevity of the country brand.”

Following on from the input orientation, the output orientation and value enhancing characteristics of brands, the fourth dimension of brand conceptualisation identified by Hankinson and Cowking (2003) is the role brands play in building relationships. Authors including Kapferer (2001) and Sweeney and Chew (2002) take this notion further to argue that a brand has its own personality and can possess human-like traits, for example friendliness, trustworthiness and reliability. The relational paradigm of brand is important particularly at the organisational level as the associations and relationships that a brand has, can ultimately, contribute to the interpretation and the level of acceptance on the part of the consumer. Schwartz (2004) suggests that the point of advertising is often not to provide consumers with useful decision making information, but to sell brands. The relational paradigm can be expanded further from being a relationship created between a product and a customer to a relationship between the brand and the customer.
The brand management term ‘brand portfolio’ (Aaker, 2004) has a focus on the use of the brand to form relationships by way of using the brand not only to define products and corporations but to include endorsements and sponsorships. Corporations can extend their brand to include naming rights of sports stadiums and city buildings as a means of using their brand to form relationships with existing and potential customers. This approach is well illustrated by an example of the Miller Beer brand and its relationships with products, sporting teams and sponsorships (Lederer and Hill, 2001).

2.3 Applications of Brand
As well as addressing relationships, perceptions, and differentiation, Morgan (1999) suggests that a brand is something that *is created* rather than something that is naturally occurring. Today brands are studied within the context of a number of disciplines including accounting, marketing, psychology, management, and law. In marketing, brands were initially developed and applied to products in consumer goods markets. Today brands can be applied to people (e.g. politicians and entertainers), corporations, and places (Morgan, 1999). It is important to have an understanding as to the various applications of brand, as this knowledge is useful to provide a foundation for the development and understanding of place names as brands. It is envisaged that place branding will have both similarities and differences to other brand applications.

2.3.1 Product Brand
Product brands are important to marketers, particularly in the case of ‘fast moving consumer goods’ (FMCG) when there is little physical differentiation between products. The brand, or associations with the brand, becomes important in the
consumer’s selection process. Heibing and Cooper (2003 p.144) argue branding is synonymous with positioning; the thought triggered in the mind of the consumer when he/she hears the brand name.

“Brand positioning is a process of establishing and managing the images, perceptions, and associations that the consumer applies to a product based on the values and beliefs associated with the product”.

Market researchers often seek to identify the attributes that are associated (or should be associated) with a product. The findings can then be incorporated into a promotional campaign (as part of the marketing mix) to position the product in the mind of the consumer. This task relates to the ‘brand as communicators’ role referred to by Hankinson (2003). Descriptive words implying such characteristics as quality, reliability, and freshness might be important attributes used to position a product brand in the mind of the consumer.

### 2.3.2 People as Brands

Many famous people throughout history have often achieved notoriety with the assistance of a number of almost trademark like brand characteristics. As Bernstein (2003) states, Churchill was not backward in branding himself - cigar, V sign and siren suit. Today, with increased knowledge of brands, many politicians are managed according to brand principles. Ronald Reagan and Margaret Thatcher are examples (Clifton and Maughan, 2000) and Prime Minister Tony Blair was considered to have been rebranded during his time in office (Scammell, 2007). Entertainers such as Madonna and Kylie Minogue are managed as a brand. As their brand value has increased, these and other entertainers have been able to extend their brand name into new categories including fashion, food and travel. The Chief Executive Officers of many well known companies have become
brands in their own right. Burbury (2004) reports that some CEOs have become the face of the company. Examples include Bill Gates and Microsoft, Richard Branson and Virgin, John Symond and Aussie Home Loans, Gerry Harvey and Harvey Norman.

Sporting personalities are also brands and can be seen as part of the brand architecture of the code within which they play. In Australia in recent years, it has been found that these ‘branded persons’ can damage the master brand (i.e. the sports code) when the media reports on their off-field exploits - sex scandals, drunken brawls, drug use - and ‘bring the game into disrepute’ (Barrett, 2007).

It seems that sporting codes are increasingly aware of the value of their brand and the damage which may result if their entire brand portfolio is not carefully managed.

2.3.3 Corporate Brand

As well as its range of products, a corporation’s name fits the definition of a brand – a name used to identify and differentiate. Sampson (2004) informs readers that there is now greater recognition of the importance and power of the corporate brand by businesses that, only a few years ago, might not even have considered that they owned a brand. There are three reasons for this. First, many products now experience a short product life-cycle and there is less justification to allocate funds towards the product brand. Second, many companies operate in diversified industries and therefore focus on their corporate brand so as to extend their brand not only across product categories but also across industries. Third, as Clifton and Simmons (2004, p.24) state:

“Corporations have learned how important it is to be understood and appreciated, not just by investors, customers, suppliers and employees but also by opinion formers, activist groups and the general public… with the
advent of the internet … companies find themselves increasingly in the ‘global fish-bowl’ where damaging news or opinions travel fast and wide.”

Increasingly companies are aware of the importance of managing their brand and build what is referred to as reputational capital or stakeholder capital (Boyce and Ville, 2002). Clifton and Simmons argue that the companies that are known for the quality of their products or services, their integrity and the transparency of their actions are the ones best placed to sustain competitive advantage. An example given to illustrate what can go wrong is the case of BHP Pty. Ltd. when in the 1990s, increased public and media scrutiny saw the reputation of the company move from ‘commercial success’ to ‘environmental and social vandal’ as a result of its management of the Ok Tedi Mine in New Guinea (Hanson and Stuart, 2001).

Some corporations may decide to manage their brands in a manner that ‘hides’ the corporate brand from the product brands to which the consumer relates. Lederer and Hill (2001) report that Phillip Morris, widely known as a tobacco company, manages its brand portfolio in a way that its ownership of Miller Beer is not associated with the corporate ‘Phillip Morris’ brand. This technique is referred to as a ‘house of brands’ strategy by Petromilli, Morrison et al. (2002) where a company decides to promote a portfolio of business brands or product brands and take a low key approach to its corporate brand. In contrast, an opposing strategy is the ‘branded house’ in which case a company identifies all its business units and products with the corporate brand. Companies such as Microsoft and Sony are recognised as adopters of this strategy. The brand strategies adopted by companies may also have relevance for the brand management of places given that similarities could be drawn from large diversified companies which face the task
of managing a complex and sometimes conflicting brand portfolio and places which also have the complexities of appealing to different markets and dealing with the vast array of stakeholder interests.

Corporate brand knowledge, similar to place brand knowledge has developed from multidisciplinary sources. An ‘audit trail’ showing the development of corporate branding has been provided by Knox and Bickerton (2003) and is reproduced in Figure 2.1 below.

![Figure 2.1 The Development of Literature on Corporate Branding](source: Knox and Bickerton (2003 p.1002))

As can be seen from Figure 2.1, image identity and reputation are also relevant constructs when considering corporate branding. These constructs will be given more attention in Section 2.4. As shown by the timeframe in Figure 2.1, (1956-2000) corporate branding is also a relatively new field. He and Balmer (2007 p. 776) suggest an agenda for research calling for further empirical studies “largely drawing on inductive and theory building methodologies.”
2.3.4 Destination Brand

It is within the context of tourism marketing that product and corporate brand knowledge has been initially applied to places. A destination brand is defined as:

“"A name, symbol, logo, word or other graphic that both identifies and differentiates the destination; furthermore, it conveys the promise of a memorable travel experience that is uniquely associated with the destination; it also serves to consolidate and reinforce the recollection of pleasurable memories of destination experience" (Ritchie and Ritchie, 1998, p.17).

This definition fits with much of the tourism marketing literature in that the core of the tourism product is ‘the experience’. Essentially the destination brand has a focus on the tourist market as shown in Figure No. 2.2.

![Diagram of Destination Brand]

Figure 2.2 The Destination Brand
Source (Kerr, 2005)

The tourism marketing literature acknowledges the existence and success of destination brand strategies; notably the works of Morgan and Pritchard et al. (2004). However, there are also a number of issues emerging from the tourism literature that are likely to impact on future destination brand practices and these may present a timely opportunity to contribute to the development of brand strategies as they can be applied holistically to places. For example, Prideaux and Cooper (2002) claim that often tourist associations have a stronger focus on
administrative efficiency than on the desired market and its segments which it should exist to service. Ryan (1991) explains that often only part of the marketing mix is applied to tourism i.e. promotion. Buhalis (2000 p.99) calls for the adoption of societal marketing strategies “by generating satisfaction among interacting tourists and hosts.”

The growing critical analysis of tourism marketing and destination brand practices presents a timely opportunity for this research to examine the potential role of place branding.

2.3.5 Place Brand

A distinction between destination brand and place brand, as shown in Figure 2.3, is made by Kerr (2006). Place branding should take into consideration all available markets, as identified by (Kotler, Haider et al., 1993), prioritise them, and identify the relationships between each. Anholt (2004 p. 37) states:

"It is important to remember that branding a country is not the same thing as promoting tourism. The promotion of tourism obviously occupies more common ground with nation-branding than any other aspect of a country's external affairs, but it is merely part of the whole."

The interpretation of these relationships and how they are managed is consistent with the general literature on brands in the context of brand architecture and brand portfolio, (Kapferer, 2001; Aaker, 2004).
There are at least two important issues with regard to a transition from destination brand to place brand.

The first is the viability and prioritisation of markets and second is the compatibility of each. In accordance with marketing principles, a location brand strategy should assess whether targeted markets are viable – even more so if public funds are being utilised to assist local industries operate in these markets. The second issue, compatibility, should be considered in terms of brand architecture. There should be synergy between target markets. A location can associate its brand with industries, lifestyle or with other locations either in terms of a cluster (Porter, 2000) or part of an ‘architecture’. A city may choose to link with the national brand characteristics. On some occasions this may be inappropriate. Hughes (2005) reports on the Victorian Tourism Minister’s criticism of Tourism Australia’s brand promise of ‘wilderness’, ‘wildlife’ and ‘adventure’ when his state is tying to promote ‘culture’, ‘lifestyle’ and ‘events’. To
quote the minister, “the Chinese are shit scared of crocodiles” and he sees the Tourism Australia brand as “irrelevant if not harmful for Victoria's key tourism targets” included in its big event strategy. This statement has implications for developing a better understanding of the brand management of places in Australia. This author questions the appropriateness of a ‘branded house architecture’ to brand a nation as remote and diverse as Australia to a multitude of domestic and international markets. Hankinson (2001) refers to the concept of nation brand architecture as it inter-relates to the ‘sub-brands’ of states, provinces, regions, cities and towns with reference to the analogy of “Russian Dolls” (meaning that one fits within the other). The opportunity now exists with modern communications for regions and cities, should they wish to do so, to bypass the national brand and take their brand direct to domestic and international markets. This presents an exciting opportunity for cities and regions in the years to come.

Dealing with conflicting interests amongst stakeholders is not only an issue for place marketers but is a continuous struggle for local government officials, particularly town planners. Finnucan (2002 p.10) suggests that there are similarities between the role of town planners and place marketers:

“The city branding process brings together a broad range of stakeholders to assess an area's tangible and intangible benefits, identify opportunities, and build support for a vision statement. And, like a plan, a brand can provide a framework for future decision making. When disputes arise over community priorities … the question that should be asked is whether the proposal is "true to the brand."

This work has commenced with an introduction to the marketing of places, identified the meanings of brand and introduced applications of brand to products, corporations, tourism destinations and to places. There is growing interest and
justification for places to develop and implement place brand strategies. It is now appropriate to examine available definitions of place brand.

2.3.6 Definitions of Place Branding

Place branding is often driven by a desire for economic and social change on the part of government. Many place strategies are reactionary to increased competition and economic and social decline. Table 2.1 provides a number of recent definitions which illustrate the social, economic and even political dimensions to place branding. Anholt’s 2004 definition by commencing with the rider ‘for the time being’ reflects the newness of place branding and perhaps anticipates forthcoming contributions to the literature. The broader scope of place branding when compared to destination branding should be noted.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author (Year)</th>
<th>Definitions of Place Branding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lodge (2002)</td>
<td>“…the identification of competitive positioning and a collectivized reason to ‘buy’ across the economic spectrum: inward investment, culture, education, tourism and the export of produce and products.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mommas (2003)</td>
<td>“…is associated primarily with the economically inspired desire to position cities more positively in the midst of a scaled-up, more mobile and flooded market of locations and destinations. Cities have to be shaped emphatically, thematized and brought to the attention of the more mobile and less location-dependent companies, inhabitants and visitors.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anholt (2004)</td>
<td>“…for the time being, … the practice of applying brand strategy and other marketing techniques and disciplines to the economic, social, political and cultural development of cities, regions and countries”.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Swysten (2005) | “… the strategy for defining the most realistic, most competitive and most compelling strategic vision for a country, region or city; this vision then has to be fulfilled and communicated. Place branding is not a logo, an advertising campaign, or a collection of tourism brochures. Successful places have realized that they have a brand whether they like it or not and have chosen to manage their brand proactively and positively”.
| Dinnie (2008) | “the unique, multi-dimensional blend of elements that provide the nation with culturally grounded differentiation and relevance for all of its target audiences” |

Table 2.1 Definitions of Place Branding
Place brand management is defined by Kerr (2007) as:

“The act of communicating the place brand in a manner to deservedly influence the meaning of the location in the minds of the people who matter to the future of the location”.

Anholt (2007 p. 7) has now updated his 2004 definition to being,

Place branding is the management of place image through strategic innovation and coordinated economic, commercial, social, cultural, and government policy.

Anholt (2007 p. 7) now places emphasis on what he refers to as “competitive identity” which is a “synthesis of brand management with public diplomacy and with trade, investments, tourism and export promotion.”

There is now general acceptance in the literature that a place name is a brand. “The idea that countries behave rather like brands is now fairly familiar to most marketers, and to many economists and politicians…[it] is now gaining broader acceptance, and its value is pretty well understood…” (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 2002 p. 294). Hanmin cited in Gilmore and Dumont (2003 p. 51) states that a city can definitely be a brand. He suggests what is important is not necessarily the geographical area or size of the population but the unique characteristics and values that differentiate one city from another. Olins (2002 p. 246) gives examples of nations that have successfully applied a brand strategy in a more competitive global environment. “The nation that makes itself the most attractive wins the prizes – others suffer. Scotland is OK. …other countries of a similar size say Slovakia or Slovenia, are not so fortunate.” Lindsay (2004 p. 4) suggests that geographic names are brands. She defines a brand as an executive summary of all the expectations, thoughts, feelings and associations we carry in our minds.

“Nations, states, and regions all over the world are now effectively engaging in
proactive brand marketing to win coveted high tech jobs, and the brain power and venture capital that fuel them.”

A more recent contribution to practice has been made by Baker (2007) who has written a text, *Destination Branding for Small Cities* in which he provides a step process for destination branding. His text is based on “three decades of experiences at the forefront in destination marketing and branding” (Baker 2007 p.7).

Rusch (2003), with reference to City of Johannesburg (Figure 2.4), identified the option of formally branding a city to a worldwide audience.

![Johannesburg](image)

*Figure 2.4 Johannesburg*
*Source: Rusch (2003)*

“From Singapore to Spain, Estonia to Saudi Arabia, it seems the unbranded state is no longer worth living in.” Branding [the] city or state is not just coming up with a snappy tagline or throwing up a logo. There’s a lot of strategic research [required]… including what sort of business or visitor is most desired, and what features will in turn be attractive to these groups.”

This view is consistent with the marketing approach to identify and segment potential markets. As Finucan (2002) states, city branding is a holistic experience and includes everything from signage to car parks.
2.3.7 The Corporate Brand-Place Brand Analogy

Those that question the ability to manage a place brand need to be reminded of the size and diversity of large corporations that undoubtedly share the conflicts of interests and political agendas of a location, and yet need to effectively manage the corporate brand. Corporations, like places, often have many unrelated industries, products and different cultures. Similar to Hutton’s reference to corporate brands (Boyce and Ville, 2002), places are essentially “social organisations.” As with a corporation, a place has a number of options when considering its brand architecture i.e. a ‘branded house’ or a ‘house of brands’ strategy (Petromilli, Morrison et al., 2002). Kent and Walker (2000) despite referring to some successful case studies, question the practice of developing a single brand campaign for multiple purposes. Olins (2002 p.247) states that he is not suggesting that branding the nation is the same as branding a company – only that many of the techniques are similar. Anholt (2004) argues that a country should not be thought of not as a ‘product brand,’ but a ‘country as corporate brand.’

Notwithstanding the additional complexity of place branding, the relevance of corporate branding to place branding has been established (Anholt, 2002; Trueman, Klemm et al., 2004; Kavaratzis, 2005). Kavaratzis (2004) states, “…there are common characteristics … that support the suggestion that the framework for understanding city brands is provided by corporate brands and their management.” While providing a sound foundation, it should not be assumed that corporate brand practices can simply be transferred to a place brand strategy. The reasons for this are provided below.
2.3.8 The Complexity of Place Brands

Olins (2002) recognises that although branding businesses and nations do have a lot in common, it is dangerous to take the analogies too far. This can be illustrated with reference to the work of Baht (2004) who provides the additional complexities of destination branding which in the case of place branding may be just as applicable. The ‘additional complexities’ of place brands include the following.

First, place brands require multilateral alliances throughout the network of a community and beyond. Green (2005 p. 280) states that while working with stakeholders is a familiar concept, “the stakeholder matrix is considerably more complex in a place branding project.”

Second, the nature of those participating in a place brand alliance varies from fully profit-orientated, to partly commercial to non-commercial stakeholders - including local businesses, industry groups, governments, charities, schools, as well as local residents.

Third, being different from the more 'traditional' strategic alliance, there may be no choice within the partner selection process. The potential strategic partners exist within the place in which they have in common. There is not the opportunity to look elsewhere for possible partners.

Fourth, collaboration may not involve equity participation and may occur without any written contract or no clear boundaries to the scope of the alliance. There may
be no clear or separate management structure for the alliance. While the support of stakeholders might be important, it is unlikely that stakeholders will have equity participation, let alone a contractual and structural arrangement insisting on commitment and accountability. Places do not have the same rigid control mechanisms which exist in organisations (Hankinson, 2001).

Fifth, having a geographic focus, not only is there is a limited choice of strategic partners but the possibility that some of the desired strategic partners deciding not to participate - or worse still embark on a brand strategy of their own. There is the possibility that a number and even conflicting brands may be promoted at the same time for the same place.

Sixth, when compared to corporations, places are less able to exclude groups of users or stakeholders (Kavaratzis and Ashworth, 2007).

2.3.9 The Management of the Corporate Brand

Given that the literature, as discussed Section 2.2.7, identifies the similarities between the corporate brand and the place brand, an overview of some of the important issues in corporate brand management is provided.

**A Senior Management Role**

In the corporate realm, Wood (2000) suggested that the management of brands is a high-level function. Uncle's and Cocks *et al.* (1995 p.3) insist that, "if brands do have value, then the way a company uses its portfolio of brands is a top management decision." Leitch and Richardson (2003) see the corporate brand as the responsibility of the CEO and should be managed within the context of the
organisation’s strategic plan. Balmer and Greyser (2003 p.7) suggest that corporate level marketing “will be multidisciplinary in scope and will have a more strategic/senior management role.” Senior management are faced with the challenge to clearly define and communicate the brand values internally (de Chernatony, 1999; Gotsi and Wilson, 2001). King and Grace (2005) found that managers have a role in helping to guide employee behaviour to deliver a service that is aligned with the brand.

Corporate Strategy and the Corporate Brand

Hatch and Schultz (2003) as shown in Figure 2.5 argue that successful corporate branding rests on a foundation of interplay between strategic vision, organisational culture and corporate image.

![Diagram: Successful Corporate Branding](image)

**Figure 2.5 Successful Corporate Branding**
*Source: Hatch and Schultz (2003)*

Figure 2.5 also supports the claim that corporate branding is a high-level function within the organisation as ultimately it is senior management who should plan for the image, culture and vision of the organisation.
A Stakeholder Approach

Hatch and Shultz (2003) identify important stakeholders as including, employees, customers, investors, suppliers, partners, regulators, special interest groups and local communities. Freeman (1984) defined stakeholders as any group that is affected by, or can affect, organizational activities. Polonsky and Scott (2005 p. 1199) maintain that stakeholder theory suggests that:

“Organisations that address their stakeholders’ interests will somehow perform ‘better’ than firms that do not address these groups’ interests.”

The stakeholder approach is also consistent with the move from the customer focused marketing concept to the more holistic marketing concept which includes relationship marketing, integrated marketing, internal marketing and social responsibility marketing (Kotler and Keller, 2007). King and Grace (2005) state that as major stakeholders employees are viewed as playing a crucial role in brand management as they facilitate the interface between the organization and the market. It is, therefore, essential that employees' behaviour is consistent and reinforces the stated values and benefits of the corporate brand. If inconsistent, the credibility of the brand will be undermined. Management support is considered to be the single most important component in guiding employee behaviour (George, 1990; Harris and de Chernatony, 2001; Pulendran et al., 2000). Employees' ability to deliver on the communicated brand promise consistently is suggested to be dependent on the employee's awareness of the brand (McDonald et al., 2001; Harris and de Chernatony, 2001; Schneider and Bowen, 1985; Balmer and Wilkinson, 1991). The important point is that there is no point projecting a brand to existing and potential customers if the employees of the company do not champion the values of the brand, or worse still, are openly critical of the
corporate brand strategy. The ability to link the promise of the corporate brand to the corporate culture is a challenge for managers and marketers. A reduced brand-culture gap can be a source of competitive advantage (de Chernatony, 1999). A similar scenario is evident in the tourism marketing literature where one challenge facing destination marketers is to encourage the host population (e.g. residents and business proprietors) to deliver on the brand promise (Buhalis, 2000).

This chapter has provided definitions and applications of brands. Prior to examining empirical studies in place branding, it is considered necessary to explain and distinguish between some terms which are used in the brand and related literature. These are image, identity and reputation.

2. 4  Image, Identity and Reputation

A body of literature has developed in the marketing of the corporate brand. There is however some confusion between the terms ‘brand’, ‘identity’, ‘image’ and ‘reputation.’ This confusion is both intra-disciplinary and interdisciplinary. Corti (2003 p. 1142) explains:

“When confronted with concepts such as corporate identity, communications, image, reputation and branding, practitioners and scholars, as well as managers and consultants, still encounter major difficulties”

Given this situation, a work suggesting an interdisciplinary framework and terminology was proposed by Brown, & Dacin et al. (2006). This framework addresses the potential relationships between the organisation and stakeholders and identifies four viewpoints of an organisation and is shown in Figure 2.6.
The proposed terminology is shown below in Figure 2.7. This figure refers to the “CED aspects” which is taken from Albert and Whetten’s (1985) definition of organizational identity referring to the central, enduring and distinctive aspects of an organisation. These are used to distinguish the constructs of identity, intended image, construed image and reputation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Viewpoint</th>
<th>Brief Description</th>
<th>All Aspects</th>
<th>CED Aspects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“Who are we as an organization?”</td>
<td>Mental associations about the organization held by organisational members</td>
<td>Member organizational associations</td>
<td>Identity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“What does the organization want others to think about the organization?”</td>
<td>Mental associations about the organization that organization leaders want important audiences to hold</td>
<td>Intended associations</td>
<td>Intended image</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“What does the organization believe others think of the organization?”</td>
<td>Mental associations that organization members believe others outside the organization hold about the organization</td>
<td>Constructured associations</td>
<td>Constructured image</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“What do stakeholders actually think of the organization?”</td>
<td>Mental associations about the organization actually held by others outside the organization</td>
<td>Corporate (organizational) associations</td>
<td>Reputation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The work of Brown & Dacin et al. (2006) does provide a useful framework for understanding and applying the concepts of image, identity and reputation.
although it does not address the role and implications of the brand and how it is managed. The CED approach has similarity with the role of a brand, being to identify and differentiate. As a brand can be created, developed, communicated and managed, it can be identified as an input, similar to Hankinson and Cowking’s (1995) input orientation to branding discussed in Section 2.1, towards the goal of establishing a desired organisational representation. According to Brown & Dacin (2006), the identity is a ‘self-definition’ of the organisation as to ‘who we are’ while the image involves internal stakeholder considerations while the reputation is the output of what stakeholders think of the organisation. Based on the definitions of a brand it is clear that a brand is closely linked to identity, intended image, construed image and reputation. The management of the brand together with other influences directed along an array of formal and informal communication channels and from a multitude of stakeholders are the likely contributors to the meaning of these constructs. Upon consideration of the foregoing literature, Figure 2.8 has been developed to suggest the pivotal role of the brand and brand management.
Figure 2.8 Brand as Communicator of Image, Identity and Reputation

Figure 2.8 suggests that the defined corporate identity combined with the intended and construed images should drive brand strategy which in turn influences the corporate reputation. Importantly Figure 2.8 suggests that the corporate reputation is not only influenced by the formalised brand strategy but competes with other images such as those delivered by the media, competitors, activist groups and governments. The argument put forward here is that if corporations (and indeed places) are not actively implementing a brand strategy to influence corporate reputation others will ‘do it for you’. With organisations, and places, there can be multiples of image, identity and reputation - some complementary, some competing.
Perhaps an important consideration with those involved in managing either corporate or place brands is dealing not only with the brand portfolio and architecture, but dealing with multiples of image, identity and reputation. It is suggested that a brand at the organisational and locational levels is pivotal in aligning image, identity and reputation. This will be a major challenge for the brand manager.

2.5 The Need for Research in Place Branding

This objective of this section is to provide evidence of the need for more research into place branding and specifically the need to better understand the process of implementing place brands. The calls for research and the studies undertaken to date show that there are many aspects of place branding that are in need of empirical research. A preliminary review of some places which had implemented a place brand strategy revealed that many had encountered problems during implementation. These comments suggested that there was a need to find out ‘what is going on out there?’ Leading authors are calling for more research into place branding. Anholt (2002p. 229), sums up these calls by stating,

“… as several authors point out, there is a remarkable paucity of real case histories to get one's teeth into, and surprisingly little work that is of direct practical application to the policy maker attempting to promote his or her country, region or city for tourism, inward investment, exports or culture.”

Papadopoulos and Heslop (2002 p. 294) with reference to country branding call for more research stating:

“What is 'understood' is the value of the idea but not necessarily the specifics of what its application might entail. This is not surprising since many of those who are involved in country branding, especially in investment-attraction programmes in the public sector, adopted the marketing approach by necessity rather than choice because their countries
or cities were on the economic 'sick list' … Stated differently, marketing a country or place is often a little-understood panacea.”

Zikmund and Babin (2007 p. 80) state that place marketing has become “very prevalent” and state that “place marketing efforts have been successful in attracting automobile manufacturing plants, high tech firms, retail developments, professional sports teams and even retirees.” They do say however that for every effort that succeeds there are many that fail.

“Even though the stakes are very high, city planners and political researchers seldom conduct research prior to implementing a place management program. Instead they fly by the “seat of the pants”! The more successful programs are backed by months, if not years, of well-planned research.”

In a call for papers by the Association for Place Branding and Public Diplomacy (2008) for their December 2008 Conference, “Marketing Cities: Place Branding in Perspective”, the claim was made:

“A distinct gap, with severe implications for place branding implementation, exists particularly between theory and practice, as communication between the two is not straightforward and no ‘common language’ has been developed.”

Similarly, in a call for papers for the special issue of the International Marketing Review, Dinnie and Melewar (2008) state:

“The field of nation branding is characterised by an increasingly large amount of real world activity, but relatively little rigorous theory building. The domain of nation branding remains under-theorised.”

Despite the calls for research referred to above, some important contributions have been made to date. Rainisto (2003) undertook a thesis which investigated the success factors of place marketing by studying practices in Northern Europe and the United States. Rainisto built upon the work of Kotler & Haider et al. (1993)
and provided 35 propositions from his four cases which identified what are the factors for successful place marketing, which includes place branding. Rainisto’s (2003) findings, gained from empirical case research in Northern Europe and the United States, have been the foundation of a recent text (Moilanen and Rainisto, 2008). The model developed from Rainisto’s (2003) research is shown in Figure 2.9.

The explanation provided by Rainisto (2003 p. 227) to explain his framework is provided below.

“The success factors inside the framework ‘prism’ represent the fundamental structures in place marketing procedures (planning group, vision and strategic analysis, place identity and place image, public-private partnerships, leadership, global marketplace, presence of substance, measurement and follow-up, strategic exploitation, organizing capacity, events in the network, events in the macroenvironment).
partnerships, and leadership). The factors on the side of the framework ‘prism’ help face the challenges in competitive situations of place marketing (political unity, global marketplace, local development and process coincidences). The third dimension of the framework is how, capability factors, strategic exploitation, existence of substance, organisational capacity and measurement and follow-up.”

Notwithstanding the identification of success factors, it is argued that there is a need to further investigate how to implement place brands. In particular, with reference to Figure 2.9, while Rainisto has a concentration on the success factors it is argued that there needs to be more focus on what he refers to as practices in his framework. These practices refer to ‘events’ at three levels, that is, in place marketing practice, in the network and in the macro environment. He refers to marketing practices as “those headed by the management team in charge of place marketing and co-ordinated by the planning group” (Rainsto p. 68).

Rainsto (2003 p. 237) issues an invitation for more research by concluding:

“This study has a limited geographic and industry focus and it is possible that the findings do not apply equally well to all countries and places with other economic and organising structures than the four case locations involved.”

Dinnie’s (2005) undertook a study of nation branding and was a qualitative inquiry into what he referred to as “an under-theorised domain in marketing”. His subsequent text (Dinnie, 2008) provides theory and practice relative to nation branding with a particular emphasis on the country-of-origin effect. Despite the benefits of Dinnie’s work on nation branding, it cannot be assumed that the findings can be applied to regions, cities or towns.

Baker (2007) in his work “Destination Branding for Small Cities” does provide advice to practitioners about how to implement a destination brand although he
concedes that his text is based on his twenty years experience in destination marketing “is not an academic expose” (p.9). Baker’s seven step destination branding process is shown in Figure 2.10.

![Figure 2.10 The Destination Branding Process](image)

Baker’s (2007 p. 72) framework acknowledges the importance of “an approach that harnesses stakeholder buy-in from the start. He states:

> “Years of community branding assignments have shown us that this is essential to generate understanding and enthusiasm for the new brand. Importantly, it reinforces the need to build the brand from the inside out and ensures that brand planners are exposed to the heart and soul of the community.”

There is scope therefore to expand the work of Baker from destination branding to place branding and to validate the work of Baker by empirical research.

The interest in place branding and place marketing has not only been investigated by marketers but has become a domain of interest for geographers, notably
Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2007; 2008). They advise that although there are similarities between corporate brands and place brands, places are not corporations and what is needed is a branding framework that applies specifically to places. Despite the argued need for place branding, there is limited evidence of structures and processes being in place to aid the success of a place brand. This research will draw on the relevant literature in both corporate brands and place brands and conduct empirical research to develop an effective framework of implementation for a place brand.

It is anticipated that the interest in place branding will continue with the launch of the specialist journals referred to earlier, as well as associations such as Association for Place Branding and Public Diplomacy established in Berlin with its mission including:

“To establish and shape place branding and public diplomacy as a distinctive discipline with its own progressive methods. The association aims to become the central network, meeting and presentation platform that unifies thought-leading academics and professionals who share a passion for knowledge intensive work in these and related areas.” (Association for Place Branding and Public Diplomacy, 2008)

This section reveals that despite studies to date there is much to be done particularly in understanding the process of place branding. As Lindsay (2004) mentions a brand is an executive summary of all the expectations, thoughts, feelings and associations we carry in our minds about the product it represents. The next section deals with the suggestion that a place brand is an aspirational summary of the place it seeks to identify and differentiate.
2.6 Aspirational Place Branding

Referring to the claim of Kotler, Haider et al., (1993) that almost all places are in trouble, there is evidence that many place marketing and branding initiatives are in response to an economic downturn (Mant, 2008). Ecorys Research and Consulting, (2008) refer to a city not as a product but a producer of products and services and despite the number of people and companies that contribute to the city’s production there is:

“One central-problem owner and this is the local or regional public and democratic government which has an overall responsibility for the city’s performance and is also a producer in some fields.”

Ecorys go further to state that:

“A sharp identification of a city’s problem is the first step in the process of place marketing. There should be a (serious) problem, now or in the future. Experience shows that without a ‘sense of urgency’ there will never be any true commitment of public and private partners to the marketing process.”

The point made by Ecorys may well serve to demonstrate what might be a marked difference between the management of a corporate brand and a place brand. It seems that from the cases studied and from the claim by Ecorys, place branding in practice at this time is still very much a reactionary strategy i.e. motivated by a ‘sense of urgency’. For example in an Australian context, both the cities of Newcastle and Wollongong in New South Wales seemed to become involved in place marketing with the pending economic downturn, and in the case of Newcastle, the eventual closure of the steelworks, being one of its largest businesses. Place branding can be aligned to a strategy for a place. In the context of increasing competition, many places resort to branding as a part of a ‘turnaround strategy’. Consistent with Kotler and Haider’s (1993) warning referred to earlier about places in trouble, it was found that the place brands researched in this
study were a reaction to problems including poor image, loss of population and a declining industry base. For this reason, place branding for the most part is ‘aspirational’ and is done in the context of a vision for the future by government leaders and within a political and geographic setting – Morgan and Pritchard (2004 p. 4) refer to the “political act of place branding”. Van Ham (2001 p. 2) refers to the changing role of politicians.

“To do their jobs well in the future, politicians will have to train themselves in brand asset management. Their tasks will include finding a brand niche for their state, engaging in competitive marketing, assuring customer satisfaction, and most of all, creating brand loyalty.”

To further support the claim that place branding for the most part is ‘aspirational’ Valerio, Baker and Gulloch (1999 p.76) in their Wollongong Image study recommended:

“… the theme “innovation” be adopted as an inclusive approach that can be presented as aspirational for all residents and organisations … It can also serve to raise the City’s overall competitive advantage … in terms of investment, tourism and lifestyle perspective.”

Place branding therefore seems to be about the aspirations of a place as it deals with its present condition and seeks to bring about change to position itself more favourably in the market for places. Baker (2007) argues that the majority of city branding involves repositioning, which may range from attempting to change the perception of the place in the minds of stakeholders, to reinventing which may require major capital works and a radical departure from the past. For these reasons it is argued that place branding is a statement about the aspirations of the place it is to identify and differentiate.
2.7 Conclusion

This chapter has provided a review of the meaning and application of brands; has discussed the similarities and differences between the corporate brand and the place brand; discussed the meaning and relationship between image, identity, reputation and brand; and has demonstrated that there is a need for more research in place branding. This thesis is to contribute to knowledge and professional practice by providing a framework which improves the understanding of the process of place brand implementation. By conducting an empirical study of the process of implementing aspirational place brands, this study will address the following research question:

‘How are aspirational place brands implemented?’

The contribution of this study is that it will focus on the dynamics of place brand implementation and supported by empirical data will make a specific and important contribution to existing knowledge on place branding.

The next chapter recommends the appropriate methodological process and approach to this research.
CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

3. 1 Introduction
The purpose of this chapter is to explain and justify the *approach* and *process* applied to address the research question. This chapter demonstrates the important linkage which exists between the research question, the research context and the research paradigm. In the human world there are differences in beliefs and attitudes about reality (ontology), (Corbin and Strauss, 2008) and the knowledge of that reality (epistemology), (Sale, Lohfeld *et al.*, 2002; Guba, 1990). Despite these philosophical differences, there is a shared commitment towards the discovery of knowledge as well as the application of the scientific method to research which permits any solution to a problem, however obtained, but rejects it unless it is in accord with the evidence (Bassey, 1968). The collection of data, that is, the evidence or the raw material of research (Gillham, 2000), and its interpretation will also be given attention in this chapter although an overview of research paradigms is first provided.

3. 2 Research Paradigms in the Social and Behavioural Sciences
A research project in the social and behavioural sciences may be influenced by the researcher’s ‘view of the world’ – an adopted ontology and epistemology derived most likely from mentors, supervisors, fellow researchers and readings. The research paradigm or “cluster of beliefs ... dictates ... for scientists in a particular discipline ... what should be studied, how research should be done, [and] how results should be interpreted” (Bryman, 1988 p. 4).
Researchers to some extent can be categorised by their fundamental research beliefs and their approach to research, that is, the research paradigm(s) within which they work. These are influential in the methodological approach and process as well as methods of data collection and analysis. Importantly as will be shown below, the methodologies are often founded on different ontological and epistemological realities and use methods that are designed to identify or measure different phenomena. For example, research undertaken within the positivist paradigm would argue that science is characterised by empirical research which can identify constructs or concepts (items of interest) which can represent the truth. There is a belief in ‘objective reality’ in which the researcher is very separate from the research - “inquiry takes place as through a one way mirror” (Guba and Lincoln, 1994 p. 110). Positivists are usually interested in causal relationships and most commonly use a quantitative approach involving experiments and surveys, the latter comprising of structured questionnaires. Having a different approach, research conducted within the interpretivist and the constructivist paradigms adopt an ontology based on multiple realities. Reality is constantly changing and is based on the researcher’s involvement and interpretation. These researchers are usually more interested in processes and meanings. Perry (1998) provides more detail about research paradigms but essentially when compared, the researchers have different beliefs about reality and they utilise different research methods as they seek to research different phenomena.

As will be explained in more detail throughout this chapter, this research is undertaken within a constructivist paradigm as the research is seeking to
understand the *process* of place brand implementation of which the identification and interpretation of multiple realities by the researcher is deemed to be important in addressing this type of research question.

Figure 3.1, developed by the writer’s review of the research literature, provides a conceptual explanation as to how research is influenced by the ontology, epistemology, and methodology.

![Figure 3.1 The Philosophical Foundations of Social Science Research](image)

**Figure 3.1 The Philosophical Foundations of Social Science Research**

3.3 **Research Methodologies**

Sale and Lohfeld *et al.* (2002) indicate that methodology refers to the processes used to obtain knowledge of ‘that’ reality identified by the adopted ontology and epistemology - (Figure 3.1 demonstrates the relationship between ontology, epistemology and methodology). What is proposed here is that there are two
important dimensions to methodology. One is the process while the other is the approach.

The first dimension - process - is provided by Yin (1994) who suggests that there are five ‘ways’ to undertake research in social science – experiment, survey, case study, histories, and analysis of archival information [Yin also refers to these as ‘strategies’ as shown in Table 3.1 in the next section]. It is suggested that these ‘ways’ are the processes used to obtain knowledge of ‘that’ reality – the methodologies.

The second dimension of methodology relates to the approach to the research given the purpose and context of the research question, that is, what is the research question seeking to find and what body of knowledge exists? Bryman (2004) identifies two different methodological approaches – the inductive (theory building) and deductive (theory testing) methodologies. Deductive methodology commences with a hypothesis about a relationship between concepts, usually drawn from an established theory, following which a research design is undertaken and implemented (methodology, method and measurement) with data being collected and interpreted - the result being that the hypothesis is rejected or not rejected. Differently, the inductive process does not commence with a hypothesis but starts with data collection with the aim of developing theory (theory building). The inductive approach however, may not necessarily start from a ‘clean slate’ but may identify frameworks and concepts from either established theory and/or professional practice and then proceed to identify relationships between concepts (Dul and Hak, 2008). Miles and Huberman (1994) suggest the
construction of a conceptual framework to identify the likely constructs in the inductive approach.

The processes and approaches of methodology allows for a number of combinations. For example, all of the processes identified by Yin (1994) could use either an inductive or deductive approach or a combination of both as suggested by Perry (1998).

3.4 The Research Question

The ‘identification’ of the question in need of research in the discipline within social and behavioural sciences is shown conceptually in Figure 3.2. It should be noted that the research need in place branding was identified as a result of the literature review provided in Chapter 2. This follows the recommendation of Gabbott (2004), that is, key concepts relative to the topic were identified as well as the studies undertaken to date and areas in need of further research.

![Figure 3.2 The Process of Identifying the Research Question](image-url)
It is suggested that there should be a strong link between the frameworks depicted in Figures 3.1 and 3.2 as they both relate to the gaining of knowledge. There should be alignment between the research question based on a need identified by a review of literature within the discipline(s) - Figure 3.2 - and that of the accepted beliefs and processes of obtaining knowledge within the discipline(s) - Figure 3.1. If the research question is not aligned to a need of the discipline and an acceptable process of obtaining knowledge then the merit and validity of the research is questionable. Researchers must be able to show that they have taken the approach to research as shown in Figures 3.1 and 3.2 to justify and defend the evidence that they have obtained and the contribution to knowledge which they may claim. As Suddaby (2006 p. 636) states: “there must be some degree of congruence between the research question (i.e. the researcher’s assumptions about the nature of reality and how one might know that reality) and the methods used to address the question.” The wording of the research question should reflect not only the research need but also be indicative of the methodology that the research is to adopt (Corbin and Strauss, 2008). As such, the research question needs to be fully understood and carefully worded by the researcher. “‘Good’ research questions are those which will enable you to achieve your aim and which are capable of being answered in the research setting” (Gillham, 2000 p. 17).

The form of research questions is shown in Table 3.1. It should be noted that the authors cited in this table have referred to ‘strategy’ in what is referred to as ‘methodological processes’ in this chapter. These ‘strategies’ are influenced not only by the research question as shown in Figure 3.2 but the overarching researcher beliefs as shown conceptually in Figure 3.1.
Different types of research strategy (methodology) are best suited to different types of research problems. As shown in Table 5 that ‘how’ and ‘why’ questions are best suited to the strategies of experiment, history and case study. The reader is reminded that the literature reviewed earlier in this work provides reasons as to why place branding is needed, whereas this research intends to explain how place brands are implemented. Yin (2009) suggests that case studies and experiments are best suited to study contemporary issues although Dul and Hak (2008) and Woodside and Wilson (2003) argue that case studies are also appropriate for the study of instances that occurred in the past. In this study of the process of implementation of aspirational place brands the research question is: **How** are aspirational place brands implemented? The following section explains why the case study methodology is selected as being the most appropriate for the research question.

### 3. 5 The Research Setting

As well as the ‘type’ of research question and the research paradigm, the researcher must consider the importance of the setting to the research question as this will also be influential in the selection of research methodology. This is

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Form of research question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experiment</td>
<td>How, why</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>Who, what, where, how many, how much</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Archival analysis</td>
<td>Who, what, where, how many, how much</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>How, why</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case study</td>
<td>How, why</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3.1 Types of Research Questions**  
Source: (Yin, 1994; Rowley, 2002)
explained by way of comparison between the methodologies of experiment and case study, as these methodologies were identified in the previous section as best suited to address the ‘how’ questions.

A contrast between experiment and case study is provided by Bonoma (1985) as shown in Figure 3.3. An experiment needs to fix or control variables and often takes the research problem away from its natural setting. By contrast, a case study does not have the same level of control over variables as this research is undertaken in its usual setting.

![Figure 3.3 Knowledge Accrual Triangle](image)

**Figure 3.3 Knowledge Accrual Triangle**

*Source: Bonoma (1985 p. 200)*

Bonoma (1985) introduces the concepts of *data integrity* and *currency*. Currency refers to the contextual relevance of the results across measures, methods, persons, settings and time. Integrity refers to the characteristics that influence error and bias in research. Bonoma points out that ideally researchers should seek high levels of data integrity and results currency. The dilemma is that there is a trade-off
between data integrity and currency. An experiment for instance is high in data integrity and lower in currency while the reverse is the situation with case study.

“A study which seeks high data integrity requires a precise operationalization of the research variables, a relatively large sample size and quantitative data for statistical power, and the ability to exercise power over persons, settings and other factors to prevent causal contamination. In contrast a study which seeks high currency typically demands situationally unconstrained operationalizations of variables to allow cross-setting generalization, and observations within natural, ecologically valid settings - ‘noisy’ settings - where samples, quantitative measures, and control are more difficult to achieve” (Bonoma, 1985 p. 200).

A summary of the characteristics of this research project are now provided.

First, the research is to be undertaken within the constructivist paradigm as the objective is to understand the multiple realities of respondents relative to the processes and meanings of place brand implementation.

Second, the focus of the research is to be the ‘how’ of place brand implementation. Third, as it is difficult, and considered not to be appropriate, to remove the research its context, a case study methodological process is argued to be best suited.

Fourth, given the limited available theory and calls for research into place brand implementation, as shown in the literature reviewed, an inductive methodological approach is necessary.

These issues will be addressed in the following sections commencing with the selected methodological process – the case study.

3.6 The Case Study Methodology
Case studies are suited to the goal of generating and building theory in an area where little data exists and to study processes over time (Dutton and Dukerich, 1991; Yin, 2009).
“Case study methods [this refers to the ‘methods of data collection’] involve systematically gathering enough information about a particular person, social setting, events, or group to permit the research to effectively understand how it operates or functions” (Berg, 2001 p. 225).

Berg suggests that the case study is not actually a data gathering technique (a method) but a methodological approach that incorporates a number of data gathering measures. Case study allows the researcher to look at the processes and actors using multiple sources of data, including interviews, reports, newspapers and observations – and therefore lends itself to the constructivist paradigm.

The writings of Eisenhardt (1989) and Yin (1992; 2009) are recognised as seminal contributions to the development and application of case study research.

While Yin (2009) suggests that ‘how’ questions can be addressed by experiments, histories or case studies (Table 3.1), the following reasons are given in support of the use of the case study methodology in this research.

1. Case study, using qualitative methods of data collection and analysis, is the preferred methodology to study processes (Reid, 1996).

2. Place brand implementation needs to be studied in its real-life context where the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident (Yin, 1994). Case study allows researchers to study place brand implementation in its context of a noisy setting involving a complex array of stakeholders as “case studies emphasise the rich, real-world context in which the phenomenon occur” (Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007). A place is not a closed system but should be seen as what Stake (1995) refers to as an integrated system, a characteristic which is taken into account by the case study.
3. As there is limited established theory, case study provides for theory building – an inductive approach. Although case study can be utilised for theory testing (Gummesson, 1991; Dul and Hak, 2008), Eisenhardt (1989 p. 546) argues that case study approach “increases the likelihood of generating novel theory”.

4. Case study provides the opportunity to examine a process holistically (Gummesson, 1991); to “study different aspects, examine them in relation to each other, view the processes within its total environment and also use the researcher’s capacity for ‘verstehen’(Meyer, 2001) – Verstehen being a German word signifying the understanding and interpretation of meaning.

5. Studies of processes and phenomena in other disciplines that would have some similarity to place brand implementation have utilised the case study methodology. As shown in Figure 3.4, Yin (1994) identifies areas in which the case study methodology is used; some of which have similarity to this research topic as place branding, as has been identified in Chapter 2, involves politics, policy, and city planning.

- Policy, political science, and public administration research
- Community psychology and sociology
- Organizational and management studies
- City and regional planning research, such as studies of plans, neighborhoods, or public agencies
- The conduct of dissertations and theses in the social sciences—the academic disciplines as well as professional fields such as business administration, management science, and social work

Figure 3.4 Areas Utilising Case Study Methodology
Source: Yin (1994)
To further support the use of the case study approach in this research, some examples of studies which have deployed the case study methodology are provided in Table 3.2. These studies have some similarity to this research in that they are seeking to understand processes and meanings within the relevant contextual setting.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors(s)</th>
<th>Objective/purpose</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dutton &amp; Dukerich (1991)</td>
<td>To generate a framework for understanding how organisations and their environment change over time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweeney &amp; Chew (2002)</td>
<td>To study the relational phenomena between consumers and service brands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wong &amp; Merrilees (2005)</td>
<td>To study the role of brand strategy in small to medium enterprises</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>King &amp; Grace (2005)</td>
<td>To examine the role of employees in the delivery of the brand</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.2 Examples of Case Studies in Research

Dutton and Dukerich (1991) used a case study methodology and studied one case, the Port Authority of New York and New Jersey, and collected data from five sources (i. open ended interviews, ii. reports, memos and speeches, iii. articles from regional newspapers and magazines, iv. regular conversations with key stakeholders, v. notes from training sessions). They developed which explained how an organisation’s image and identity were influential in determining the actions taken by an organisation. Sweeney and Chew (2002) treated six individuals as ‘separate cases’ and conducted a three phase study and they develop a typology of relationships between consumers and service brands. Wong and Merrilees’s (2005 p. 157) justification of using a case study methodology has relevance for justifying its use in this study. They state that, “a case research methodology provides the opportunity to focus on naturally occurring and ordinary events in natural settings”. King and Grace (2005 p. 283) use a case study methodology as they wish to research the issue (role of employees in delivering...
the brand) in-depth and in doing so, “providing the detail that would otherwise be overlooked if another methodology were chosen, e.g. survey.”

A protocol for case study research is provided by Eisenhardt (1989), as shown in Figure 3.5 and has been used by a number of researchers including Dutton and Dukerich (1991) and de Weerd-Nederhof (2001).

The first step of ‘getting started’ (Figure 3.5) has been undertaken in this research with the definition of the research question. With an appropriate level of caution for research of this nature, some constructs are suggested in the next section “theoretical framework”.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Reason</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Getting started | Definition of research question  
 Possibly a priori constructs | Focuses efforts  
 Provides better grounding of construct measures |
| Selecting cases | Neither theory nor hypothesis 
 Specified population  
 Theoretical, not random, sampling | Retains theoretical flexibility  
 Constrains extraneous variation and sharpens external validity  
 Focuses efforts on theoretically useful cases, i.e. those that replicate or extend theory by filling conceptual categories |
| Crafting instruments and protocols | Multiple data collection methods  
 Qualitative and quantitative data combined  
 Multiple investigators | Strengthens grounding of theory by triangulation of evidence  
 Synergistic view of evidence  
 Fosters divergent perspectives and strengthens grounding |
| Entering the field | Overlap data collection and analysis, including field notes  
 Flexible and opportunistic data collection methods | Speeds analyses and reveals helpful adjustments to data collection  
 Allows investigators to take advantage of emergent themes and unique case features |
| Analysing data | Within-case analysis  
 Cross-case pattern search using divergent techniques | Gains familiarity with data and preliminary theory generation  
 Forces investigators to look beyond initial impressions and see evidence through multiple lenses |
| Shaping hypotheses | Iterative tabulation of evidence for each construct  
 Replication, no sampling, logic across cases  
 Search evidence for “why” behind relationships | Sharpens construct definition, validity and measurability  
 Confirms, extends, and sharpens theory  
 Builds internal validity |
| Enfolding literature | Comparison with conflicting literature  
 Comparison with similar literature | Builds internal validity, raises theoretical level, and sharpens construct definitions  
 Sharpens generalisability, improves construct definition, and raises theoretical level |
| Reaching closure | Theoretical saturation when possible | Ends process when marginal improvement becomes small |

Figure 3.5 The Process of Building Theory from Case Study Research  
Source: (Eisenhardt, 1989 p. 553)

As the objective of this research is to make an academic and practitioner contribution, attention is now given to the process of building theory from case studies.

### 3.7 Contributing to Theory

It has been established from the literature review that there is limited available theory in place branding (Anholt, 2002; Papadopoulos and Heslop, 2002; Dinnie...
and Melewar, 2008). The purpose of this work is to contribute to theory relative to place brand implementation by way of the development of a model which assists in explaining the process of place brand implementation. It is important to emphasise that the objective of this research is to *inductively* develop a model from the cases which is derived from the data having regard to what Corbin and Strauss (2008) refer to as ‘sensitivity’ of the researcher.

The proposed model of place brand implementation, underpinned by empirical research, will explain how processes, sequences and performance conditions unfold. Within the accepted practice of the inductive methodology, frameworks and concepts from either established theory and/or professional practice are identified (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Dul and Hak, 2008) as a point of commencement. This approach is supported by Mowle and Merrilees (2005) who refer to Voss, Tsikriktsis *et al.* (2002) in arguing that a prior view is needed of the general constructs or categories that are to be studied. Miles and Huberman (1994) and Eisenhardt (1989), as shown in Figure 3.5, suggest the construction of a conceptual framework to identify the *a priori* constructs. As there is limited existing knowledge of the process of place brand implementation, ‘sensitizing categories’ as suggested by Glaser and Strauss (1967) are identified. These categories are likely to become clearer and/or redefined during the course of the research as well as the likely discovery of additional categories. The sensitising categories have unfolded as a result of the literature review as well as reflecting on the purpose of the research. The implementation of a place brand is seen as a social process involving multiple stakeholders (Kavaratzis, 2004) or as Morgan and Pritchard *et al.* (2004 p. 4) state, place branding is a political act. The process
occurs within the *shared* environment of a place. It is a dynamic phenomenon and despite identified similarities to corporate branding is different at the very least in that there is less capacity to exclude stakeholders and less leverage to coerce stakeholders (Kavaratzis and Ashworth, 2007). The academic and practitioner literature has established the role of government in place branding (e.g. Dickinson, 2007) and that successful corporate branding (e.g. Harris and de Chernatony, 2001; King and Grace, 2005) and destination branding (e.g. Buhalis, 2000) require stakeholder commitment. Based on this literature ‘government commitment’ and ‘community commitment’ are identified as ‘sensitising categories’ which will assist in guiding the approach to this research.

### 3.8 The Selection of Cases

The purpose of this section is not to nominate the selected cases but to explain *how* and *why* the cases should be selected. Amaratunga and Baldry (2001 p. 100) state that “… the selection of cases inevitably involves discretion and judgement selecting from those which could provide convenient access whilst exhibiting the appropriate components”. The number may range from one as would be the situation in a “critical instance case” (Yin, 1992; 2009) to a number which may be determined when as shown earlier in Figure 17 “theoretical saturation” is reached and only marginal improvements if any are made by any additional case. The issue of theoretical saturation will be addressed in a later section of this chapter. Sweeney and Chew (1994) suggest an ideal of four to six cases but such a number may well be dependent on the research question and the availability of cases as well as the resources available to the researcher. This view is also supported by Perry (1998). It is often a sound practice to select one case as a pilot case.
(Amaratunga and Baldry, 2001) following which the researcher will review the process and initial findings and then proceed to select additional cases. Patton and Appelbaum (2002 p. 67) emphasise that case study research does not rely on random sampling techniques. “The case study researcher must strategically select a case that is pertinent to the object of the study and will allow the subject to be investigated fully.” Using a company as an example, they suggest that possible reasons include:

- The company is identified as a ...,
- The company has been criticised for its ...,
- The company has recently ‘taken a stance’ with regard to..., 
- The company is able to be researched both in academic and practitioner literature,
- The company can be researched within the parameters and resources of this study.

In analysing the process of building theory from case study research, Eisenhardt (2003) and Eisenhardt and Graebner (2007) also emphasise the importance of selecting cases based on theoretical usefulness or a “typical case” (Patton, 2002) where the purpose is to evaluate a particular program (in this study, the process of place brand implementation). As stated by Yin (1989) case studies are suited to the goal of generating and building theory in an area where little data exists and to study processes over time. In this research the selected cases should allow the researcher to look at the processes and actors involved in the process of place brand implementation. Corbin and Strauss (2008 p. 143) refer to the importance of theoretical sampling where the objective is to “collect data from places, people and events that will maximise opportunities to develop concepts in terms of their priorities and dimensions, uncover variations, and identify relationships between concepts.” Their advice was influential in the selection of cases in this study.
A further consideration in the number of cases selected is the trade off between ‘depth’ and ‘width.’ The more cases undertaken, i.e. width, may lead to findings which adhere to Eisenhardt’s (1989) argument for replication logic and support generalisability but this is done often at the expense of depth i.e. a deeper richer look at each case. The approach taken here is similar to that of Meyer (2001) to choose a deeper richer look at each case and focus on judgements about applicability as well as generalisability.

In the context of relevance as well as available resources for this research project, it was decided to investigate towns and cities within the state of New South Wales, Australia. Although as shown earlier on, place brand strategies have been applied to regions, states and nations, is proposed that towns and cities are the preferred unit of study for the following reasons.

1. Theses places are accessible,

2. The smaller unit of study, when compared to regions, states and nations, allows the processes to be more easily identified,

3. Access to the sources of data is more likely when compared to those of the larger geographical units,

4. Places such as regions, states and nations will be likely to have a greater size and complexity making it difficult to generate novel theory and infer relationships and possible causality, [Smaller ‘units of analysis’ are better suited to this inductive study, with the possibility that findings can be deductively tested on larger geographical units.],

5. A number of towns and cities in New South Wales have recently applied brand strategies,
6. The marketing of towns and cities is becoming a newly ‘adopted role’ of local governments as many seek to promote economic development in a more competitive environment,

7. A large town or small city with clear geographic boundaries is suggested as this becomes an identifiable unit of study. Larger cities in metropolitan areas, whose boundaries appear to be less clear to many stakeholders e.g. City of Sydney – City of Randwick in NSW, do not provide a clear unit of study,

8. The large town or small city is an optimum size in that it does not have the additional complexities of a large city, but still has a variety of stakeholder interests,

9. These units of study are ‘doable’ within the framework of this research project,

10. Importantly, as will be discussed on the section on qualitative data analysis, the places are selected because of the relevance of likely and emerging concepts and categories in the process of place brand implementation.

Details of the cases selected are provided in Chapter 4.

3.9 Methods of Data Collection
Within the established research methodologies there are different methods or techniques of obtaining data. Methods of data collection include questionnaires, interviews, observation and documents (Blaxter, Hughes et al., 2001). A characteristic of the case study methodology is that it can use more than one
method of data collection (Berg, 2001). Once the data is collected, methods of analysis can be utilised. Importantly the analytical method should be planned prior to commencement of the research project – certainly not after the data has been collected – undertaking research is a process.

The methods of data collection used in this process are now introduced.

3.9.1 Open-ended Interviews
The process of place brand implementation involves people in the social setting of a place. As Morgan and Pritchard et al. (2004 p. 8) state “contemporary place branding is not simply a rational marketing activity: it is also a political act.” Hunter’s (1953) Community Power Structure and Fowler’s (2006) reference to ‘elite theory’- i.e. the role of influential people in a community, suggest that there will be individuals in a community who will be influential in the process of place brand implementation.

Figure 3.6 suggests the likely ‘people of influence’ or the ‘senior management’ of the community (Kerr, Noble et al., 2007). In addition to the persons identified in Figure 3.6, the interview protocol referred to further on, included a question inviting respondents to express their view as to who are the community leaders. This ‘informant’s ratings method’ (Rogers, 1995) provided the opportunity for community leaders not included in the framework to be identified and interviewed.
In addition to the persons referred to in Figure 3.6 and those identified through the informant’s ratings method, where possible, interviews with the consultants engaged in developing the place brand strategy were also undertaken. The approach taken here is referred to as “elite interviewing” by Marshall and Rossman, (1995 p. 83) which is a specialised case of interviewing that focuses on a particular type of interviewee. “Elite individuals are considered to be the influential, the prominent, and the well-informed people in an organisation or community and are selected for interviews on the basis of their expertise in areas relevant to the research”.

Using the approach applied by King and Grace (2005), who researched the role of employees in the delivery of the corporate brand, an interview framework was developed to ensure that the research question was addressed, and that there was
some consistency between interviews to provide a chain of evidence. This “bureaucratisation of fieldwork” (Miles, 1979 p. 594) assists with the coding and analysis of data as well as a replication of the process if required (Sinkovics, Penz et al., 2005). It is emphasised that the research was undertaken after a brand implementation had been implemented.

Keeping in mind the objective of the research, the interview framework developed was:

- **Introduction**, *(What is happening with the place brand?)*
- **Involvement**, *(How were you involved?)*
- **Timeframe**, *(When did you become involved?)*
- **Contributors**, *(Who were the major contributors?)*
- **Aims and objectives**, *(What do you see as the major objectives?)*
- **Involvement of others**, *(How were the others involved?)*
- **Reflection and evaluation**, *(Has the process been worthwhile?)*
- **Other sources of data**, *(Who else should I be talking to?)*
- **Permission to contact again**, *(Can we talk again if necessary?)*

It was anticipated that these questions would provide an insight into the place brand implementation process. In addition, it was planned to review each interview prior to progressing to the next in order that questions could be modified or added to, which is in keeping with the grounded theory approach to data collection or as Lincoln and Guba (1985) refer to as “focussed exploration”. This approach will be addressed in more detail in later sections of this chapter.

It was planned that the interviews take place in the offices or each participant or at a mutually convenient location. The objective was to gain an insight into the thoughts of community leaders into the process of place branding in their city.
3.9.2 Document Analysis

Denscombe (2003 p. 212) states that “documents can be treated as a source of data in their own right.” It was anticipated that a place branding project at a city level will have available a number of reports, articles, brochures, websites and other material which will be of value in obtaining data relative to the process of place brand implementation. These were obtained and analysed to extract data relevant to processes and issues. This was done having regard to Dencombe’s warnings that:

“The discerning researcher will also realise that there are plenty of newspapers and magazines whose contents should not be relied upon to reflect anything approaching an objective account of events”, (p.214) and, “…records tend to be partial … They tend to be selective in what they report, emphasising some things and ignoring others … they tend to record a particular interpretation of what happened … The researcher tends to be cautious about accepting such records at face value” (p.215).

Of course a similar challenge exists for the researcher in dealing with data from interviews. For example Kerr, Noble and Glynn (2007) found that comments from community leaders about the status of a city’s place brand ranged from:

“Enormously, I love the concept,”

to

“From the point of view of things happening and businesses using it, it never happened.”

The abovementioned inconsistencies encountered during data collection and analysis support this researcher’s stance of the interpretivist view of “multiple realities.”

During the course of this research, relevant documents were obtained and in accordance with the method of data analysis referred to further on, codes were
identified on key aspects of documents analysed and in keeping with the case study methodology will contribute to the development of concepts along with data from interviews and observation.

3.9.3 Observation
Observation is a type of data collection method that does not rely on what people say but draws on the direct evidence of the eye of the witness of events – to observe what actually happens (Denscombe, 2003). Observation involves looking and can take a number of forms. Veal (2006) suggests situations where observation is appropriate and necessary particularly when the research studies everyday life and social behaviour. Like any other research method, Veal suggests that careful thought must go into the design, conduct and analysis stages of the research. Some steps which are important in planning an observation project are:

1. Choice of site and observation points,
2. Choice of observation time period,
3. What to observe.

In addressing these criteria, it has been decided to conduct observation research within the cities at the time of each visit. There was no fixed observation point for this component of the research. The mindset is ‘what the local and the visitor would see’. In this study, observations were recorded with the aim of confirming or contradicting data obtained from interviews and documents. As with the qualitative approach to data analysis the purpose of observation is not to estimate the number of actions and issues but rather to gather evidence to identify activities in the place brand implementation process.
To conclude this section, the decision to collect data from three methods in this study is worth special mention. Although the interviews were the primary source of data, for a researcher who has highlighted the importance of ‘currency’ in a ‘noisy setting,’ to visit a town or city to investigate place brand implementation and not take time to collect data from documents and to observe what is happening with the place brand may result in a narrow if not skewed interpretation of the process of place brand implementation.

3. 10 Methods of Data Analysis
Corbin and Strauss (2008 p.46) state that, “a researcher cannot continue to collect data forever. Sooner or later “something” has to be done with that data to give it significance. That something is called analysis.” Qualitative methods of analysis usually have an emphasis on processes and meanings although can also be used to infer causality (Maxwell, 1997). As Dul and Hak (2008) point out, different research methodologies might use the same research methods (e.g. questionnaires) but it is how the data is measured and analysed (e.g. statistically or visually) that is the point of difference. Samples in qualitative research are not meant to represent large populations (e.g. the population of consumers) but are smaller and carefully selected to provide important information and be representative of the population of ideas or processes (Reid, 1996; Sale, Lohfeld et al., 2002). Amaratunga and Baldry (2001) distinguish between “analytical generalisation” to explain patterns and linkages of theoretical importance to that of “statistical generalisation” as is applies to populations. As Amaratunga and Baldry (2001 p. 96) state, “…ignoring philosophical issues, though not necessarily fatal, can seriously affect the quality of research in management science”.

It should be remembered that in this study, data is collected at the ‘post brand implementation’ by way of three means: open ended interviews with community leaders, document analysis and observation. The method of analysis of the data is now given attention.

It has been argued that a qualitative method of analysis is to be utilised as this is best suited to the study of processes and meanings (Reid, 1996).

The objective of building theory from the data is now discussed.

3.11 The Development of a Framework from the Data

It is emphasised that the objective of this research is to ‘build’ a framework of place brand implementation by way of an inductive approach. This task is suited to the grounded theory approach to analyse data (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). This was adopted by Vallaster and de Chernatony (2006) who studied the role of leadership in the corporate brand process and Balmer and Lioa (2007) when they studied the brand relationship between three higher-education institutions and their students.

The latter authors argued for a “theory building case study methodology” as similar to this research project, little is known about the phenomenon. It was noted that Vallaster and de Chernatony (2006) used charts and network diagrams to organise the data and generate a series of theoretical memos rather than employ software as did Balmer and Lioa who coded data “by hand” rather than use computer software. Aligned to the objective of this research is Van Maanen (1988 p. 362) argument for a qualitative approach when the objectives are to “describe, decode, translate and otherwise come to terms with the meaning, not the frequency of certain more or less naturally occurring phenomena in the social world”.

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In this type of analysis it is important to ‘rise above the data’ and develop concepts and ultimately a model which explains the process of place brand implementation. A mere visual examination of the data will not achieve this goal. The grounded theory approach to data analysis is suggested as the vehicle to build theory from the case study.

### 3.12 The Grounded Theory Approach to Data Analysis

Grounded theory was proposed by Glaser and Strauss (1967) and Denscombe (2003) suggests the approach has become a popular choice of methodology among social researchers in recent times. Suddaby (2006 p. 641) states that: “researchers can best understand those new models of interactioning and organising by using a methodology that is attentive to issues of interpretation and process and that does not bind one too closely to long-standing assumptions … that’s precisely what grounded theory is.” Denscombe (2003 p.125) refers to “alternative versions of grounded theory” as do Jones and Noble (2007). Denscombe warns that those using grounded theory as a core feature of their PhD may need to “delve into the schisms and controversies in order to defend their research as being in line with a particular version of grounded theory” He reports on the differing ‘stances’ that were taken by Glasser and Strauss after their 1967 publication. In this work, a grounded theory approach to analysis is applied based on Turner’s (1981 p. 227) recommendation that this method is to be of “maximum use when it is dealing with qualitative data of the kind gathered from participant observation, from observation of face-to-face interaction, from semi-structured or unstructured interviews, from case study material or from certain kinds of documentary sources.” The development of a theoretical framework of place brand
implementation will involve much more than a visual inspection of the data but will require as Denscombe (2003 p. 111) states “a voyage of discovery.” This process is influenced by the recommendations of Corbin and Strauss (2008) who use grounded theory in a “more generic sense to denote theoretical constructs derived from the qualitative analysis of data” (p.1).

3.13 Developing Concepts from the Data

Corbin and Strauss (2008) refer to Hage (1972 p. 34) who states that theory “denotes a set of well-developed categories (themes, concepts) that are systematically interrelated through statements of relationship to form a theoretical framework that explains some phenomenon” This definition and others e.g. Dul and Hak (2008), stress the importance of categories, concepts and themes in the development of theory. An explanation is now provided as to how categories, concepts and themes are developed from the data. The approach taken in this research is based on the understanding that analysis is not seen as an ‘end task’ but is undertaken from the time of commencement of data collection and is on-going.

As part of the on-going process of analysis, a system of concept cards was utilised as prescribed by Turner (1981). Codes which are tags applied to identify “chunks of data” (Denscombe, 2003) were developed from an analysis of transcripts, documents and observational notes of the place made by the researcher and recorded on the concept cards.

Special mention is made of the use of concept cards. While computer programs are available, it was decided to use concepts cards as first they allowed a more ‘open’ visual inspection of the developed codes as the cards could be laid out and moved
around on a table and allowed this researcher to inspect and analyse the data. approach also aids what Glaser and Strauss (1967) and later Denscombe (2003) refer to as the “constant comparative method” which “entails a commitment to comparing and contrasting new codes, categories and concepts as they emerge” and “ensures that any theory developed by the research remains closely in touch with its origins in the data – that it remains ‘grounded’ in empirical reality.”

The second argument for the use of concept cards is that the researcher subscribes to the view that there must be complete understanding of the process of data analysis – for example, perhaps an issue that is overlooked in some areas of teaching and learning is the ability of some students to use calculators and computers to generate answers to problems; but do they really understand the process of solving the problem or just which buttons to push? It is argued that a manual approach to data analysis in this instance will give this neophyte researcher a better understanding of the process of qualitative data analysis – a skill which can later be aided by available computer software. Suddaby (2006 p. 638) dispels the myth that grounded theory is a relative mechanical technique and that:

“Pouring textual data into a software package will yield results … there is a neurotic overemphasis on coding … such a mechanical approach usually lacks the spark of creative insight upon which exemplary research is based. Qualitative software programs can be useful in organising and coding data, but they are no substitute for the interpretation of data.”

The reasons given above for the use of concept cards are also aligned to Corbin and Strauss’ (2008 p. 32) call for “sensitivity” in research, requiring the researcher to put him or herself into the research, having insight, being tuned in to, being able to pick up on relevant issues, events and happenings in data; it
means being able to present the view of the dissidents and taking the role of the other through immersion in data”.

3.14 Codes, Concepts, Categories and Themes

Denscombe (2003) advises that the search for core elements starts by taking the raw data (interview transcripts, documents and observational notes) and looking for themes that recur in the data that appear to be crucial for understanding that phenomenon. He recommends commencing with labelling data in terms of their content; referred to as open coding. Axial coding is undertaken by looking for links and associations between codes and some of the initial codes will be seen as more crucial than others the result being the development of key components. This process also seeks to remove what Field and Morse (1985) refer to as “dross” - fillers from the data that are unrelated to the research. As the identification of key components proceeds, the researcher focuses on the core codes that have emerged from the data via open and axial coding; those that are “vital to any explanation of the complex social phenomenon” (Denscombe, 2003 p.120). This is referred to as selective coding. It is extremely important to emphasise that this coding process is not single linear but one of constant review and revision, remembering the reference to the constant comparative method in the previous section and the grounded theory principle that the researcher should never lose sight of the data. Corbin and Strauss (2008) suggest that open coding and axial coding go hand in hand and that any distinctions made are artificial for “explanatory purposes only” (p. 198). They state that “only after considering all possible meanings and examining the context carefully is the researcher ready to put interpretive conceptual labels on the data” (p.160). They remind readers that concepts can
range from lower-level to higher-level and that higher level concepts are called categories or themes.

It is emphasised that successful grounded theory has a clear creative component. Suddaby (2006 p. 638) explains that, “creativity depends on the researcher’s analytic ability, theoretical sensitivity to the subtleties of the action/interaction … An unimaginative analysis may in a technical sense be adequately grounded in the data, yet insufficiently grounded for the researcher’s theoretical purpose.” The objective of this research is to develop the ‘higher-order’ concepts of place brand implementation from the data. Following and during this task, the interview transcripts, documents and observational notes were re-read; a process recommended by Burnard (1991) to ensure that categories cover all aspects of the data.

3.15 Memos and Diagrams

Concept cards were developed for each of the interviews and as these were analysed, memos and diagrams were used to link codes and as a means of aiding cross case analysis as well as to move from a descriptive level to a conceptual level. As stated earlier this is a similar approach to that used by Vallaster and de Chernatony (2006 p. 763) who stated that: “Rather than employing software, we used charts and network diagrams to organise the data and to generate a series of theoretical memos.” An interactive process of analysis was deployed until a robust pattern of processes began to emerge from the evidence. Corbin and Strauss (2008 p. 118) state that writing memos and doing diagrams is part of the analysis, part of qualitative work. “Writing memos should begin with the first analytic session and continue throughout the analytic process. Doing diagrams is more periodic but
nevertheless very important.” One of the reviewers of their text (not cited) suggested that memos can be used to:

- **Open data exploration,**
- **Identifying/developing the properties and dimensions of categories and concepts,**
- **Making comparisons and asking questions,**
- **Elaborating the paradigm: the relationships between conditions, actions/interactions, and consequences,**
- **Developing a story line.**

The authors warn of the risk of not writing memos in that “a researcher cannot expect to understand the analytic story behind the data, if at the end of the research the only thing an analyst has to work with is a list of concepts and some quotes from the raw data pertaining to each code, but not real memos” (p. 105).

As advocates of the use of diagrams in qualitative analysis, Corbin and Strauss (2008 p. 125) state:

"Diagrams are conceptual visualisations of data, and because they are conceptual, diagrams help to raise the researcher’s thinking out of level of facts. Diagrams enable researchers to organise their data, keep a record of their concepts and the relationships between them, and to integrate their ideas. Diagrams help researchers to explain their findings to colleagues and others in a very systematic and organised ways. Most of all, doing diagrams forces a researcher to think about the data in "lean ways"; that is, in a manner that reduces the data to their essence."

To summarise, in the process of data analysis the raw data was coded and recorded by the use of concept cards. The cards were inspected visually and manoeuvred on a display table to develop concepts. Theoretical memos and diagrams were used to take the concepts and the relationship between concepts to a higher level. An example of the process of data analysis used in this research is provided in Appendix D.
3. 16 The Number of Cases
Within the parameters of this research project, the issue of theoretical saturation needs to be considered. Theoretical saturation is defined by Glaser and Strauss, (1967) and endorsed by Eisenhardt (1989) as “the point at which incremental learning is minimal because researchers are observing phenomena seen before.” Eisenhardt also concedes that theoretical saturation often needs to be combined with pragmatic considerations such as time and money. There is debate about the ‘right number of cases.’ Suddaby (2006 p. 636) states that when using grounded theory there is no clean break between collecting and analysing data: “… a researcher must continue to collect data until no new evidence appears.”
In addition, the researcher has to consider the issue mentioned earlier on; that of the trade off between depth and width in selecting cases. As well as taking into consideration the resources available to undertake this research, three in-depth case studies involving open ended interviews across the cases as well as document analysis and observation.

3. 17 Limitations of the Case Study Methodology
Hamel (1993) argues that case study has been faulted for its lack of representativeness or generalisation as a point of observation for social phenomenon and lack of rigour in the construction, and analysis of the empirical materials. In responding to these criticisms it is first important to make the point that in the first instance the credibility of a study depends on the quality of the research design, (Yin, 1993; Sweeney and Chew, 2002; Yin, 2009). Also it is important to distinguish between analytical generalisation and statistical generalisation. As Patton and Appelbaum explain (2003 p. 65) “the key is to build
a proper case with analytic sophistication rather than creating something that can be easily replicated time and time again.” It is the objective of this research to contribute to theory by way of a model which explains the process of place brand implementation. The model is a generalisation from the three cases and as will be discussed further on, will be of benefit to practitioners, and as well, be the basis for further empirical research in which improvements to the model are a likely outcome. It is not the objective of this research to develop from three cases in country a generalisable model of place brand implementation but in view of the calls in the literature provide foundations by way of a contribution to theory.

3.18 Validity of the Study
One of the criteria for sound research is ‘construct validity’. How can the constructs derived from the data be deemed to be valid? A technique to establish validity of the data is suggested by Corbin and Strauss (2008) who sent an early analysis to three interviewees of the study for their comments. A similar approach was undertaken and explained in more detail by Burnard (1991 p. 465) who suggests that “the researcher return to three of the people interviewed and asking them to read through the transcripts of their interviews and asking them to jot down what they see as the main points that emerged from the interview. This produces a list of headings which can be compared to the researcher’s and the two lists can be discussed with the respondents. Out of these discussions minor adjustments can be made to the category system.” This process also addresses the concerns expressed by Bromley (1986) that researcher bias has an impact on the internal validity of the data.
Sweeney and Chew (2002) suggest three tactics to test for construct validity. First is the use of multiple sources of evidence which is an attribute of the case study methodology. At the risk of becoming cumbersome, multiple data sources of evidence if managed correctly can contribute to construct validity (Eisenhardt, 1989).

The second tactic suggested by Sweeney and Chew was to establish a chain of evidence. In this research the process of identifying higher order concepts from the data although not a single linear path can be retraced and explained.

The third tactic to assist with construct validity is the same as proposed by Corbin and Strauss (2008) and Burnard (1991) although Sweeney and Chew use the term ‘member check’ i.e. to have key informants review the draft case study report.

In keeping with the objective of ensuring that the quality of the study adheres to the scientific method, not only has the researcher gained from the academic guidance of experienced researchers, particularly supervisors, in addition various stages of this research work have been presented at academic as well as practitioner conferences with some components published in peer-reviewed academic journals. The feedback has assisted in guiding this research.

Another step taken to establish the validity of the study is what is referred to by Eisendardt (1989) and Wilson and Vlosky (1997) as ‘enfolding the literature’.

As will be explained in Chapter 5 this task will be done at two levels. First the findings will be compared and contrasted with the relevant literature identified in this work in Chapter 2. Second, when discussing the theoretical contribution after the presentation of findings, the theoretical framework will be compared and contrasted to established and relevant theory.
3.19 Ethical Considerations
The type of research being undertaken in this study, particularly the process of interviewing persons who hold public positions in communities, needed to be sensitive to ethical considerations. Complying with the formal process of gaining ethics approval from the University of Wollongong Human Research Ethics Committee (HE05/317), planning was needed with regard to the storage of interview transcripts and that the confidentiality of respondents was to be maintained during the course of this work and the thesis document. A requirement was to prepare a Research Information Sheet and Research Consent Form which explained the background of the research and was to gain the consent of each participant. Anonymity was to be guaranteed with regard to the data gained from the interviews.

3.20 Conclusion
This chapter has provided explanation as to how the research is to be undertaken taking into consideration the nature of the question and the constructivist paradigm within which it is proposed to acquire knowledge. The next chapter introduces the cases which have been selected which will be central in undertaking this research.
CHAPTER 4. THE SELECTED CASES

4.1 Introduction

The objective of this chapter is to introduce and provide a background to the selected cases. In keeping with the recommended criteria contained in the case study literature, and referred to in Chapter 3, one case was nominated as a ‘starting point’ which could be used not only to commence collecting data but to refining the data collection process before moving on to other cases. The case selected was the City of Lithgow as it is a location which has implemented a place brand strategy and can be researched within the parameters and resources of this study. Based on Patton and Appelbaum’s (2003) recommendations of case selection, the case was strategically selected as it is pertinent to the object of the study and allows the subject to be investigated fully. The research progressed to include two other cases being the City of Armidale and the City of Wollongong. The reasons for selecting these cases are:

1. These cities have applied brand strategies and there is likely to be emerging concepts and categories relative to the process of place brand implementation.
2. Theses places are accessible,
3. Being cities they are the appropriate unit of study,
4. Access to data is likely,
5. These units of study are ‘doable’ within the framework of this research project.
4.2 Lithgow, Armidale and Wollongong

The cities are located within the state of NSW, Australia and the location of each of these cities is shown on Map 1.1. Appendices A, B and C provide background information regarding each city as it provides the reader with some of the city’s history as well as an understanding of some of the antecedent conditions that will be discussed during the course of data collection and analysis.

As mentioned, each case was selected as it had been involved in the implementation of a place branding campaign; they were accessible by the

Map 4.1 Map of NSW

researcher and access was obtained to the key players in each of the brand implementation strategies.

The City of Lithgow had launched its ‘Learning city’ brand which included the logo as shown in Figure 4.1.

The City of Armidale launched a brand campaign, ‘Thrive in Armidale’ (Armidale Dumaresq City Council, 2005) of which the supporting logo is shown in Figure 4.2.

The City of Wollongong launched its ‘City of Innovation’ campaign in 1999 (Valerio, Baker et al., 1999), with a city logo shown in Figure 4.3.
4.3 Conclusion

Not only were these cases considered appropriate, as each had implemented a place brand strategy, the places were accessible by the researcher and importantly there was interest and willingness on the part of key people to be interviewed and provide access to reports and other documents. The research was undertaking according to the methods of data collection and analysis discussed in Chapter 3. The next Chapter provides further detail as to processes of data collection and analysis, introduces the framework which has been developed from the data and explains how the findings will be presented.
CHAPTER 5. THE FRAMEWORK OF PLACE BRAND IMPLEMENTATION

5.1 Introduction
The purpose of this chapter is to firstly explain how the data was collected and analysed and then outline how the framework was developed from the data. The chapter provides an introduction as to how the framework will be presented, as well as, how it will be validated in accordance with the literature on qualitative analysis.

5.2 Data Collection and Analysis
Complying with the methodological process and methods of data collection provided in Chapter 3, data was collected by way of a total of 32 open-ended interviews, each lasting on average one hour. Notes were taken during and immediately after each interview and as well interviews were recorded, transcribed and analysed according to the qualitative method of data analysis discussed in Chapter 3. As the research was undertaken post brand implementation, the participants were in a position to offer reflective comments concerning the process. Documents including council reports and minutes, newspaper reports, brochures and other promotional material were collected, collated and analysed and similar to observations made on the part of the researcher, were able to aid and support the analysis of interviews and assist with the interpretation of findings.

As explained in Chapter 3, the data was coded and transferred to concept cards (Turner, 1981) initially on a case by case basis. Using the constant comparative
method (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) and aided by memos and diagrams (Vallaster and de Chernatony, 2006; Corbin and Strauss, 2008), categories of codes began to emerge. Three categories of codes were identified and labelled as conditions, actions and consequences. These categories were compared across cases and analysed visually seeking to order them in a way which led to the development of higher order categories. Importantly, some commonality was identified as existing between some conditions, actions and consequences. This commonality amongst some conditions, actions and consequences contributed to the identification of higher order categories which emerged as the ‘essential stages’ of place brand implementation. This continuous process of analysis is shown diagrammatically in Figure 5.1.

The manner of presentation of findings is now discussed prior to the introduction to the framework which has resulted from this research.
5.3 The Presentation of the Findings

An issue that needs clarification in this type of research is the interval which exists between the process of data collection and analysis, and the actual presentation of the findings. Suddaby (2006 p. 637) stresses the importance of making such a clarification “at this point – if not sooner!” By its very nature, the grounded theory analytic method requires that data collection and analysis is undertaken simultaneously, and the presentation of this in its purest form would result in,

“… a jumble of literature consultation, data collection, data analysis conducted in iterations that produce relatively fuzzy categories that, over time, reduce to fewer, clearer conceptual structures. Theory would be presented last” (Suddaby, 2006 p. 637).

Heeding Suddaby’s advice, the process of data analysis, including coding techniques and category creation has been made apparent in Chapter 3. The presentation of the findings is not done on the basis of ‘as it happens’ – identifying the nonlinear reality of grounded theory analysis, but is done having regard to comprehensibility and presented in a traditional ‘sanitised’ format.

5.4 The Stages of Place Brand Implementation

As stated in Section 5.2 categories of conditions, actions and consequences were identified across the cases. These categories could be grouped to identify another order of categories which were identified as the stages of place brand implementation. The stages were labelled, indeed branded, as activating, energising, concepting, expanding and re-energising. Each of the categories has emerged from the concepts which were developed from the initial codes in this non-linear and non-sequential process. An analysis of the categories revealed that they could be presented and explained by a matrix-like diagram with the
conditions, actions and consequences on one dimension and the identified stages another. This is shown in Figure 5.2

![Diagram of the Stages of Place Brand Implementation]

**Figure 5.2 The Stages of Place Brand Implementation**

The next five chapters introduce the ‘theoretical categories’ (the essential stages) which have been developed from an analysis of the data from the cases and which explain the process of place brand implementation.

In the forthcoming five chapters, each of the stages shown in Figure 5.1 will be ‘built upon’ to allow the reader to follow the development of each stage from the data obtained. Each stage is detailed by providing the contextual conditions, the actions taken, that is, how they ‘are’ or ‘are not’ dealt with, within the cases and the consequences that emerged.

### 5.5 Validity of the Research Findings

In Chapter 3, the recommendations by authors such as Burnard (1991), Eisenhardt (1989), and Sweeney and Chew, (2002) were discussed regarding ways to establish the validity of case study research, particularly when using qualitative
data analysis. In view of these recommendations, the following steps have been undertaken.

First, as recommended by Corbin and Strauss (2008) and Burnard (1991), an early analysis of interview transcripts were returned to three interviewees (one from each case) who were asked to read through and make headings of key points. The headings were compared to the researcher’s codes to discuss with the respondents and ascertain if there were any important omissions or differences of interpretation.

Second, as well as collecting data from multiple sources pursuant to the case study methodology, a chain of evidence has been established as suggested by Sweeney and Chew (2002) in order that the process of identifying higher order concepts from the data can be retraced and explained.

Third, as proposed by Corbin and Strauss (2008), Sweeney and Chew (2002) and Burnard (1991) a number of key informants (at least one in each case) have been asked to review the model which has been developed; what Sweeney and Chew (2002) refer to as ‘member check’. This process is discussed in Chapter 11 at which time the theoretical implications of the research are discussed.

Fourth, the process of what is referred to by Eisendardt (1989) as “enfolding the literature” is undertaken. As shown in Figure 5.3 (an extract from Figure 3.5) the task involves comparing the developing theory to both conflicting and similar literature with the aims of the task to build internal validity, improve construct definitions and raise the theoretical level.
Burnard (1991 p. 464) gives some advice about this task suggesting that there are two options available:

“The first is to write up the findings and then have a separate section which links the findings to the literature and make comparisons and contrasts. The second option is to write up the findings alongside with references to the literature. …in this way the ‘findings’ section of the research becomes both a presentation of the findings and a comparison of those findings with previous work. The first approach seems more ‘pure’ but the second is often more practical and readable”

In this work, a compromise to Burnard’s suggestion is applied. Initially within each of the next five chapters which deal with each stage of the brand implementation process, the literature which has been found relevant to each stage will be considered. In Chapter 11, which deals with the theoretical implications of the research, the framework developed in this research will be compared to other established and relevant theory.

5.6 Conclusion
This chapter has explained how higher order categories have been developed from an analysis of the data and the allocation of labels to these categories. In addition, the reader is advised how the findings will be presented in the next chapters. The analysis and the reflection in each chapter explains, with reference to the data within and across the cases, what happened, how it happened and with additional support from the literature why it happened.

The stage of activating is now introduced.
CHAPTER 6. ACTIVATING

6.1 Analysis

The identification of the need and potential for a place brand strategy was recognised by particular persons in each city who became *brand activists* or *brand champions*. These people were influential in commencing the process which was coded in this research as ‘seeding the idea’ in their community. Their role was paramount in this stage of *activation*. As indicated earlier, in each stage the *conditions, actions and consequences* extracted from the data are provided. Figure 6.1 relates to the stage of *activation*, details of which follow.

---

**Figure 6.1 The Stage of Activating**

ACTIVATING

CONDITIONS
- Problems
- Need for change
- Emergence of brand champion

ACTIONS
- Seeding the idea of place branding

CONSEQUENCES
- Place branding on the agenda
In each of the cases there were conditions which were influential in motivating people to act. In Lithgow comments included:

“There was a general crisis; the industries that were supporting Lithgow were closing down ...”

“There were many empty shops in the main street... The town was at a very low ebb.”

“Lithgow was a community that relied a long time on your big money earners, your industry ... a lot of those are closed or gone and they were not coming back...”

At Armidale, the conditions were somewhat similar with comments including:

“… a stagnant economy”

“... it has a lot to do with the fact that we were not growing.”

Also identified as a ‘conditional issue’ at Armidale was a policy shift on the part of the local university which was to have a greater focus on distance education which resulted in, according to a respondent, a decline of full-time university students by 1500 which had a negative multiplier effect throughout the local economy. There had also been a decline in enrolments at the local boarding schools (possibly as a result of the impact of the drought on rural families), with a participant revealing that the city was,

“Too dependent on one sector.”

In Wollongong, the problem was one of both perception and reality. By the 1980s, despite maintaining its image as an industrial city, the local steelworks was being ‘rationalised’ – having been subjected to downturns in demand, intense global competition, and combined with improved technology, a more streamlined workforce was the result. During the 1980s the steelworks shed its work-force from 22,000 to less than 7,000 (Watson, 1991; Garrett-Jones, Gross et al., 2007). In
addition to this ‘reality’, the way Wollongong was perceived externally was identified as the major problem, with one respondent claiming:

“Those people that we needed to bring as investors into the new economy still had the perception that you wouldn’t go there because it’s a steel town.”

Another respondent made a similar comment:

“Well Wollongong had a very bad image. And a lot of it was historic; you know, all the families that used to go down the South Coast and had to wind their way down [the] Highway, through Wollongong, past the smoke stacks, sulphur; and they came down on school excursions in the 60’s and 70’s and so on and visited Port Kembla which was a filthy joint in those days. I think there was just a general view that there was nothing good in Wollongong at all. There were [TV] shows that lampooned Wollongong; you know, Norman Gunston and things, so there was this great history of Wollongong as being the laughing stock of NSW and … its nothing like the image that was portrayed.”

In each of the cases, the data revealed that there were problems in each city; being economic and social as well as image. Having consistency with the statement of Kotler, Haider and Rein (1993) with reference to places in the US, these were “places in trouble”. In these cities, the conditions were such that there was a need for change; something had to be done. Reflecting on what had happened in their city, one respondent stated:

“There was a realisation by some that [the city] was probably a bit insular… I think this has changed … where the city realises it has to be more aggressive in selling itself to a greater market place.”

As was discussed in Chapter 2, place branding is linked to the aspirations of a place and seems to be closely linked with the need for change. Discussion about the type and level of change will be given attention in Chapter 11.

The actions that resulted from the contextual conditions were common to the extent that there was the ‘seeding of the idea’ for a place brand strategy by one or
two individuals in each case. As one participant claimed the brand champion had provided the “original intellectual input”.

In addition, it was found that the instigators of the place brand strategy were influenced by people and events outside their city, evidenced by the comments from the cases.

In Lithgow, the background to the activation for the Learning City strategy is publicly accessible (Best, 2004):

*In late 2001, I attended the inaugural Learning City Conference in Albury and had the privilege of hearing David McNulty, a leading exponent of the learning city movement in the United Kingdom ... David spoke of the change that was occurring in some of the mining and industrial communities of the U.K. ... These communities had experienced similar downturns to Lithgow and had created new futures for themselves as learning communities. The connection between these mining communities and what was happening in Lithgow was obvious ...”*

In Armidale, the statement was made:

“The fact that many other large towns and cities were going through a process [place branding] was an influence, as many business and local government leaders did not want to be left behind.”

In the Wollongong case, the brand champion claimed:

“At a course ... I met [name] who taught a subject, Tourism Research; and when I returned to Australia, I had regular contact with [name], and asked... what did he think of some of the views that I was putting forward ... which were principally about controlling messages and managing messages... because at the point we weren’t doing any of that. It pretty much had a life of its own.”

In Armidale due to their positions on the council it was likely that the brand champions perhaps had an advantage over those advocates in the other cases as they were people with senior positions and influence who ‘had the ear’ of some of the political and business leaders. Needless to say, they still had to enlist support.
A comment made by a respondent, “there is that stage where someone puts their hand up and says something has to happen here...” reflects what actually happened in each of the cases.

6.2 Reflection

In each of the cases a person or persons were influenced by their city’s problems and the knowledge they had gained about place branding from external sources. This finding is consistent with the views of Ecorys Research and Consulting, (2008) expressed in Chapter 1. Referring to their report:

“A sharp identification of a city’s problem is the first step in the process of place marketing. There should be a (serious) problem, now or in the future. Experience shows that without a ‘sense of urgency’ there will never be any true commitment of public and private partners to the marketing process.”

There were problems in each city and the brand champions were able to communicate a ‘sense of urgency’ and activate the cause of place branding. In Lithgow, the brand champion was instrumental in having a Learning City Steering Committee formed. In Armidale the General Manager of the Council claimed:

“I was one of the initiators ... I have some ownership in it.”

At Wollongong, the Chair of the Tourism Board became a brand advocate and started activating.

“[He], through effective lobbying, and use of newspapers, garnered support from [the General Manager] and [the Lord Mayor].”

What was different between the cases was the position of the brand champion in the community and in the organisation for which they worked or represented. In the Lithgow case the activation for a brand strategy came from a middle manager
within the council’s library department. By contrast, the activation in Armidale was at a more senior level with the brand champions being the general manager as well as the tourism and marketing manager of the council.

At Wollongong, the initiative came from a local consultant and the Chair of the city’s Tourism Board with one participant stating that:

“The board was keen to increase the amount of the budget for promoting the city for tourism purposes ... one of [the Chair’s] particular hobby horses at the time was the negative impact of our industrial image.”

Regardless of differing conditions and brand activists having different roles and backgrounds, a consequence in each of the cases was that place branding was ‘on the agenda’ of the council.

This stage illustrates one of the many differences between place branding and corporate branding. Given the established importance of the corporate brand, (e.g. Uncles, Cocks et al., 1995; Balmer and Greyser, 2003) many corporations employ specialist brand managers, which is an ongoing position. Perhaps reflecting the newness of place branding, there is no recognised role of place brand manager and the role has only come about in response to a problem and has been a short term contract or appointment. At the time of writing however, there was evidence of some governments establishing specialist positions or even departments. For example, the Office of The Brand Abu Dhabi, see:


The next chapter demonstrates the importance of enlisting the ‘right people’ and pursuing ‘the right paths’ in what is referred to as the stage of energising.
CHAPTER 7. ENERGISING

7.1 Analysis

Despite the belief and motivation of the brand champions, as with any community project, place branding cannot be a ‘one person project.’ Each of these people needed to obtain resources and support for their place brand initiative. A response from a person involved in the Wollongong case is indicative of the situation faced by each of the brand champions.

“[name] from Tourism Wollongong, [was a major instigator] but he couldn’t really do anything about it because he didn’t have the money or the power.”

From the initial stage of activation, the brand strategy needed to be energised. Energising is defined in this work as the act of gaining support, resources and a management structure for the brand strategy. Figure 7.1 provides the basis upon which the stage of energising is to be discussed. Despite some similarities identified in the activation stage, as will be shown hereunder, the conditions, actions and consequences will be markedly different between the cases. In the stage of energising however, the matter of a brand strategy was on the agenda for consideration by the local council, but how it got there and who was pushing it where identified as important differences.
Figure 7.1 The Stages of Activating and Energising

The actions taken during this stage are referred to as *endorsing*, *resourcing* and *structuring*. [As it resulted from later discussions with participants, *enthusing* will be discussed separately at the end of this section.]

*Endorsing* is defined here as the decision taken by the council to support the brand strategy. There was a difference between the cases in that in Lithgow the council was requested to endorse an identified concept – *the learning city*. The *Lithgow Mercury* on 15\textsuperscript{th} Feb, 2001 (Bannerman, 2001) led with a headline, “*Learning City Concept Endorsed by Council*”.

In Armidale and Wollongong the act of endorsing was the decision to proceed with a place brand, a concept yet to be decided upon although resources were provided to proceed.
**Resourcing** is the action of providing funds and personnel towards the brand strategy. Essentially the learning city project in Lithgow was funded by a $15,000 grant from the NSW Government Premier's Department for the brand manager to work two days per week for the first year and there was the involvement and contributions of the volunteer-based Learning City Committee. In the newspaper article referred to above (Bannerman, 2001), the mayor is quoted as saying that the concept would not involve *any major cost to council* but would *provide substantial benefits* for the future.

In the Armidale case, the act of endorsing was matched by a vote of funds ($50,000) predominantly for professional services and, without a formal decision, the time and skills of the council’s Tourism and Marketing Manager were assumed to be directed to the project.

In Wollongong, resourcing was a very different matter. Initially there was an attempt to levy a special tourism rate on the city for the project but as one respondent advised:

“That tourism levy wasn’t supported politically.”

Although locally there was not support for a tourism levy, as verified in a search of local newspaper reports, the NSW Department of Local Government had approved a rate increase for the city, with a senior council officer reflecting:

“... what was fortuitous from a financial point of view, the council had gained a rate increase greater than what we had been [anticipating]... and I said ... why don’t we take the opportunity of using this windfall we are getting out of the increase and apply it into the image campaign, which was really the forerunner if you like to then creating the sort of direction that we did through that campaign and the City of Innovation ...”
The Wollongong case therefore was very different to the others in terms of resourcing. Whereas Lithgow had approximately $15,000 from the NSW State Government and an allocation of one person for 2 days per week, Armidale had an allocation of $50,000 and staff time and expertise, Wollongong allocated $500,000 per year over a 5 year period.

In each of the cases a structure was put in place to manage the brand project. **Structuring** is the act of assigning responsibility to a person or group for the brand strategy. In the Lithgow case this was the act of renaming the committee from the Learning City Steering Committee to the Learning City Management Committee. The structure of the committee is shown in Figure 7.2 which was a public notice in editions of the *Lithgow Mercury*.

![Lithgow Learning City Management Committee](image)

**LITHGOW LEARNING CITY MANAGEMENT COMMITTEE**

The Committee meets on the first Wednesday of every month in Lithgow City Council at 5:30pm. If you have any ideas or questions about learning communities take them to one of the Committee members.

**State Government**
- Gerard Martin, Member for Bathurst

**Lithgow City Council**
- Councillor Babara Moran
- Councillor Al Ritchie
- Andrew Muir, Environmental Services Manager
- Penny Hall, Community Services Manager, Lithgow Regional Library
- Debbie Best, Learning City Coordinator

**Business**
- Ray Christiansen, Economic Development Officer/Business Enterprise Centre Manager
- Steve Salentine, Manager Delta and President Lithgow Chamber of Commerce

**Education**
- Murray Jowles, Campus Manager Lithgow TAFE
- Pam Haddin, Principal St Patrick Primary School
- Mark Pritchard, Coursolle Public School
- Diane Writer, adult education

**Health/Welfare**
- Matthew Johnson, Manager Lithgow Information & Neighbourhood Centre
- Jill Single, Three Tree Lodge

*Figure 7.2 The Learning City Management Committee*
Armidale did not establish or endorse a specialist management committee for its brand strategy but assigned responsibility to the Marketing and Tourism Manager who was directly accountable to the General Manager. These people reported to, what one respondent referred to as, “the high-powered Economic Development Committee” which was chaired by the mayor and consisted of councillors, state government representatives and business leaders.

In Wollongong, a specialist appointment was made. Mr Bob Doyle was appointed as the Manager of the City Image Campaign. He reported directly to the General Manager of the Council.

The consequences in each case were that the brand strategy was supported by the respective councils which endorsed and resourced the project. Differing structures were put in place to manage the project. Wollongong was by far the best resourced in terms of funding. In the Lithgow case, the council provided limited resources. It is pointed out however, that those seeking support for the brand strategy in Lithgow did get what they asked for! Reflecting on the process however, the brand champion at Lithgow made the following comment:

“Everything I did was by the set of my pants, we didn't have the resources”

In assessing the Lithgow Project committee members reflected:

“I would have looked further and harder for funding” and,

“The fault of the council... gave verbal support but not money.”

7.2 Reflection

Resourcing was found to be important particularly in the later stages of place brand implementation. Although perhaps brought about by some ‘good fortune’,
Wollongong was by far the best resourced. Regardless of the much higher level of resources in the Wollongong case, the consultant involved in Armidale gave some sound advice about resourcing particularly with regard to that latter stage of concepting and making a comparison to product and corporate branding.

“... basically the objective was to tell the truth ... Not to lie. Because you do not have any money. So if you have not got any money then you cannot sell an idea. For example, I cannot convince you to drink black cans of Diet Coke -- it's black so it must be better, or it is for blokes or its for girls, without spending half a million. But they [i.e. councils] will never have any money. Whatever money they have is too minuscule to work; they never going to be on national television saying come on to Armidale; they're not going to buy an ad in the Daily Telegraph”.

The importance of the above advice, and a reality of place branding, particularly at a city level, is that the funds allocated to place branding are comparatively small when compared sums allocated to product and corporate brands.

Despite different allocations of resources, in each of the cases the projects had been given legitimacy and enough resources to at least proceed. To further contrast the cases it was found that there were different people and different processes involved. These are now discussed.

In the Wollongong case, the project was clearly supported by the Chair of the city’s Tourism Board and the General Manager of the Council during the stage of energising. There was ‘high-level support’ for the project and the people involved took responsibility as shown below. One respondent stated:

[The Lord Mayor] was able to get the support of his political colleagues, council, and you know, we then started searching around for the people we could work with to help us.

Another respondent claimed:
“[The Lord Mayor] had to take up the political salesmanship of it, and that was both to other councillors and the community. [The Chair of the Tourism Board] obviously had to convince the industry that we had to go through some planning steps rather than just sticking some money into a media buy, the media campaign. .. and [The General Manager of the council] was as always a quintessential public servant’s role, how [to] actually make this happen from an administrative perspective ... So there were the distinct roles I suppose.”

And another respondent stated that:

“My belief is that [the general manager of council] and [the Lord Mayor] were very receptive to what could be done to move forward, they certainly provided [the Chair of the Tourism Board] with the encouragement to take the idea forward and ... we were able to put some substance in behind it”

In Armidale the project was supported at the political and bureaucratic level with the support of “the high-powered Economic Development Committee”.

In Lithgow, despite being able to set up a Learning City Steering Committee, upon reflection, members of the committee realised that they did not get support within the senior management of the council. As one respondent stated:

“...there was a lot support from the councillors but the actual management of council, there was very little.”

“Within the Council, there was not understanding or acceptance”

And:

“The place [name of brand champion] got the least support was from the management of council”

In contrasting the cases, it was found that there were varying levels of political and bureaucratic support and it seemed that the level of this support was influential not just in the energising stage but other stages on the brand implementation process.
High-level support is vital. In her report on Wisconsin, Lindsay (2004) reminded readers that the team established to re-brand Britain (Cool Britannia), was chaired by the Prime Minister and responsibility for implementation was at cabinet level. Those seeking to implement a place brand strategy must understand the power base which exists within the place. Of use here is a review of Hunter’s text (Hunter, 1953). Albeit it a 1953 text, Hunter examined the power relationships in a regional city where he mapped the hierarchies and webs of interconnection operating within a city – mapping relationships of power between businessmen, politicians, clergy etc. Based on what was found in the cases it is considered that the brand activators need to understand and use the power base which exists within their city. Not to do so seems to run the risk of failure. As with corporate branding, place branding is a ‘senior management’ role. The challenge for the place brand champion is to get the community’s senior management to take responsibility for the task. As will be shown further on, the type and degree of energising directed toward the brand strategy may be influential in the expansion of the place brand, particularly when it comes to having ‘the right people‘ on board.

In Sections 3.18 and 5.5 the process of ‘member check’ (Sweeney and Chew, 2002) aimed at improving internal validity and construct validity were discussed. This paragraph has been written as a result of that process as it was found that an important component was missing from the framework. As well as the formal processes of endorsing, resourcing and structuring, a number of respondents who viewed the framework commented on the need to have a high level of commitment and drive for the project as evidenced by the following comments:
“I think this energising phase is really very important, you have got to have some people or a person who is the champion of it, who is just prepared to see it through.”

Feedback from another respondent was similar:

“This probably comes to the ... point that I made before about some of these qualitative things, you know, the emotional side of what happens here is what I would be looking for in your diagram; where the ownership is. For want of a better word, where is the love? Yes, so it might be a consideration in your model, but I do think that that for me is an important element in there. Very difficult to measure, and difficult to identify but the things that have stood out for me throughout this whole period is that these have been most effective when people with passion have been in control or been guiding and directing...”

In view of these comments and a closer examination of the data, it was found that enthusiasm and passion were important to energising and indeed the overall implementation of the brand strategy. There was passion on the part of the brand champions in each of the cases but a differentiating factor between the cases was the passion of the political and bureaucratic leadership in each case. In the more successful case there was more enthusiasm and passion on the part of the leadership team; in the least successful case there was less of each. One respondent warned of the risks of a “manufactured response” – given that endorsing, resourcing and structuring could be ‘mere formalities’ influenced by the need to ‘do something’.

“I think political will is fundamental; if it’s a manufactured response then I don’t necessarily think it will have the success because you really do need engagement and you need political will behind it, ... well I don’t know that ‘risky’ is the right word, but certainly different and unique and new ground for a city of this size and as a consequence, you expose the people that are involved in it to a level of risk, political fall-out and all those sorts of things, so there needs to be a good level of political will. I also think that there needs to be emotion attached to it.”
Based on this and similar feedback and further examination of the data an additional action of *enthusing* has been added with *passion* for the project as a consequence. This was most evident in the Wollongong case and a lessening extent at Armidale and Lithgow respectively. Enthusiasm is important when taking the brand to the community and beyond (*expanding*). Prior to considering expansion, attention is given to the stage of *conceping*. 
CHAPTER 8. CONCEPTING

8.1 Analysis

Similar to the previous two chapters the framework is built upon by adding the stage of concepting as shown in Figure 8.1.

Concepting in this work contains the actions of adopting and planning. In addition to the differences identified in the previous two sections, the conditions which existed at the concepting stage were also different. The first difference which has already been mentioned is the fact that in the Lithgow case, the brand concept had been adopted following its successful application in the U.K. Differently,
Armidale and Wollongong had been through the *activating* and *energising* stages but a brand concept had yet to be determined.

A second difference in the conditions which were a prelude to the concepting stage, which was identified from an analysis of the data, was the available resources and capabilities. Grant (2002) with reference to strategy makes a distinction between resources and capabilities. For an organisation, and even an individual, resource availability is often not enough for success. What is also required is the ability to use the resources – the capabilities. The research revealed that Armidale and Wollongong had not only more resources but more capabilities. In Armidale, the Tourism and Marketing Manager was able to apply his specialist marketing knowledge to the brand project as well as that of the Economic Development Officer and the Public Relations Officer of the Council. In addition, steps were being taken to engage a consultant. Wollongong, as mentioned in the previous section, employed a person on a full-time basis to coordinate the project. This person had extensive marketing and tourism experience and was said by a respondent to be ‘*well-connected*’ within business and government.

It became clearer during the research that both the Wollongong and Armidale were not only better resourced they had better capabilities. This seemed to be an important issue as the analysis of the stages of each project unfolded.

As stated previously, the action was to adopt a concept and apply it to Lithgow.

In contrast, Armidale, perhaps due to having more resources and marketing knowledge, called for tenders for a brand strategy. Tenderers were short listed and invited to present to the Economic Development Committee of the Council. The successful tender included a consultant with many years of marketing experience.
as well as a graphic designer – both of whom were interviewed in the course of this research.

The consultant advised of an important attribute of place branding.

“... basically the objective was to tell the truth – that was the objective. Not to lie. Not to bullshit!”

Reasons for this claim were related to the limitations of local government to resource marketing initiatives as was discussed in the previous chapter. Within the stage of concepting the processes of planning and implementation was addressed by the consultants acting for Armidale. The consultant who had previously held a senior marketing position for a large automotive company when asked about implementation of the place brand made it very clear.

“(I advised them) exactly what to do. I am a realist. I come from the car world; if you don't tell the dealers what to do, they don't do anything; they're busy; they have got their day to day life to run; they're not interested in your nonsense and all this other stuff.”

In contrast this was not done in the Lithgow case. On reflection, respondents commented:

“I don’t think that the brand has been managed that well ... ad hoc use. There is no sort of style guide.”

And:

“I think they need some kind of implementation plan as to how it is to be used – a brand manual.”

Despite the above comments, Lithgow did have a number of projects which were aligned with the Learning City brand and were provided in their annual reports. These will be discussed in the following chapter.
Wollongong appointed a project team of specialist consultants. The consultant’s report (Valerio, Baker et al., 1999) advised that Wollongong: City of Innovation had received council endorsement and gave an explanation as to why innovation was the recommended positioning strategy. Included were claims that:

“The adoption of innovation as a central theme of the image strategy is a realistic and credible proposition for Wollongong. Wollongong’s innovative credentials ... go back to the early days of its history.”

“The theme “innovation’ is an inclusive approach that can be presented as aspirational for all residents and organisations... It can also serve to raise the City’s overall competitive advantage ... in terms of investment, tourism and lifestyle perspective.”

The consultants in their report on the city of innovation concept had taken a similar view to the consultant for Armidale as evidenced by:

“It is on the pathway to owning innovation. ... It will not invent or fabricate – it will communicate what is already there”

Regardless of the acceptance of the brand, which will be discussed in the next chapter, both Armidale and Wollongong attempted to apply what they saw as ‘an absolute truth’ into the brand concept at the same time being aspirational. In contrast, Lithgow’s approach as a learning city was more of a statement of where it ‘wanted to go’ and was perhaps ‘more removed’ from the existing identity of place. The argument has been put forward in Chapter 2 that place branding for the most part is ‘aspirational’. The gap between the aspirational identity (the brand strategy) and the existing identity (indeed multiple identities) presents a challenge for place marketers. From an examination of the cases, it is argued that the scope for concepting in place branding is restricted by the resources available to communicate and influence. There is a need to search for an ‘absolute truth’ or an aspirational identity which can recognise the ‘soul’ of the city but be the catalyst
for change. As found from the cases, both Wollongong and Armidale decided to engage both internal and external marketing expertise to concept their brand whereas Lithgow with more limited resources and marketing capabilities did not pursue this option. On reflection, a respondent from Wollongong supported their process in claiming:

“I have got no doubt that ... we did the right thing by trying to base it on some science rather than just you know, sticking a wet finger in the air and seeing where the wind is blowing and that sort of stuff. I have no doubt that trying to do it by science was the right way to go and I wouldn’t change that at all.”

A comment from a Lithgow respondent indicated that perhaps this should have been given more attention:

“There needs to be a bit more research as to how to actually implement it and make sure that is taken up mainstream”

In Wollongong, a summary of the rationale underpinning the recommendation of innovation was presented in the report followed by a public relations strategy to launch the ‘City of Innovation.’ As an image campaign, the recommendations were in keeping with the requirement to improve the image of the city and most of the recommendations were aligned to communications strategies.

Despite marked differences in concepting, in each of the cases a brand logo and tagline was adopted by the respective councils. Lithgow’s artwork for the brand resulted from a competition to design a logo for the learning city project. A local notice stated:

“The aim is to develop a logo that can be used on all publicity material, on stationary by the Lithgow Council and other learning organizations and on flags and banners that may be erected throughout the community.”
The logo and artwork for Armidale was designed by a professional graphic artist and was based on research and recommendations by the consultant. As discussed in Chapter 2, Petromilli, Morrison et al. (2002 p. 23) argue that logos, taglines, jingles, and spokespeople are merely representations of the brand. They claim that the actual brand is how customers think and feel about the business or the product. This seems to be an issue with brand management generally in that it appears that there are many cases when there is a strong focus on logos, taglines and jingles and not the marketing strategy which should underpin the brand. As one community participant reflected after the place branding process:

“In the early days there were people like me putting forward snappy slogans and failing to understand the whole process of branding.”

The consequence of the concepting stage was that the cities had a brand strategy supported by logos and taglines and were ready to take their logo to the community and beyond.

8.2 Reflection
Regardless of the level of success, there was a rationale for each of the brand strategies.

In Lithgow it was: “it worked elsewhere.”

In Armidale it was: “find an absolute truth”

In Wollongong it was: “an inclusive approach that can be presented as aspirational for all residents and organisations”.


The Armidale and Wollongong cases, as well as having more in-house marketing expertise available, had gone down the path of engaging consultants who not only had marketing expertise but also could bring with them more of an unbiased view. Lindsay (2004, p.8) argues that “the brand scope cannot be determined by residents with their regional biases, nor by elected officials bent on getting stardom for their district, nor by narrow special interest groups like trade associations.”

Despite the financial limitations, at least at this time, for local governments to fund place brand initiatives, concepting is an important task in place branding. The place brand concept is similar to that of corporate branding, keeping in mind the argument of Hatch and Schultz (2003) that the objective of corporate branding is to align the vision, culture and image of the organisation. This needs to be considered in the concepting of the brand and as will be shown in the next chapter can be a major challenge when the brand is launched with the goal of expanding it throughout the community and beyond.
CHAPTER 9. EXPANDING

9.1 Analysis

As stated in Chapter 5, the stages of place brand implementation are not sequential or linear. This is particularly the situation with **expanding** which, to varying degrees between the cases, started at different times within the process.

*Expanding* is defined as taking the brand from its nucleus of supporters to the broader section of the community and the identified markets. It seemed that the more difficult task is to expand the brand strategy internally – to get local ‘buy-in.’

As one participant commented:

> “There is no point having one sector of the community pushing something; it needs to go wider.”

Another person commented:

> “It is not just a council initiative, it is a city initiative.”

Figure 9.1 shows the *conditions, actions and consequences* which relate to the stage of *expanding* and will now be discussed.
In each of the cases, the issue of community characteristics or community culture, ‘came to the surface’ during the analysis of the data and were identified as a *condition* in the expansion stage. When asked about their community, one senior local government representative issued a warning:

*“Don't get the community offside ... very hard to turnaround”*

Despite very different demographics between the populations within the cases, there seemed to be some common characteristics with similar comments from participants of each of the cities.

In Lithgow it was:
“There is an acceptance that the government will always come forward and help us out whereas in other cities, it is let’s go out and make it happen.”

And:

“A strong self-help ethic, but a very strong sense of entitlement.”

“[the city] is used to getting and relying on government assistance and handouts.”

A telling comment from a respondent in Lithgow was:

I think Lithgow lacks the ability to stand up injustice. The very same people who work so hard for the community, if anything is going wrong they don't get up in protest or do anything. It is a bit of an attitude of, “Well, that's Lithgow - something else will come up.” It is so different [in] the Blue Mountains; they protest like you would not believe. [Note: The Blue Mountains is the adjoining city.]

In Armidale, allegedly due to the high percentage of professional people, the comments were made:

“Virtually everything is controversial”

“We have difficulty in this town of coming to an agreement”,

And:

“You virtually can't do anything... without some sort of bun fight; there are people who don't want to be change at all; there are others that do what change.”

“Armidale is a fostering caring society that is open to... that might be a sweeping statement because sometimes we battle with change here”

Wollongong comments included:

“[A] weakness is that there is a lot of negative people in Wollongong, I think a fair proportion of the population doesn’t share that sense of community and so on, so there is a lot of knockers and people that would prefer to see the place not succeed.”

And:

I don’t know that we necessarily have a level of self-belief as a community and I think maybe we could, and I don’t know that we have that sort of pride, we can be self-deprecating at times; we can you know, put ourselves down.
The above comments are evidence that community culture is a condition which needs careful consideration in the process of place brand implementation. In addition to some of the potential risks arising out of community culture there were also some more positive aspects, including the informal communication network.

“Everybody knows who their community leaders and other participants are”,

And:

“One of the strong suits is the ability to find out what is going on pretty quickly.”

The community culture and the informal networks were the conditional characteristics which existed as actions were carried out to expand the place brand. Two actions were noted. First, the actual launch of the brand and the second was the expansion of the brand strategy throughout the community and beyond.

In each of the cases there was a formal brand launch which received press coverage and endorsement by political leaders. In Lithgow, Best (2002) by way of a newspaper article, invited local people to become involved. The article explained what the Learning City strategy was and invited readers to:

“…start thinking how you can be part of this exciting new concept”

Expansion is an important stage in place branding. Similar to the corporate brand which also has the challenge to move the brand strategy from the senior management level to permeate the entire organisation (Hatch and Schultz, 2003; King and Grace, 2005) and beyond those involved have a similar and probably more difficult challenge. As one respondent stated:

“Target your groups. Know who is in community. Know who is doing what. Don't go in there assuming things. ... Be very careful you
acknowledge what is already happening and you take the people with you.”

One respondent even identified the risks of leaving the strategy as solely a council function.

“That is the biggest problem – it has got to be taken out of the clutches of government, particularly local government, as it is too high bound in procedures and is not able to move quick enough to adapt to commercial realities and opportunities – it just can’t do it.”

9.2 Reflection

Although in the field of telecommunications and internet marketing, Hanson (2000 p. 63) refers to Metcalf’s Law which states that the value of a network rises rapidly as more people participate – “the value of the network increases with the square of the number of participants”. There seems to be some parallel in the process of place brand implementation. Perhaps the value and ultimate success of the brand is influenced by the number of people and organisations in the brand network. Such an approach is similar to that explained in Chapter 2, Section 1, where the term brand portfolio was introduced with reference to corporate brands to identify the various associations which are established by the brand.

The level of acceptance and understanding not just on the part of the key stakeholders but the broader community was an issue not well handled within the cases. There was clear evidence that in the Lithgow and Armidale cases that even the community leaders – senior management – had vastly contrasting views.

For example a media representative in one of the cases commented:

“To be honest, given that I covered the announcement in the local news on the radio at the time I didn't fully understand what it was the time, probably three years ago with the announcement; I don't think we have made a great song and dance about it; I don't know anybody fully knows the meaning of what the learning city is. It just hasn't been sold.”
And:

“Sounds wonderful. I don’t know if it has achieved anything for Lithgow.”

There were also comments that the Lithgow strategy was not expanded successfully. For example:

“It was a great idea to set up, but it is a skeleton rather than a body; so it is a framework. Now, it really needs to be built on; it’s a great thing now but it probably only get 10% benefit from what’s there for the potential.”

And also:

“It's going to the people who already want it; it's not been promoted to the people who need it.”

In Armidale it was much the same situation.

“From the point of view of things happening and businesses using it, it never happened. Signs were put up and a number of people go through and say, "What does that mean?" You know, what do they mean by thrive? I would have to say that it has not been successful.”

There were divided opinions amongst the community leaders in the Lithgow and Armidale cases about the success of the brand strategy although this was not as noticeable in the Wollongong case. One critic stated:

Many of those involved will defend it to the hilt because of the public money involved; there are those in the community who are critical, who regard it as a waste of money and time.”

It was noticeable in the Lithgow case there was a higher level of criticism as the interviews moved to non-council respondents. This also occurred in Armidale but was noticeably lesser in Wollongong. This is considered as evidence that Wollongong was more successful in expanding the brand to its ‘senior management team’ in the community.
A second issue is that there seemed to be a misunderstanding about the objectives and timeframe of the brand strategy. For example on reflection one respondent commented:

“The advice would be that it’s a long term thing. That it can’t be done in 12 months. That you have to set a strategy and follow it through ... I would say a minimum of 3 years. To allow the message to get out and for the message to be consistent, so it needs to be funded and committed to for 3 to 5 years. That would be my strongest recommendation, that it can’t possibly be a quick fix and that 5 years is a probably a good time. Even 3 years might be a bit short.”

From the cases it was found that Lithgow was observed to be the most active in enlisting the support of the broader community. The critical difference however was that there was less success in Lithgow in enlisting high-level support.

In the previous chapter on concepting, the benefits of engaging consultants with marketing expertise and who were less likely to be influenced by local biases, was put forward. In this chapter, it has been shown that any external consultant would do well to understand the city culture when concepting a brand strategy. As was pointed out in the activation stage, problems with negative image were internal and as well as external. In each of these cases it seemed that part of the objective of the place brand was to change the culture the way people thought about their city – similar to Hatch and Schultz’s (2003) comments about the role of the corporate brand in linking culture, vision and image. For example, in the Lithgow case the comment was made:

“You have to change the people of Lithgow's view of Lithgow as much as you have to change external people's view of Lithgow.”
Similar to that of the corporate brand literature, as discussed in Chapter 2, de Chernatony (1999) warns of the risk of not aligning culture with the brand objectives in what is referred to as the brand-culture gap.

Politicians have an important promotional role during the expansion stage in taking the project from its supporters to the broader community. The comment was made:

“You have got to have a promotional strategy ... it needs to be something that enthuses the community; so you need to have the skills within that group, or the capacity to be able to access it. But I say that is coming out of civic leadership, because civic leadership is basically politics; it is linked into the community; it is linked into the media; it is linked into how to deliver an effective message. You know with doctors it's looking out for a set of symptoms; with the leaders it is, where have I seen this before? And with politicians it is, how do I deliver a message? What's a politician? A professional communicator. So if you have got your politicians involved you have probably got your communication strategy wrapped up there.”

Reflecting on the above comment it was evident that in both the Wollongong and Armidale cases there was evidence of a higher level of commitment and active communication on the part of political leaders. This was less obvious in the Lithgow case. The Lithgow case as evidenced by comments and documents did have actual programs aligned to the brand strategy. In Armidale there was criticism as to the lack of programs even to the extent that this was a ‘cultural problem’. With its high number of professional people and ‘the old money’ people it was suggested that Armidale had difficulty in expanding the brand strategy as apparently it did with other community projects. For example, one respondent stated:

“So we agreed to develop the brand ... but unless somebody is willing to take it down to the businesses and to the people, nobody is going to use it; it just sits there; which is what's happened.”
Civic leaders should take account of this and again this adds justification for astutely structuring the committee in the *energising* stage to ensure that the ‘right people’ are on the committee.

In each of the cases the place brands had been through the stages identified in the framework provided. The next chapter looks at the life of the brand and the stage of *re-energising*. 
10. 1 Analysis

As stated earlier, this research was undertaken post place brand implementation. The consequence of the process was that there was reflection and evaluation by some as to the worth of the place brand strategy. Interestingly, it became apparent that the interviews by the researcher was the first time that the interviewees had reflected and been asked of their opinion of the process. In each of the cases the momentum of the brand strategy had either stagnated or declined. As will be shown the Lithgow Learning City brand had almost ceased to exist while in Wollongong there was still limited activity. Armidale was attempting to reinvigorate its Thrive in Armidale strategy by applying it to other sectors and was perhaps the most committed to what has been defined in the theoretical framework as ‘re-energising’ the brand. As one of the Armidale respondents commented:

“The initial community uptake was quite promising as well. It got into the local newspaper; different companies picked it up - sporting groups etc. Since then, since the initial surge like any product it has settled back to a fairly regular pattern.”

Discussion of the re-energising stage is guided by the conditions, actions and consequences as shown in Figure 10.1.
In each of the cases, there was at the very least a condition of declining momentum. In Lithgow the brand champion had resigned and a comment was made:

“The entire program was dependant on one person. When this person left the brand strategy stalled.”

In Wollongong, despite a higher level of on-going support from community leaders a comment from one of the stakeholders was:

“The people with the high energy passion, aren’t as involved now as they were ... so we are looking for a renewal and re-energising in terms of people with the passion who carry it forward ... the nucleus of those that were driving the ... strategy ... are now out doing other things. Where is the next generation of passion? ... we can talk how it is all in a practical sense, and we can map things out, but if you don’t have the community spirit and community pride, and you don’t have individuals to drive the passion, how do you get these things to happen.”
In this sense re-energising means not just an increased communications effort, or the application of the brand to different sectors, but a revitalisation and if necessary a transfer of the brand leadership. As was shown earlier, in the Lithgow case, as soon as the brand champion left there was no continuity of the project. In the Wollongong case major stakeholders moved on to other projects and even in the Armidale case the Tourism and Marketing Manager has now been ‘promoted away’ from the city brand strategy to a regional tourism role. It became evident that in all of the cases the level of support had declined over a period of 2 to 5 years.

An additional issue that emerged from the data was the fact that even at least some who were supportive of the strategy realised that a medium to long-term commitment was required. One respondent reflected:

“The advice would be that it’s a long term thing. That it can’t be done in 12 months. That you have to set a strategy and follow it through ... I would say a minimum of 3 years. To allow the message to get out and for the message to be consistent, so it needs to be funded and committed to for 3 to 5 years. That would be my strongest recommendation, that it can’t possibly be a quick fix and that 5 years is a probably a good time. Even 3 years might be a bit short.”

A similar comment was:

“The only problem is that there is always an expectation that you create a brand and six months later, the whole thing is going to change.”

Possibly in the expansion stage there may need to educate those involved that the brand strategy is a medium to long-term strategy. Although re-energising was not done well in the cases the point was made that this was a shortcoming of the project with a respondent commenting.

“I guess, what would I try and do differently, I would try and build in some longer term sustainability, as I said earlier, I think it sort of dropped off
the pace a little, I might try and build in some sustainability. Maybe there is some means of refreshing it”

10.2 Reflection

In the Lithgow case there was limited evidence of reenergising although a new general manager of the Council (who has since left) had included the Learning City as a key performance indicators for the council’s senior managers but clearly broad community interest and support had gone. In Armidale, support for ‘Thrive in Armidale’ had polarised particularly with community leaders. It seemed that there was not a neutral view; either strong support or strong criticism. Attempts were being made however to re-energise the brand by moving its application from education to culture and food. In Wollongong the need to reenergise was supported on two fronts.

First, as one respondent commented:

“There is a lack of a follow-up organisation – if it just stops dead and nothing else happens you have wasted your …money. If it led to something, which in Wollongong it did … that’s were we are now. We were going to have ‘Advantage Wollongong’ which was exactly what they needed … that’s the biggest problem, reenergising.”

Second, at the time of writing up this report the City of Wollongong was embroiled in a major corruption scandal which involved the sacking of the council. Some community leaders were advocating for another city image campaign to counter the alleged damage that had been done to the city’s reputation.

At the time of conducting the research, (post-brand implementation) observation made by the researcher yielded limited data. The only useful evidence was some signage at the entrances to the cities of Wollongong and Armidale with none at
Lithgow. The lack of evidence was in itself important as it confirmed the claims that the brand strategies had stalled and the re-energising stage had not been reached in the Lithgow case, although it had been identified as being necessary in Wollongong and there were attempts being made to re-energise the brand in Armidale.
CHAPTER 11. THEORETICAL CONTRIBUTION

11.1 Introduction

Blaxter and Hughes et al. (2001) state that the purpose of research in the social sciences is to make a contribution which should be in the form of originality. In the context of this work the originality of the research is in the form of carrying out empirical work that has not been undertaken before and looking at areas that people in the discipline haven’t examined before (Phillips and Pugh, 2000).

This research has contributed to knowledge relative to place brand management by providing a better understanding as to the processes of place branding, particularly at the ‘operationalisation’ stage which as Papadopoulos and Heslop (2002) claim is not understood. In particular the motivation for this work has not only derived from the researcher’s own interest and experience in the marketing of places, but also Anholt’s (2002 p. 232) comment that:

“Place marketing is marketing’s greatest challenge and biggest chance to create a lasting and significant future role … beyond its traditional boundaries … the ‘country as brand’ and its related disciplines have the potential to do something which marketing has never really done before: to make a major and direct impact on the fairer distribution of wealth.”

It is argued that the application of marketing principles to places can result in a competitive advantage and be the basis of a turnaround strategy for places in trouble as identified by Kotler and Haider et al., (1993).

The justification for claiming a theoretical contribution is now supported with reference to feedback from a number of respondents (member check) as well as comparison with existing theory and literature. The purpose of this section is to demonstrate both the similarities with and differences from existing theory. The
reflections contained within each of the chapters dealing with the stages of place brand implementation have demonstrated the similarities with and between corporate branding and place branding. It does show however that corporate brand concepts cannot simply be transferred to place brands. The additional complexities of place branding has been established in the literature and from the data obtained within this work. The comparisons with existing theory not only serve to demonstrate the uniqueness of the framework of place brand implementation, but also raise a number of issues that will be in need of further research. The next sections deal with ‘member check and comparisons with existing theory.

11.2 Member Check
In Chapter 5, mention was made of ‘member check’; a term used by Sweeney and Chew (2002) and consistent with the recommendations of Corbin and Strauss (2008) and Burnard (1991) that a number of key informants be asked to review the theoretical model which has been developed. This task contributes to verifying that there is both internal validity and construct validity contained within the theory of place brand implementation. As stated previously, at least one respondent from each case was contacted and shown the framework and asked to comment. The most comprehensive comment was:

“There is nothing there that I see, that stands out to me as not being sensible ... recognition of the need to do something, [then] someone narrowed that focus down, ... activating ... the early stages of the solution. That certainly occurred in [place name]... the energising; most certainly ... rallying support ... this is right, most definitely, this is good, I am assuming, you haven’t put these sequentially...certainly energising is something that needs addressing. But the resourcing thing ... local government would need to resource this ...now the concepting ... here I guess we are talking about the strategy. This is clearly a vital area, and this can be a make or break here, so that certainly, I like the word ‘concepting’. Because there isn’t a black box, a turnkey solution for this
one, so certainly... this phase is going to be vital because you are going to have a whole range of different views on what needs to be done. Expanding of course, I think expanding it, is quite a useful phase. And Greg, definitely re-energising is something that will need to occur if there hasn’t been an acknowledgement that this type of thing needs to be something that a place does all the time. So in some respects, maybe re-energising is almost like keeping it on track ... I think that overall it’s a solid framework.”

Another respondent emphasised the importance of a long-term approach to place branding by stating:

“I think it’s a good model, and it puts all the elements in it, and I just re-emphasise again that these aren’t short term fixes, you have got to have the will and the commitment”

Energising was seen as not just endorsing, resourcing, and structuring as defined in Chapter 7 but needed leadership and passion.

“I think this energising phase is really very important, you have got to have some people or a person who is the champion of it, who is just prepared to see it through.”

Feedback from another respondent was similar.

“This probably comes to the point ... about some of these qualitative things, you know, the emotional side of what happens here is that I would be looking for in your diagram; where the ownership is. For want of a better word, where is the love? Yes, so it might be a consideration in your model, but I do think that that for me is an important element in there. Very difficult to measure, and difficult to identify but the things that have stood out for me throughout this whole period is that these have been most effective when people with passion have been in control or been guiding and directing...”

Based on the feedback and a closer examination of the data, the action of enthusing (community leaders) and a consequence of passion (for the strategy by community leaders) has been added to the theoretical framework with an explanatory paragraph included in Chapter 7.
11.3 Comparison with Existing Theory

As mentioned in Chapter 5, the task of *enfolding the literature* is undertaken at two levels. The first level, that of comparing and contrasting the literature was undertaken during the process of reflection in each of the chapters dealing with the stages of place brand implementation. The second level, which is contrasting the model of place brand implementation with existing theory, is now undertaken.

In seeking to identify existing theory which might have relevance to the theory developed in this work, the advice of Anfara and Mertz (2006) was heeded when they suggested that in social science research, theories are generally drawn from the various disciplines and as such these disciplines provided varying lenses for examining phenomena. These authors are critical of “neophyte researchers” who often confine themselves to theory or theories that they have frequently encountered and in doing so fail to recover the world of theories in the various disciplines that might be efficacious. “If properly used, these varied perspectives can tremendously enhance research. More than this, the social science disciplines interact and mutually enrich each other” (Anfara and Mertz 2006 p. 56).

In seeking to identify theories which might have relevance to this work this researcher sought to identify some key issues that were central to the findings. Three issues in particular were identified from the cases and could be linked back to the current literature on place branding. These were:

1. The *need for change*,
2. The *need for high-level political and bureaucratic support* and,
3. The *need for stakeholder buy-in*.

The literature contains an extensive array of theories which assist in understanding the dimensions of change, politics and power, and stakeholder buy-in. The approach taken by this researcher to identify suitable theories was to discuss the
findings with senior academic researchers to seek guidance on the theories which should be examined and compared to the findings in this thesis. Authors such as Burnard (1991) recommend the engagement of academic colleagues to contribute to the validity of qualitative research.

As a result of consultation with senior academics, the theories now presented to assist with the validity of, and contribution of, the framework of place brand implementation are:

- The Dunphy-Stace Model,
- Arena Theory and,
- Identification Theory.

The following sections will introduce the theory, that is, what it is, and with reference to the framework developed in this thesis discuss, how it is similar and how it is different.

11.4 Dunphy-Stace Model

In Chapter 2 it was mentioned that successful corporate branding links the vision, culture and image of the organisation (Hatch and Schultz, 2003). The literature has also established a link between corporate branding and place branding (Olins, 1999; Anholt, 2002; Trueman, Klemm and Giroud, 2004; Kavaratzis, 2005). Drawing on these similarities, it is argued that a place brand, particularly one that is aspirational, should seek to align the vision, culture and image of a place. As was found from the cases, an aspirational brand is one that needs to reflect intended (even necessary) change. It is therefore appropriate to consider models that help understand change. One such model which, as will be shown below, may have relevance for place brand implementation, is the Dunphy-Stace Model. Place branding relates predominantly to places in trouble and there is a need for change
(Ecorys Research and Consulting, 2008). It has also been found from an examination of the data, strong and committed leadership is required to improve the chances of the successful implementation of the strategy. For example, in the more successful case it was claimed:

“[The Mayor] was able to get the support of his political colleagues ... and [then] we then started searching around for the people we could work with to help us.”

And on reflection a respondent claimed;

“I think that there is a need to have a lot of the key stakeholders on board and locked in early.”

In the least successful case (and as was discussed in the stage of re-energising) one respondent commented:

“I think what happened, is that it started off with all the right leadership .... Before [name] moved ... she was getting increasingly isolated. In other words the leadership in the community wasn't backing [name] -- and any person doing that needs to be off the enthusiasm of the leaders. I think in my mind there was a dropping of the "leadership bundle."

A difference between the cases was not only the leadership commitment but the style of leadership particularly when community leaders are dealing with the stakeholder complexity of a place.

In the context of organisations, Dunphy and Stace (1988) developed a model with two critical dimensions: the scale of change needed to bring the organization back into fit with its environment, and the style of leadership required to bring about that change. Their model is shown as Figure 11.1.
Figure 11.1 The Dunphy-Stace Change Matrix  
Source: (Stace, 1996 p. 555)

The model is used here to assist explain the scale of change identified in the research in process of place brand implementation. From the data obtained, particularly with reference to the conditions of the places at the commencement of the stage of activation, as detailed in Chapter 6, there was a need for more than *fine tuning* or *incremental adjustment*. These places were in trouble! Dunphy and Stace (1988) suggest that “*modular transformation*” involves organisational change which is characterized by major realignment of one or more departments or divisions. The process of change is not necessarily ‘organisation wide’.

*Corporate transformation* is identified by Dunphy and Stace (1988) as organizational change which is corporation-wide, characterized by radical shifts in business strategy, and revolutionary changes throughout the whole organization involving many of the following features:
- Reformed organizational mission and core values,
- Altered power and status affecting the distribution of power in the organization,
- Reorganization—major changes in structures, systems, and procedures across the organization,
- Revised interaction patterns—new procedures, work flows, communication networks, and decision making patterns across the organization,
- New executives in key managerial positions from outside the organization.

From an examination of the cases, there was a need identified in the activation stage by the brand champions as the equivalent of “corporate transformation”

There was a need for change remembering comments from respondents including:

“There was a general crisis; the industries that were supporting Lithgow were closing down ...”

“[Armidale] … a stagnant economy”

“Well Wollongong had a very bad image … so there was this great history of Wollongong as being the laughing stock of NSW”.

What was needed therefore was transformational change which is reflected in the desire of each city for the implementation of an ‘aspirational’ place brand. Despite having the condition of ‘serious problems’ in common, the attitude towards transformation varied between the cases. In each case the brand strategy was at the very least a symbol of change. In the Wollongong case there was more substantial structures and procedures put in place. In Lithgow despite the brand champion saying,

“No-one could deny that Lithgow is going through a period on immense change – the challenge is to renew ourselves”. 
the Mayor publicly commented that the concept would not involve any major cost to council but would provide substantial benefits for the future (Bannerman, 2001).

The more successful case seemed to have a stronger desire for change and the allocation of resources and the employment of specialist personnel is evidence of this.

Given the nature and complexity of place branding, it is worth focusing on the management style which could best result in successful place brand implementation. The Dunphy-Stace Model provides four styles of change management as shown in Figure 11.1. These are explained below.

**TYPE 1**: Collaborative. This involves widespread participation by employees in important decisions about the organization's future, and about the means of bringing about organizational change.

**TYPE 2**: Consultative. This style of leadership involves consultation with employees, primarily about the means of bringing about organizational change, with their possible limited involvement in goal setting relevant to their area of expertise or responsibility.

**TYPE 3**: Directive. This style of leadership involves the use of managerial authority and direction as the main form of decision making about the organization's future, and about the means of bringing about organizational change.

**TYPE 4**: Coercive. This style of leadership involves managers/executives or outside parties forcing or imposing change on key groups in the organization.

In assessing the ‘style of leadership’ that might best suit the implementation of a place brand, the types suggested by Dunphy and Stace (1988) are considered. By a process of elimination, it is argued that coercive leadership was not applied in the cases and given the nature of places (remembering that Hankinson (2001) argued that places do not have the same rigid control mechanisms which exist in organisations, this would not be appropriate.
In considering the unfolding of events in the cases, it could not be suggested that there was collaborative leadership. There was not widespread participation by residents in the city about the future direction of their city and the means of bringing about change.

Again, in each of the cases there was no evidence of consultative leadership. Residents were not consulted about the means of bringing about change for their city. There were invitations to participate after the strategy had been determined and implemented. For example, in the Lithgow case, Best (2002) invited local people to become involved by way of a newspaper article. The article explained what the Learning City strategy was and invited readers to:

“...start thinking how you can be part of this exciting new concept”

This invitation was issued during what has been identified as the expansion stage in the framework.

It seems that the style of leadership using the Dunphy-Stace Model which ‘best fits’ with that of the cases is directive leadership. Once the brand activists were able to seed the idea of a place brand and enlist leadership support, these leaders took on more of a directive role as they were able to organise and control the endorsement, the allocation of resources and the structuring. Strong directive leadership to drive place transformation seems to be the most appropriate in the case of aspirational place branding.

From an analysis of the data and with reference to the Dunphy-Stace Model it seems that leadership is an important component of place brand implementation. The data has shown that the leadership has to be on-going. In the least successful case, one respondent claimed:
“There was a dropping of the leadership bundle”.

Perhaps even more important than the ‘formalities of leadership’ it was revealed by way of the member check in the previous section, there needs to be enthusiasm and passion on the part of the leaders of the place brand strategy.

A directive leadership style to guide the transformational change of a place encompassed in a place brand strategy needs support from what might be described as ‘the big-end of town’. As referred to earlier, it was contemplated by one respondent when considering the role of the brand champion,

“[name] from Tourism Wollongong, [was a major instigator] but he couldn’t really do anything about it because he didn’t have the money or the power”.

Place branding, as has been found from the cases and the literature (Morgan, Pritchard et al., 2004) is a political act. Relating the framework developed in this thesis, the Dunphy-Stace Model has been useful to consider leadership and change issues. Just as useful may be a comparison to a theory which deals with politics and power in the context of transformational change. The next section undertakes this task.
11.5 Arena Theory

If the implementation of a place brand strategy is to extend to a community–wide project, this research has shown the importance of high-level government and bureaucratic support throughout the entire process. It seemed that there was a relationship between the type and level of support (as well as leadership) and the level of energising and ultimately, the success of the other stages. In the more successful case, the brand champion was able to enlist high-level support. A theory which was found useful to assist in explaining some of the processes of place brand implementation was Mazzoni’s Arena Theory. Fowler (2006) suggests Mazzoni's theoretical framework is not a grand social theory, but a middle range political theory developed to explain how policy innovations come about in education. Although relating to the political process in the education sector in the US, Mazzoni developed his theory to explain the success of policy innovation as distinct from policy incrementalism (remembering the scale of change referred to in the Dunphy-Stace Model in the previous section). It has been found from the cases that place branding involves transformational change and would be more closely aligned to policy innovation than policy incrementalism. As Best (2002) said in her article on the Learning City concept for Lithgow:

“No-one could deny that Lithgow is going through a period on immense change – the challenge is to renew ourselves”.

Some comparisons are now made between Arena Theory (shown diagrammatically in Figure 11.2) and the model of place brand implementation developed in this study.
As stated, Arena Theory is similar to the model developed to explain place brand implementation in that it relates to substantial or transformational change – not incremental change. Furthermore, similar to this study, where stages were inductively developed and labelled according to *conditions, actions* and *consequences*, Mazzoni structures his theory around *environment, conversion* and *output*. Mazzoni’s classification of “pressures for change” within the environmental category, are similar to the pressures for change as a condition in the *activation* stage in this work. In the context of the need for change, Mazzoni identifies the role of the organisational elites and policy entrepreneurs. In his study, the education interest groups and politicians with a special concern for education were identified as the *subsystem arena*. The subsystem arena in this thesis is equated to the brand champions and the nucleus of supporters who ‘seeded the idea’ and got place branding on the agenda. Similar to Arena Theory,
the brand champions could not achieve their goals without high-level government and community support.

The framework developed in this study differs from Arena Theory in that the ‘available revenues’ are not an ‘environmental condition’ but an outcome or consequence of the stage of energising. Similar to Arena Theory however, the desired outcomes are influenced, if not determined, by the arena in which the issue is able to reach. Mazzoni hypothesised that for policy innovations to be successful, the issue must expand from the **subsystem arena** to a either the **commission arena**, the **macro area**, or the **leadership arena**. In Fowlers review of Arena Theory, (Fowler, 2006), she explains that the **macro arena** recognizes the general public, who have the ability to exert pressure on politicians to introduce new policy. The **commission arena** is a decision-making group created by government e.g., a commission task force or study group. The **leadership arena** includes top government officials and the private groups or individuals, if any, who control them. It was the leadership arena, which had exerted the most influence and had the most chance of realising policy innovation.

In applying Arena Theory to her case study, Fowler found that the players in the subsystem and macro arena were reduced to reactive positions from which they provided relatively minor input. Her study argues that in order for an innovative education policy to be adopted, the central policy debate had to shift out the subsystem arena, but it could shift to any of the other three arenas, or a combination of them perhaps involving other likely arenas including interest group coalitions and private elite networks. The role of the leadership elite was referred
to by Fowler and this was referred to earlier in this work in discussion of the stage of *energising* when Hunter’s 1953 text, ‘Community Power Structure’ was referred to. Fowler in her study stresses the importance of policy innovation imposed by a leadership elite; elite theory (Hunter, 1953) suggests that in any society, a small elite rises to the top and rules making most of the important decisions. She suggests that her views may have been influenced by her experiences of southern politics of the USA, in what she refers to as the role of ‘the good old boys’. Perhaps one could reflect similarly on the political structure of many NSW towns and cities. For example in the Armidale case;

“... it seems there are people that need to be on board ...there is this network in Armidale that seems to be quite important. ... the established network. The old boy’s network ... If you want specific outcomes you have to get the right people on board”.

Another person commented:

“It is a very small town in that respect. We tried a fund raising exercise when I was at ... and it was made clear to us who we should get on board as members of the project committee.”

The case studies demonstrate that politics plays an important part in the process of place brand implementation again supported by Morgan and Pritchard (2004 p. 4) referring to place branding as “a political act”. Similarly Dinnie (2008 p. 200) in the context of nation branding points out, “there is no getting away from the fact that nation branding is a highly politicised activity.”

Even in the corporate brand literature ‘arenas’ are recognised and given importance. As stated in Chapter 2, the corporate brand is regarded as the responsibility of the arena of the board and CEO and should be managed within the context of the organisation’s strategic plan (Leitch and Richardson, 2003).
On reflection, there was evidence from the data that in the Wollongong case, place branding had gone to a higher arena when compared to Armidale and particularly Lithgow. Similar to Mazzoni’s model the ‘strategically placed idea champion’ in Wollongong had access to the ‘leadership elite’ which was similar in Armidale but not the situation in Lithgow.

A component of the leadership arena put forward by Mazzoni was that there was “weak countervailing power from stakeholder groups”. In the Lithgow and Armidale cases this situation was not achieved as there was evidence in the data which suggested open and strong controversy with regard to the place brand. For example, an Armidale respondent commented that:

“There was a media launch and a lot of debate in the community, some quite critical of the exercise as being too expensive and not being sure whether council or the community would see any benefits.”

In contrast, there was evidence to suggest that leaders in Wollongong were able to address the potential of reactionary forces. For example, a respondent from Wollongong commented:

“And I remember that they came to see me, ..., we had a meeting with [the general manager of council] and [brand manager] ..., where they were clearly seeking the [local newspaper’s] support, ..., council was spending a lot of money on this, half a million dollars a year and they didn’t want I suppose, to have the local media criticising them at every turn.”

Arena Theory provides a useful comparison to the framework developed in this study in that a number of similarities have been found. In addition to resources being an outcome not an environmental condition as stated earlier in this section, two major differences exist between the two theories. First, is that in the a legislative framework which Arena Theory deals with, the on-going ‘emotional’
support of the leadership elite is perhaps not as essential – unless it gets to a state of when the legislation is repealed. As was shown in the re-energising stage, the support of the leadership elite is paramount for the brand strategy to continue as the leadership need to be personally supportive and involved in the strategy. Second, place branding is not done within a legislative framework and compliance cannot be enforced. Not only can acceptance not be enforced in the expansion stage of place brand implementation, the residents of a city have a number of competing loyalties within their lives and those involved in the concepting and expanding of a place brand may be advantaged by an understanding of theories of attachment. Identification Theory is one such theory and is no introduced and compared to the framework of place brand implementation.

11.6 Identification Theory

As stated in Chapter 2, there is inconsistency, even confusion in the literature concerning the meaning and use of the terms brand, image, identity and reputation. It was suggested that a brand by virtue of its ‘input’ and ‘relational’ characteristics (Hankinson and Cowking, 1993) has the ability to align image, identity and reputation. This was shown in Figure 2.8. Within an organisation, or a place for that matter, there are likely to be multiple interpretations of these constructs. One of the challenges of place branding is to “get the populace to ‘live’ the brand” (Anholt, 2002). This task may well be more difficult for a place than in an organisation due to the additional complexities of a place as discussed in Chapter 2, remembering that:

- Place brands require multilateral alliances throughout the network of a community and beyond.
The nature of those participating in a place brand alliance varies from fully profit-orientated, to partly commercial to non-commercial stakeholders - including local businesses, industry groups, governments, charities, schools, as well as local residents.

Being different from the more 'traditional' strategic alliance there may be no choice within the partner selection process. The potential strategic partners exist within the place in which they have in common. There is not the opportunity to look elsewhere for possible partners.

Collaboration may not involve equity participation and may occur without any written contract or no clear boundaries to the scope of the alliance.

Having a geographic focus, not only is there is a limited choice of strategic partners, but the possibility that some of the desired strategic partners deciding not to participate - or worse still embark on a brand strategy of their own.

When compared to corporations, places are less able to exclude groups of users or stakeholders.

Given the challenge of getting the populace to live the brand and the additional stakeholder complexities of place branding, it is perhaps not surprising that the two stages in the developed framework of place brand implementation which encountered the most difficulty were expanding and re-energising. One reason for this was getting buy-in on the part of the local residents. Surely it is not possible for people to ‘live the brand’, if they won’t even accept it. Kerr & Noble et. al. (2007) found that even community leaders – the ‘senior management’ of the community – disagreed on the merits and worth of their place brand. It is argued that acceptance of a place brand requires ‘buy-in’ on the part of stakeholders, particularly influential stakeholders – during the expansion stage remembering as one participant stated:

"It is not just a council initiative, it is a city initiative."
In the organisational literature, King and Grace (2005) state that as major stakeholders, employees are viewed as playing a crucial role in brand management as they facilitate the interface between the organization and the market. Arguably residents and other internal stakeholders have a similar role in place branding. A theory that was found to have relevance to the stages of place brand implementation is Identification Theory (Scott, Corman et al., 1998) which is shown diagrammatically in Figure 11.3. In Chapter 2 it was pointed out, referring to the work of Knox and Bickerton (2003), that the current literature on corporate branding has resulted from contributions from marketing literature (having a customer focus) and other multidisciplinary perspectives (having an organisational focus). Identification theory is one of the latter; having an organisational focus being a:

“middle-range theoretical and heuristic framework [is offered] for better understanding how organisationally related identities and identifications serve to structure one’s experience, how they become meaningful in action, how they are evoked situationally, and how they relate to one another and to some sense of overall identity,” Scott, Corman et. al. (1998 p. 300).

Their objective is to provide a theoretical model which helps explain organisational attachment. They talk of the process of organisational attachment. As identified in the stage of expansion in this thesis, to be successful it seems that there needs to be attachment to the brand on the part of the community. Their theory of identification draws on Gidden’s theory of structuration (Giddens, 1979) which refers to individual behaviour on the basis of social relationships and simultaneous processes within an organisation. Vallaster and de Chernatony (2006) were guided by structuration theory in their study of the relationship between organisational structures and brand building behaviour. As this study has some similarity as it examines brand building behaviour, albeit within a city, it is
considered appropriate that identification theory, which draws from structuration theory, is useful in assessing the framework developed in this study. In fact Giddens (1984 p. 326-327) suggested that the concepts in his theory “should for research purposes be regarded as sensitizing devices … useful for thinking about research problems and the interpretation of research results”. Identification theory, and the theory from which it has been developed, structuration theory, will be used precisely for the purpose of the interpretation of research results.

In their framework, the authors distinguish between identification as “the interaction or other behaviours illustrating one’s attachment” and identity as “a set of rules or resources that function as an anchor for who we are” and the identification process or attachment process is “the relationship between identity and identification during attachment” (Scott, Corman et al., 1998 p. 327). A consequence of the expansion stage of place brand implementation was the ‘level of acceptance’ which not only varied between cases but within cases i.e. there
were varying levels of attachment or identification to the brand. Scott and Corman et al. (1998 p. 306) prescribe that:

“identification represents the dynamic social process by which identities are constructed, through which they guide us, and by which they order our world. This dynamic process involves manifest behaviours in explicitly or implicitly social settings that illustrate one’s linkage to some “target” (usually a social collective”).

There are indeed similarities between the definition of identification and what is seen as the role of corporate brand management i.e. aligning vision, culture and image (Hatch and Schultz, 2003). The value of their model to place branding is to question and hopefully better understand what is ‘going on’ in the process of place brand implementation. This is particularly important in the expansion stage but also with those charged with concepting will be better placed if they understand the complexities of expanding and reenergising. Upon considering identification theory, those involved in place branding should not think that community buy-in is achieved by having the right people on the committee and communicating the brand message (although both the data obtained in this study and arena theory suggests that this contributes) but that there may be forces at work which help or hinder the attachment process.

Some terms used by Scott and Corman et al. (1998) and borrowed from structuration theory (Giddens, 1979) are duality of structure, regionalisation of structures and situated activity. Structures are described by Giddens (1979) as generative rules and resources available to actors that are capable of bringing about certain states of affairs. He suggests that human action both produces and is mediated by structure – hence the duality. Regionalisation – by coincidence a geographic metaphor in their work – refers to the temporal, spatial or time-space
differentiation of regions either within or between locales. Examples of regions (equal size should not be assumed) are shown in the bottom left of Figure 11.3.

Situated activity is treated as a system and is seen as including the system in which organisational actors are engaged. Essentially identification or what is identified by an individual is done in the context of structures, activities and often competing multiple identities. Of the cases studied, the guiding principles offered by identification theory were best applied by those involved in concepting the Armidale place brand. Their brand consultant stated:

“I mean the whole objective was to give them something that could be as small as they wanted it, or as big as they wanted it. And something that was so logical that it was an absolute truth; an undeniable truth so that it is not some slogan that you might pick up and then people say no we don’t want to do that any more. It’s forever. It's simple. It's focused.”

The Armidale brand strategy did conform with identification theory in that there was an attempt to identify a point of commonality which could link the ‘regions of identity’. *Thrive in Armidale* was a statement of aspiration (even a reminder) to the people of Armidale and their place markets. As the consultant stated:

“One thing about thrive; we came to the conclusion, once we got the overall feeling about Armidale was that it was positive and that it can apply to anything. You can go and set up a milk bar, open up a pub, build a University.... Whatever is there, grows, because it is such in lush area; they have seasons; it just has that nice positive -- it's about growth; and that's what the town is about.”

The Wollongong and Lithgow cases struggled with attachment to the brand on the part of the citizens. From those interviewed in Lithgow there was limited buy-in or attachment with comments including:

“To be honest, given that I covered the announcement in the local news ... at the time I didn't fully understand what it was the time... I don't think we have made a great song and dance about it; I don't know anybody fully knows the meaning of what the learning city is. It just hasn't been sold. At the time it was hailed as a wonderful achievement; a great opportunity for
us to be the first learning city; everybody said’ wonderful’, what does it mean?”

In the Wollongong case where the consultants stated that, “… the theme ‘innovation’ be adopted as an inclusive approach that can be presented as aspirational for all residents and organisations” (Valerio, Baker et al., 1999 p.76).

One of those who were given responsibility to expand the brand stated:

To be fair... the city of innovation, I didn't push that too hard, it was there but I mean every time I didn't say "city of innovation"... in certain areas I found that .. you know, you had to pick the audience”

The above comments both in Lithgow and Wollongong are provided only as evidence of problems encountered in achieving expansion but also to raise a more fundamental question. In the literature reviewed earlier on, Petromilli, Morrison et al. (2002 p. 23) argue that logos, taglines, jingles, and spokespeople are merely representations of the brand, claiming that the actual brand is how customers think and feel about the business or the product or indeed, a place. The place strategy and the brand strategy was in essence to change the image and attract innovative industries to Wollongong and promote education training, and lifelong learning in Lithgow – hence the use of the taglines City of Innovation and Learning City. In contrast, Armidale had a place strategy of growth and diversification yet their tagline was deliberately more generic – Thrive in Armidale. From the data obtained and the writings on brand management, care needs to be taken with the development and use of logos and taglines particularly if their purpose is to achieve attachment during the stage of expansion.

A further consideration which can be drawn from Identification Theory is that of activity and activity foci. Put simply one could say action speaks louder than
Scott and Corman et al. (1998) state that “activity is a central characteristic of contexts that situate expressions of identity”. In their model they distinguish between structural activity foci and manifest systemic activities and they are guided by Corman and Scott’s (1994) reticulation theory of communication as well as structuration theory. They suggest that one set of activities may lead to links between others and give the example of strategic planning meetings possibly leading to interaction between division heads within the organisation. In their model, as shown in Figure 11.3 they show activity foci as structure and activity as system and they form a duality “in that activity foci both produce and are produced by the activities they organise activities influence the identities that are appropriated and reproduced in identification” (Scott and Corman et al. 1998 p.323).

Lithgow despite shortcomings in other stages was strong in this regard compared to the activities in the other cases.

“I think one of the good things, we achieved and made us different from the other learning cities was that we actually had practical programs.”

Activities were discussed in the stage of expansion as part of the place brand implementation process. Identification theory indicates that activities are not just ‘evidence’ of brand implementation but they have the higher level role of identification and are important part in the process of attachment. Even at the concepting stage, activities should be strategically selected not only to produce tangible outcomes but as a means of creating attachment to the brand. Remembering that identification recognises that for each individual there are competing ‘regions’ for attachment. The data provided evidence that the
consultant involved in the Armidale case best conformed to the dimensions of identification theory. First he sought to identify what he referred to as “an absolute truth” which could be applied to many of the city’s regions of identity e.g. education, lifestyle, culture, families. Secondly the prescribed activities reinforced the brand identity, given the comments:

“(I advised them) exactly what to do. I am a realist.”

The role of activity and identification links closely with one of Hankinson and Cowking’s (2003) roles of brands mentioned in the general brand literature as that of building relationships. Identification theory is relevant to place brand implementation in that the objective is for a diverse group of stakeholders to identify with a common brand strategy which has mutual benefits.
11.7 Conclusion

The tasks of undertaking a ‘member check’ and comparisons with existing theory have aided the argument supporting the theoretical validity and usefulness of the framework developed. It is suggested that the framework will not only contribute to place branding theory and practice, it may be of assistance to researchers in other domains, for example, policy formulation and implementation.
CHAPTER 12. PRACTITIONER CONTRIBUTION

12.1 Introduction
In keeping with the expectations of a professional doctorate, a contribution to professional practice is anticipated as it will assist those responsible for the economic and social development of places. A better understanding of the process of place branding will make a contribution to society with this including:

- To help place leaders better understand and apply marketing principles to drive a growth strategy,
- To help places ‘in decline’ use brand principles to lead a ‘turnaround strategy’ for the betterment of that society,
- To contribute to the success of a place brand strategy.

In the course of conducting interviews associated with this research, one respondent who had been involved in a place branding process commented:

“If I were doing it again, I would like to look carefully at places where branding had made a verifiably positive difference and ventures that had failed. It could help to identify what to look for, what outcomes to expect and how to measure progress.”

12.2 Place Branding Practice
Section 5 of Chapter 2 referred to Baker’s (2007) destination branding process. This work has not only validated some of Baker’s arguments, which were founded on his experience, but adds to ‘the how’ of implementing a destination or place brand. While Baker (2007) recognises the importance of stakeholder buy-in, this work provides greater insight as to how to do this. The framework developed in this research recognises the stage of energising as being important to the overall
success of place brand implementation. The actions of enthrusing, endorsing, resourcing and structuring are identified as being important and likely to yield passion, legitimacy and the resources to proceed. The first four steps of Baker’s (2007) process, as shown in Figure 2.11, are assessment and audit, analysis and advantage, alignment, and articulate. In the framework developed by this researcher these steps are dealt with in the stage of concepiting. This research suggests that prior to concepiting, the stage of energising needs to occur. For example in the Lithgow case, there was enthusiastic activating, but a lower level of energising compared to the other cases. Interestingly, Baker (2007) has a step of ‘activation’ which refers to “how the brand will come to life”. The step is more aligned to expanding in the framework developed in this research. Activation in this thesis encompasses the initial leadership role of recognising the potential and importance of place branding and ‘getting it on the agenda.’

This work has made a contribution to the calls for empirical research into the “under-theorised” domain of place branding (Dinnie and Melewar, 2008). In answering Anholt’s (2002) call, this research does investigate and reflect on cases studies and the framework developed is of use to policy makers.

By way of case studies of places which have implemented place brand strategies, this research has examined the successes and failures of the various stages of place brand implementation with the anticipated outcome being a guide for those seeking to implement a place brand strategy. The framework provides a ‘how to’ guide to those seeking to contribute to successful place management and marketing by way of place branding.
This work both reinforces and adds to the recent texts on place branding. It is hoped that this work will not only assist those involved in implementing place brands but also influence the attitude of governments towards place branding. As has been identified in the literature (Ecorys Research and Consulting, 2008) and from the cases, place branding at present is largely motivated by a sense of urgency and a reaction to problems. It is hoped that this work will influence governments in realising that as with the corporate brand, the management of the place brand should be an ongoing and adequately resourced function of government, particularly as the competition between places, economic pressures and mobility of place markets intensify.

12.3 Conclusion
This work adds to the operational plans provided by Lindsay (2004), Baker (2007) Moilanen and Rainisto (2008) in that not only does it provide empirical evidence from Australian cities but provides deeper insight into the social and political processes that seem necessary for successful place brand implementation. An additional and important outcome of this research is that it confirms the claim of Rainisto (2003 p. 22) that “places have a chronic lack of marketing knowledge and expertise”. In this research it was noted that there was a very small number of key personnel in the place branding process that had training in and knowledge of marketing. This adds to an argument in favour the employment of specialist marketing officers by governments as the move to the competitive state (Dickinson, 2007) gains momentum.
CHAPTER 13. CONCLUSION

13.1 Introduction

As a relatively new field, there is still much to be done in the research of place branding. Chapters 11 and 12 have identified how this research has made a theoretical and practitioner contribution to place branding. In particular, not only has the ‘aspirational nature’ of place brands been established but a process has been developed by which a place brand may be implemented. Notwithstanding the contributions made, the limitations of this research need to be identified and discussed.

13.2 Limitations of this Research

Despite a number of interviewees from the cases endorsing the framework, and thus contributing to its validity and practitioner usefulness, the limitations of this research are acknowledged by this researcher. The study has been limited both to three in-depth studies cities and to a specific geographic area i.e. New South Wales, Australia. It is conceded that to attempt to generalise from the findings of three case studies is not a defendable position.

In need of special mention as an area that needs more attention in the framework developed is the stage of re-energising. Within the cases it was found that this was not done well by those implementing the place brand. This was acknowledged by some of the respondents as a weakness of their own place brand implementation process. As the data in this research was collected post place brand
implementation, in each of the cases the data supporting the stages of *activating*, *energising*, *concepting* and *expanding* revealed what *was* done, albeit well or not so well. In the stage of re-energising, for the most part, the data was suggesting what *should* have been done. Although there is enough data to support the existence and importance of the stage of *re-energising* it is conceded that more specific research on this stage is warranted.

13.3 **Agenda for Further Research**

Section 5 of Chapter 2 identified the calls by leading authors on place branding for more research. This researcher has three primary objectives in undertaking further research. The first is to undertake more cases studies in New South Wales to both further validate and most likely enhance the framework developed. The second is to not only maintain familiarisation with current research on place branding but also to search for literature in other disciplines which can provide insight and understanding into this political act of place branding. Third, it is intended to take the opportunity to work with the increasing number of academics at other universities who are undertaking research and publishing in place branding and in doing so research other geographical entities ranging from precincts to nations.

13.4 **Final Comments**

The benefits of undertaking this thesis have included the opportunity to investigate a topic which I hold a passion for and believe that the knowledge gained will be the basis of important academic research. During the timeframe in which this study was undertaken, there has been an outstanding growth in interest in place
branding and place marketing. This is evidenced by the launch of two specialist journals, special issues on place branding by more established academic journals, new specialised texts on the topic (as identified earlier in this work), the establishment of specialist research centres in place branding, and a growing number of academic and practitioner conferences which have a focus on place branding.

In addition to planned academic contributions, the completion of this work presents me with a wonderful opportunity to share the knowledge gained with practitioners with the aim of making a substantial contribution by way of place branding practice to the sustainability of places.
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APPENDIX A: BACKGROUND TO THE CITY OF LITHGOW

The City of Lithgow is situated 144 km north-west of Sydney. Some historical information regarding Lithgow is provided as it provides the reader with an introduction to the city as well as a better understanding of some of the antecedent conditions that will be discussed during the course of data collection and analysis.

The settlement was named in 1827 by Hamilton Hume in honour of William Lithgow, the Auditor-general of the colony. By 1869 the western railway line was constructed from Sydney to Lithgow. This infrastructure, combined with the area’s vast coal reserves ensured prosperity for the town. When it was completed in 1869, the Zig-Zag Railway was acclaimed worldwide as a major engineering feat – this provided a means for coal to be transported out of the steep valley in which Lithgow is situated. In 1875 a blast furnace was constructed in Lithgow and by 1900 Lithgow produced the first steel manufactured in Australia. Lithgow grew quickly to become a major manufacturing centre including copper smelting, breweries, brickworks, pipe and pottery works. A meat refrigeration plant was constructed by Thomas Mort in 1875 and chilled-meat from Lithgow was exported to England in 1880. (Lithgow Tourism, 2006).

After several failures by other owners, brothers G. & C. Hoskins were successful at iron and steel production in Lithgow and employed 632 people. Poor industrial relations culminated in a nine-month strike in 1911 which ended in a riot when ‘scabs’ (non-union labour) were brought in (Communities online, 2006). This and other on-going industrial disputes are still referred to in Lithgow and are depicted today in a mural in the city centre. In order to compete in steel production, the Hoskins brothers joined Australian Iron and Steel and relocated to Port Kembla in 1928 and the blast furnaces were removed from Lithgow in 1932.
Lithgow made a major contribution to the Australian economy particularly during the two World Wars from its small arms factory. The size and diversity of this business needs to be appreciated.

In 1908 the Commonwealth Government announced plans to build a small arms factory at Lithgow. Lithgow not only had available resources but had the defence benefit of being out of range from the guns of warships and protected by the Blue Mountains. Over the period of the two world wars a total of 640,000 .303 rifles were made at the Small Arms Factory to assist the war effort.

After World War I the factory began to diversify its production to include streamlined wires and metal aircraft engine parts. By 1931 more than half of the factory's production was linked to sound projection, sheep shearing machinery, golf clubs, handcuffs and sewing machines (Lithgow Tourism, 2005). The factory was thought to house the largest forge and die sinking shop in the southern hemisphere. Today the Small Arms Museum has an extensive array of the locally manufactured commercial products, a major firearm collection and historical memorabilia and photographs.

During World War II the workforce of the Small Arms Factory rose to 12,000. This included 6,000 in Lithgow as well as an additional 6,000 in feeder factories established at nearby (in today’s terms) centres of Orange, Bathurst, Young, Forbes, Wellington, Cowra, Dubbo, Parkes, Portland and Mudgee to assist the Lithgow operations (Lithgow Tourism, 2005).

Lithgow was declared a city in 1945. Although heavy industry was in decline, light industry continued to prosper and the population peaked in the years just after World War II (Lithgow Tourism, 2005).
In the late 1950s, a power generating plant was built at nearby Wallerawang and, more recently, Mt. Piper Power Station was opened near Portland. The stations created a ready market for local coal. Since the mid 1980’s, reduced demand, automation and rationalisation have caused the loss of nearly 2000 jobs in the mining, power and manufacturing industries which had been the city’s lifeblood. The small arms factory is now owned by Australian Defence Industries and employs about 100 people. Today Lithgow is not the manufacturing centre that it once was.

Perhaps understandably, Lithgow has a strong working class culture. The Lithgow Workman’s Club was established in 1887 and has membership of 11,500 contrasting with a population of just over 21,000 for the entire Lithgow local government area. There is also a strong interest in sport with an abundance of sporting facilities available. A statue of Olympic sprinter Marjorie Jackson (known as the ‘Lithgow Flash’) is located in the city centre.

For most of the 20th century Lithgow has had a problem with pollution. Many photographs taken throughout this time (some on display at the Small Arms Museum) revealed that much of the surrounding vegetation had died back, as a result of pollution. In addition to the emissions from industry, the coal miners were given free coking coal each year for household heating. This had the result of a yellow-brown haze lofting over Lithgow for most of the year. In recent years, residents and business owners have been given subsidies via the ‘Alternate Fuel Rebate Program’ to remove coal and wood heaters, (Lithgow City Council, 2006). Today much of the town’s federation housing is heritage listed.

After nearly 10 years of hard work by its ‘Tidy Towns Committee’ which was made up of influential residents, Lithgow was named the Overall NSW Tidy
Towns Winner in 1997 and “fulfilled a major objective of changing perceptions of Lithgow as a sooty coal mining town,” (Lithgow Tidy Towns, 1997). Despite this claim, according to persons recently interviewed Lithgow still has an image problem.
APPENDIX B: BACKGROUND TO THE CITY OF ARMIDALE

The City of Armidale is located on the New England Highway half-way between Brisbane and Sydney. The table below provides some background information.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Detail</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Area</td>
<td>Armidale Dumaresq Council covers 4,235 square kilometers, Passive recreation area in the city covers 35 hectares</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population</td>
<td>25,000 people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Climate</td>
<td>At 980 meters above sea level, the air is very clear and clean. Temperatures range from 0–10 in winter, 10-30 in the summer months.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“These conditions make it a wonderful climate for the most beautiful spring gardens, and spectacular autumn colours line the city’s streets around March and April.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lifestyle</td>
<td>“Armidale is a diverse community, with a cosmopolitan atmosphere. Within the city centre there are two pedestrian malls surrounded by these malls are many fine café’s and wonderful shopping arcades, from large department store’s to small gift shops and more. Markets are held once a month with art, craft, outdoor products, and fresh local produce.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Parks</td>
<td>Oxley Wild Rivers, New England and Cathedral Rock National Parks are located within 1 hour’s drive of the city.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>New England University, three private schools, two catholic schools, two public high schools, six state primary schools, Steiner school and several pre-schools and day care centres. Armidale has some of the best sporting facilities in the New England with the University of New England sporting complex opened to the public, and many playing fields from netball, soccer, cricket, rugby league and rugby union.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table B.1 Details of Armidale
Source: Armidale Dumaresq City Council, (2007)
Explorer John Oxley was the first European to cross the area in 1818. “He named the town [sic – he would have named the area as a town would not have existed at this time!] Armidale after the MacDonald’s Castle on the Isle of Skye in Scotland (Armidale Visitor Information Centre, 2007).

Smailes and Molyneux (1965) provide details as to the settlement of the area, reporting that Armidale had a population of 910 people by 1861. The discovery of alluvial gold at nearby Rocky River, as well as a number of other mineral discoveries nearby resulted in the arrival of “several thousand potential new settlers.” Despite this, Smailes and Molyneux write that “the cultural landscape was overwhelmingly pastoral in character” (p.37).

The authors explain the development of large land holdings in the area and the importance of water and timber as a number of settlements grew. A number of villages existed in the area and they have been classified by the above authors as belonging to one of two classes – either mining centres or service centres the later grown up on the main lines of communication. Armidale which was serviced by rail in 1883 had over 4,000 people by 1900. Throughout the 1900’s Armidale became the regional capital and by 1961 its population had trebled. Since this time its rural service function has became less important as it developed into a major educational centre serving northern New South Wales and Southern Queensland.

The University of New England was originally formed in 1938 as the New England University College, a College of the University of Sydney. It became fully independent in 1954 (University of New England, 2007). In 2005 the University of New England had 18,561 students although 3,676 studying on campus – the remainder external, 500 academic staff, 832 support staff and consolidated revenue in excess of $180m (Armidale Dumaresq City Council,
Mather (2008) suggests that the annual contribution by the University of New England to the local economy is $280 million. Overall the education sector is the largest employer in the Armidale Dumaresq local government area. In addition to the University and the TAFE, Armidale is home to three well-known boarding schools – PLC Armidale, The Armidale School and New England Girls’ School. The local council provides information that these schools employ 300 staff and host over 450 student boarders and generates in excess of $11.25m for the Armidale economy.

Tourism has long been recognised as being important to Armidale with council records as early as 1893 indicating a desire to attract visitors. A history of the council’s involvement in tourism is provided on line by the council (Armidale Dumaresq City Council, 2007). Council minutes of 4th October 1904 record a mayoral minute, “That steps be undertaken to properly place before the residents of Queensland and others living in warm climates contiguous to New England the advantages possessed by Armidale as a sanitorium.[sic]”

It is worth noting that in September 1999 there was a proposal for voluntary amalgamation put forward by Armidale Council and the surrounding Dumaresq Council. This took effect from 21st Feb 2000. Hence, since this time the local government authority and its area, has been referred to Armidale Dumaresq Council.

Today Armidale reflects at the very least past wealth with fine schools, churches, cathedrals and stately private homes. By way of a generous benefactor the art gallery at Armidale houses one of the finest collections in the country including works from Howard Hinton, Chandler Coventry, and Arthur Streeton.
The logo for the local council as shown below is interesting. It contains the name of the council, a slogan ‘building the future’ while the picture shows what could be interpreted as sky, mountains, hills and perhaps plains. What is interesting, is the two structures shown in the logo.

Figure B.1 Armidale Dumaresq Council Logo

One respondent stated

“They had for a long time, maybe a century been a city -- and a city was defined (I don't know if it's still is) a place that has a cathedral. You know from the days of proper government and the church. And of course Armidale had two cathedrals -- 1 Catholic, 1 Anglican.”

Although outside of the scope of this research it would be interesting to review the politics of developing the council logo. I can only assume that both churches carried influence at town hall.

It was revealed during the course of interviews with respondents from Armidale that the city was not growing – there had been no population growth, while a city to the south, Tamworth had become a regional centre with a population approaching 60,000.
APPENDIX C: BACKGROUND TO THE CITY OF WOLLONGONG

The City of Wollongong located on the east coast of Australia in the State of NSW approximately 100 kilometres south of the state’s capital, Sydney. Located in the Illawarra Region, Wollongong is recognised as the third largest city in NSW (population: 192,402 in 2005) (Australian Bureau of Statistics). Throughout the 1900’s, the city had a dominant industrial base with a large steel works located south of the city centre at Port Kembla. By the 1980’s despite maintaining its image as an industrial city, the local steelworks was being rationalised having been subjected to downturns in demand and global competition; particularly as a result of free trade policies on the part of governments and improved technology allowing for a more streamlined workforce. The steel works shed labour from a workforce of 22,000 to less than 7,000 (Watson, 1991). For similar reasons, the local coal mines also were succumbing to economic pressures and at the same time were introducing technological advances which required less labour. Although in the current decade both the steel works and the coal mines are benefiting from the introduced production efficiencies and the unprecedented demand from China and India, the experience of the late 1900’s had provided an incentive for the city’s leaders to look to seek ways to diversify the city’s industrial base and the near total dependence of steel and coal – the local saying being, “when the steel works sneezes, Wollongong catches cold”. The experience of Wollongong was similar to that of many industrial cities throughout the world. The industrial cities of the United Kingdom had also experienced significant
downturns during this time and were also faced with similar challenges even on a larger scale.

In addition to the economic downturn of the time, the City of Wollongong was often at the end of negative media stories. The Wollongong Image Strategy (Valerio, Baker et al., 1999) reported that there had been a wide range of negative articles relating to crime (including paedophilia), heavy industry, pollution and floods. Industrial unrest was also identified as a deterrent for potential investors. It was common for a number of well known Australian comedians (Aunty Jack and Norman Gunston) to ridicule Wollongong in their nationally televised performances.

The seriousness of the industrial decline and the negative image of the city prompted the Wollongong City Council to fund a ‘city image campaign’ and allocated $2.5 million over a 5 year period for this purpose. As a result of extensive research by consultants and with the consent of the council, the city declared itself a ‘city of innovation’ in June 1999.

The report referred to above listed a number of achievements of the citizens and organisations within the City of Wollongong, commencing with aviation pioneer Lawrence Hargrave and extending to include advancements in manufacturing, communications, product design, engineering, medicine, electronics, synthetics, and environmental management. The assets of the city which could be included in the ‘innovation set’ include:

- A university and technical college providing a culture of learning and a well educated workforce,
- A diverse industrial base ranging from mining, steel manufacture, education, engineering, retail and services.

The image of the city was identified as a major problem in the 1990’s and despite the argued successes of the *city of innovation* strategy, a major scandal in 2008 involving Wollongong City Council councillors and officers, state politicians and property developers, resulted in the council being sacked by the NSW Government and criminal charges being recommended by the Independent Commission Against Corruption (ICAC), received national and international coverage. There are now calls from some civic leaders for a renewed image campaign in wake of the happenings and negative publicity.
The purpose of this appendix is to demonstrate the process of data analysis and how categories emerged from the data.

Combined with notes made during each interview, the transcripts were read through several times on each occasion making notes. Headings were written down to describe aspects of the content (excluding dross). Codes were freely generated and assigned to blocks of text. At the end of each transcript the codes, line numbers and relevant text were tabulated.

An example from one interview transcript is provided in Table D.1. Although the transcripts were regularly referred to the tables assisted with comparison within and between cases.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Line No</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Wording</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Momentum</td>
<td>although I think it's not as active as it was say two years ago</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Alliances</td>
<td>I became one of the lead players in the learning city providing a link between the learning city process and business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Change</td>
<td>Also because of my background in ... industry, with regard to organisational change ... I had a lot of experience of applying learning organisation concepts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>to assist the learning city to actually articulate a strategy which went beyond education ... I've seen in many instances where the learning city has been held captive to concepts of education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>Alliances</td>
<td>Also [company name], through their general manager, became keenly interested in the process as did [company name] in Lithgow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58</td>
<td>Alliances</td>
<td>Also [company name], through their general manager, became keenly interested in the process as did [company name] in Lithgow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66</td>
<td>Cultural</td>
<td>Community is a real strength. There is ... I think it's a mining town thing, where there is a very strong self-help ethic. If things need to be done to community will do them and can do them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strengths</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>82</td>
<td>Cultural</td>
<td>Lithgow has been the beneficiary of coalmining booms, of government spending, capital works. I think it's created a sort of dependency. I used to describe it as a sort of cargo cult mentality; that somebody is going to come and provide us with jobs -- a big corporate or government body. That somebody else will come along</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Weaknesses</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>76</td>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>I think there is a need for good strong, brave leadership from its council. It needs vision. It needs community leaders who can look beyond the now and dream of something different to what we have.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strategy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90</td>
<td>Vision</td>
<td>The main vision, ...was to develop a sense of lifelong learning. Underneath that was a desire to create meaningful partnerships across the community for the benefit of the community.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strategy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Alliances</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The lists of categories developed from each of the interview transcripts were surveyed by the researcher and ‘higher-order’ headings were developed. By using concept cards, these headings were compared between transcripts and across cases. Memos and diagrams aided the researcher in developing these headings. For instance it was recorded by the researcher that, “In each case, there were common conditions which existed at the outset – there were problems.” The conditions which existed in each of the cases at the outset of the place branding process were
identified as a higher order category. An analysis of the transcripts and other documents helped identify the conditions.

The transcripts were again reviewed and the common conditions (problems) were confirmed. An example is provided in Table D.2 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Theme: Conditions pre-place branding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lithgow</td>
<td>“There was a general crisis; the industries that were supporting Lithgow were closing down…”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithgow</td>
<td>“There were many empty shops in the main street... The town was at a very low ebb.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Armidale</td>
<td>“… a stagnant economy”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“… it has a lot to do with the fact that we were not growing.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Armidale</td>
<td>“Too dependent on one sector.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wollongong</td>
<td>“Those people that we needed to bring as investors into the new economy still had the perception that you wouldn’t go there because it’s a steel town.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wollongong</td>
<td>I think there was just a general view that there was nothing good in Wollongong at all.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table D.2 The category of a ‘condition’

In each case it was noted that there was a need to ‘do something’. A person(s) in each case came to the forefront and became a champion of the need for place marketing and branding. In each case these people ‘took action’ and were able to achieve the consequence of having place branding on the local agenda.

The data was able to be sorted into categories of conditions, actions and consequences. It was found that these conditions, actions and consequences could also categorised into stages over the timeframe of the place branding process. The first stage, labelled activation, is shown in Figure D.1.
In addition to the data from interviews, data from documents was used to confirm the claims made in the interviews. As stated in Chapter 10, observation yielded limited relevant data but did confirm the state of the brand strategy at the time of the research. Extracts from documents have been referred to within the Chapters which discuss the findings and present the framework. The non-linear and non-sequential process of analysis was undertaken with the eventual outcome being the framework developed in this work. It must be mentioned that this process took many months of review, involving continuous review of data, reading of articles dealing with qualitative analysis, clarification with respondents and discussion with supervisors and other senior academics.