

## Branding the Capital City through Multi-Perspective Approach: The Case of 'Enjoy Jakarta' Campaign

Forina Lestari<sup>1</sup>, Melasutra Md Dali<sup>2\*</sup>, Norbani Che-Ha<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Urban and Regional Planning, Institut Teknologi Indonesia, Banten, Indonesia

<sup>2</sup>Department of Urban and Regional Planning, Faculty of Built Environment, Universiti Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

<sup>3</sup>Department of Management, Faculty of Business and Economics, Universiti Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

\*Corresponding author's email: melasutr@um.edu.my

**Article history:** Received: 29 June 2022 Received in revised form: 25 August 2022  
Accepted: 16 September 2022 Published online: 29 December 2022

### Abstract

Place branding has become a powerful tool for promoting cities and regions. Unfortunately, many urban managers have been preoccupied with creating slogans and logos in implementing place branding. This has eventually limited the contribution of place branding towards tourism development, for which most place branding is targeted. This study aims to determine the factors that influence the successfulness of city branding programs in promoting tourism. This study applies qualitative methods by employing a series of in-depth interviews with relevant stakeholders comprising the government, private sector, destination management staff, tourism associations, academics, and the public. Using Enjoy Jakarta's branding campaign, this study found seven contributing factors that may impact the implementation of the campaign. Leadership, stakeholder collaboration, public management and departmental coordination are classified as tourism governance. On the other hand, attraction, accessibility and promotion are classified as tourism components. The study found that the governance factor is the most influential in the success of city branding programs. Tourism governance determines how tourism components may be implemented to achieve the goal of city branding.

**Keywords:** Governance, city branding, tourism, multi-stakeholder perspective, Jakarta

© 2022 Penerbit UTM Press. All rights reserved

### 01.0 INTRODUCTION

Given the rise of tourism as one of the important sectors in the world economy (Hall, 2014), many parties have been participating in the industry. In particular, public and private sectors are increasingly concerned with global competitiveness issues and benchmarking in improving the tourism sector's performance (Tsaur et al., 2006). This is, to some extent, reflected by the mushrooming slogans and logos created by urban managers to promote their cities under city branding campaigns (Chen et al., 2014). City branding, as one of the most popular concepts in place branding, began to attract attention in the 1990s and has increased dramatically since then, especially in promoting tourist destinations (Buhalis, 2000; Ye & Björner, 2018). However, city branding combines place marketing and urban development (Anttiroiko, 2015; Ashworth & Kavaratzis, 2010), which focuses not only on place promotion but also on the development of the place (Ye & Björner, 2018).

Nonetheless, some aspects related to implementing city branding may need to be improved. First, city branding has mainly focused on slogans and logos (Evans, 2015). This focus has not been accompanied by an excellent product, high-quality service, and tourism infrastructure in the city (Aro et al., 2018; Ashton, 2014). Thus, there is a gap between what is promised by the slogans and logos and the reality (Boisen et al., 2018). Surprisingly, research on city branding implementation is also limited (Barreda et al., 2016). Second, city branding development has lacked engagement with multiple stakeholders, such as the private sector and residents (Bichler, 2021). Thus far, research on city branding effectiveness has focused on only a few stakeholders. Meanwhile, city branding is highly influenced by the creativity produced through collaboration among different stakeholders (Adamo et al., 2019).

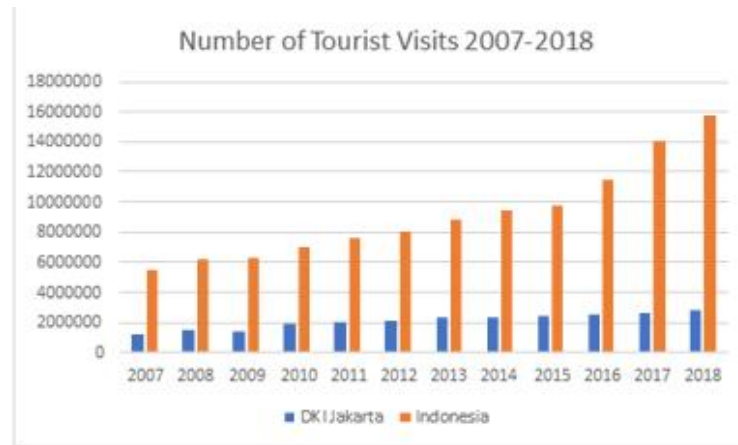
It is also important to underline that to ensure smooth collaboration between stakeholders; the government needs to harmonize different stakeholder perceptions and expectations (Kotsi et al., 2018). The local government, in particular, has a comprehensive range of power (Jamal & Camargo, 2018) and responsibilities, enabling them to initiate collaboration with multiple stakeholders (Moscardo, 2011).

Further, Ye and Björner (2018) argued that the relationship between government administrative tiers (e.g., national, regional, and local) could influence city branding practices. This is true, especially in a decentralization system, where most of the authority has been given to the local government (Lele, 2019). In some cases, however, the delegation process has not been appropriately undertaken (da Cruz

et al., 2019). Thus, the decision-making process at the local government level has to be delayed, waiting for the authority delegation process to be finished (Arman et al., 2017). There has also been a dispute about budget sharing between local and national governments in implementing the decentralization system (Lele, 2019; Rakodi, 2001). In some cases, task delegation frequently is not accompanied by sufficient budget allocation (Bertelli et al., 2020). With the adoption of decentralization, the role of local government has been increasing in dealing with local urban issues. However, this has not been accompanied by the improvement of local government capacity (Rakodi, 2001). In Southeast Asia, for example, many local governments lack the human resources and financial capabilities to undertake their new functions (Yap, 2010). Local governments often depend on tax-sharing arrangements and transfers from the national government (da Cruz et al., 2019).

The practice of city branding in developing countries has been influenced by decentralization. In particular, in Indonesia, the stipulation of Law No. 32/2004 on Local Government has provided opportunities for local governments to undertake their city branding initiatives (Damayanti & Latifah, 2015). In 2015, the Indonesia's Ministry of Tourism identified 36 city brands from 18 provinces to promote tourism across the country. Nevertheless, studies have shown that many cities only focus on the compilation of slogans and logos without considering other aspects of tourism (Adinugroho & Mutiaz, 2012; Pakarti & Usman, 2016; Risanto & Yulianti, 2016). The impact of city branding in the context of promoting tourism and encouraging city growth has been underwhelming (Fortunata, 2014; Sugiarsono, 2009).

Jakarta, the national capital, has been branding to boost tourism with the slogan 'Enjoy Jakarta' in 2005. However, data shows that the growth of the tourism sector in Jakarta has been relatively stagnant (Statistics of Indonesia, 2005-2017). For example, first, the data showed that the number of tourist visits to Jakarta from 2007 to 2018 had been relatively stagnant. Second, the number of tourist visits to Jakarta, compared to the national figure, remained around 25% from 2007-2018 (Figure 1), despite many programs developed and implemented under the 'Enjoy Jakarta' campaign for more than fifteen years. Given this highlight, it is presumed that programs developed for the city branding campaign (Enjoy Jakarta) had not been successfully improving the tourism sector's performance.



**Figure 1** Number of tourist visits from 2007 to 2018  
(Adapted from Statistics of Indonesia)

An exploration of how 'Enjoy Jakarta' has been implemented is required to clarify this further. Therefore, this study aims to evaluate programs under the 'Enjoy Jakarta' campaign and utilizes multi-stakeholder perception in assessing the program. As discussed in the literature, the perceived quality of a place depends on the city's positioning in stakeholders' minds (Ahn et al., 2016; Bai et al., 2010; De Noni et al., 2014). Stakeholder collaboration is also the key to tourism development that may enable or facilitate the emergence of transformative innovation (Budeanu et al., 2016). Interestingly, multi stakeholders' perception as an approach has received little attention in city branding literature (Bregoli, 2013; Zenker et al., 2017). Previous studies were mostly focused on individual stakeholders, such as citizens (Zenker et al., 2010; Zenker & Rütter, 2014), business owners (Merrilees et al., 2012) and visitors (Chan et al., 2015; Gómez et al., 2018). Limited studies have investigated issues on city branding programs based on multi stakeholders' perceptions (Acharya & Rahman, 2016). On the other hand, Budeanu et al. (2016) suggest that the analysis of multi-stakeholders interaction is essential in measuring how city branding could effectively increase the tourism sector. Therefore, this study considers the perceptions of multiple target groups such as the government, the private sector, destination management, tourism associations, academics, and residents. This study also explores how different stakeholders collaborate and measure their interrelated perceptions of tourism development through 'Enjoy Jakarta'.

Moreover, most research on city branding has been preoccupied with Western countries' cases (de Noronha et al., 2017; Lucarelli & Berg, 2011). Conversely, research in Southeast Asian countries, particularly Indonesia, published in international peer-reviewed journals is limited (Lucarelli & Berg, 2011; Rukayah et al., 2015). This finding is surprising because of the widespread usage of city branding in attracting tourism worldwide (Bouchon, 2014). Thus, by using Jakarta as a case study, this research attempts to widen the scope of city branding research. This research contributes to the body of literature on city branding by providing a case study in a southeast Asian country.

## **02.0 LITERATURE REVIEW**

Given the advance of tourism in the economic world, it is understood that tourism and city branding has a very close relationship (Acharya & Rahman, 2016). For example, destination branding becomes essential to tourism development in any region (Chan & Marafa, 2013). On the other hand, global tourism competition among cities has intensified in attracting tourists and investors. Therefore, tourism is often used as a basis or benchmark for branding the city through its events, destination, and culture.

The importance of city branding has increased due to globalization and decentralization in several countries. Cities have an intense competition to attract attention, influence, market, business and investment, destination, tourists, residents, talents, and events (Fok & Law, 2018). However, the widely used city branding has not been accompanied by the increasing policymakers' knowledge. City branding is a tool for policymakers to branding their city potential by using various marketing strategies, especially slogans and logos (Lu et al., 2020). Many visitors and investors found a gap between what is promised in the promotional material and the reality of the places. Other development initiatives have not supported marketing strategies (Kavaratzis, 2015; Kirillova et al., 2014). Moreover, there are more critical aspects such as physical aspects (e.g., infrastructure development), word of mouth (WOM) (Munar, 2011), and social media (Lee et al., 2016). Therefore, "place" in city branding needs to be differentiated from the concept of product in marketing, so that city branding implementation is not merely limited to slogan and logo promotion (Kavaratzis, 2012). Indeed, slogan and logo creation need to be followed up by other programs aiming to improve the city's quality (Anholt, 2007; Kladou et al., 2017).

Furthermore, in implementing city branding for tourism development, it is essential to pay attention to tourism development's critical success factors, namely; the extent of product differentiation, service quality, tourism infrastructure, tourism marketing and promotion, tourism planning and policy, strategic alliances and industrial cooperation, and economic sustainability for the industry (Beh & Tham, 2013). Other additional factors may also be mentioned: community involvement, attraction, promotion (and information), services and facilities, accessibility (Kastarlak & Barber, 2011), word of mouth (Braun et al., 2013) and electronic word of mouth (Jalilvand et al., 2012).

Besides, it is also essential to mention some challenges faced by city branding, such as the limitation of financial resources, lack of management control, a vulnerability in the face of political pressure (internally and externally), the potential for delay in the decision-making process (due to the involvement of various stakeholders and interests) (Budeanu et al., 2016). Therefore, tourist destination areas are one of the most challenging "products" to be marketed due to the significant number of stakeholders involved and managed. Having this, it is acknowledged that tourism in city branding has also depended upon tourism governance.

While governance is also pivotal in tourism (Florek et al., 2019; Pulido-Fernández & de la Cruz Pulido-Fernández, 2018), this matter has only received little attention in the tourism literature (Bichler, 2021). In particular, as a part of tourism governance, stakeholder collaboration needs to be explored (Bramwell & Lane, 2011). Tourism governance could be the key to encouraging collective action to promote sustainable tourism policy, but how it should be implemented require more in-depth exploration (Schroeder, 2015).

The increasing role of tourism governance has been due to its role in resolving the conflict between different interests and addressing the uncertainty that emerges from the various and varied internal and external agencies and organizations that impact the tourist destination's functioning. The government plays a pivotal role in developing strategies and policies because it provides a standard, agreed-upon purpose for tourism (Jamal & Camargo, 2018).

In some countries, tourism is affected by weak governance structures with little cooperation and collaboration between stakeholders (e.g., government, private and NGO; local, regional, national and international) (Islam et al., 2018). The implementation of city branding has also tended to be initiated by the government solely. It is due to either the government's lack of dissemination or resident awareness (Ooi & Pedersen, 2010). In some cases, city branding is implemented in a top-down approach. The policymaker favors this approach since it would allow cities' images to be connected to international audiences through coordinated branding undertaken by the government (Dinardi, 2017).

To dig more on the role of tourism governance in city branding, this study attempts to emphasize the importance and complexity of multi-stakeholders perspectives and interests in the tourism context. Previous literature notice that the study on collaboration in city branding has been relatively limited. In particular, exploring inter-sectoral and inter-stakeholders collaboration is deemed essential, as these activities may lead to product innovation in tourism. Therefore, it is vital to scrutinize how and in what way governance may influence city branding.

## **03.0 METHODOLOGY**

This paper evaluates the factors that influence city branding programs within the scope of Jakarta, Indonesia. The case study approach is employed to gain more insight into how tourism programs are implemented in cities. Specifically, this study attempts to identify the contributing factors of tourism programs based on tourism stakeholders' perceptions. A typical case study may involve semi-structured interviews, focus group discussions, and document analysis. This research primarily uses in-depth interviews with several tourism stakeholder groups.

The in-depth interview is semi-structured, and the order of the questions may also vary depending on the conversation flow. The main question proposed to include program implementation, stakeholder involvement and collaboration, and factors affecting the success of city branding programs. A series of total thirty-six interviews were conducted in 2018 and 2019. The interviewees were asked to identify the issues and interactions among stakeholders that influence the policy process and implementation of the 'Enjoy Jakarta' program. The interviews were carried out face-to-face for about 30 to 60 minutes.

The selection of respondents is made through purposive and snowball sampling methods. The Head of Program and Budgeting of the Jakarta Culture and Tourism Department was the one who was firstly interviewed. He subsequently identified suitable participants for this study, which included the recommendation of ASITA (Association of the Indonesian Tours & Travel Agencies) and PHRI (Indonesian Hotel and Restaurant Association) to participate in this study. Further participants were added step by step based on references made by other participants (snowballing). Overall, the interviewees represent the government (7), private sector (8), tourist destination management (7), academia (4), tourism association (4), and the public (6), which can be seen in the following Table 1.

**Table 1** List of interviewees

Stakeholder	Interviewee and Initial
Government	G1: Ministry of Culture And Tourism; G2: Jakarta Culture and Tourism Department; G3: Jakarta Planning and Development Board; G4: Ministry of Home Affairs; G5: National Planning Development Board
Tourism Associations	A1: ASITA (Association of The Indonesian Tours & Travel Agencies); A2: PATA Indonesia Chapter (Pacific Asia Travel Association); A3: GIPI (Indonesian Tourism Industry Organisation); A4: PHRI (Indonesian Hotel and Restaurant Association); A5: JTF (Jakarta Tourism Forum)
Destination Management	D1: Taman Mini Indonesia Indah (TMII); D2: PT Pembangunan Jaya Ancol, Tbk; D3: National Museum; D4: History Museum of Jakarta; D5: National Zoo (Ragunan)
Private Sector	P1: Travel Agents; P2: Airlines; P3: Shopping Malls; P4: Hotels
Experts/Academics	E1: University of Indonesia (Planner Expert); E2: Bina Nusantara University (Marketing Expert); E3: Institute Technology of Bandung (Tourism Expert); E4: Prasetya University (Tourism Expert)
The Public/Residents	R1-R7

Besides, this study also uncovers local residents or public perceptions through two focus group discussions (FGDs) held in 2019. These FGDs involved a total of seven participants in two sessions. In accordance with the literature, the ideal average number of participants of FGDs is six to twelve (Guest et al., 2017). These participants were selected using the convenience sampling method based on the ease of making an appointment without undermining necessary criteria (Moser & Korstjens, 2018). Residents are targeted as participants or members because of their involvement in 'Enjoy Jakarta' programs, such as bazaars and festivals. FGDs are used to gauge their perception of the implementation of the 'Enjoy Jakarta' program. The questions delivered during the FGD were organized into three parts. The first part explored whether the participants knew about the city branding activities undertaken by the Jakarta Local Government. It includes the awareness of the slogan 'Enjoy Jakarta' and events that are part of the branding campaign. Second, the extent of the participant's influence and participation in the city branding programs. Third, the resident's opinion about what factors may influence the successful implementation of 'Enjoy Jakarta' programs.

This study adopted a data saturation strategy with a "stopping criterion" in which no more interviews are conducted once no more new themes or ideas emerge (Schofield et al., 2018). Most respondents were selected based on their managerial experience on the local and national levels as well as tourism stakeholders from the five major groups of interviewees, as discussed earlier. Therefore, the interviewees are expected to understand the questions well and can answer accurately.

The data were analyzed through a thematic analysis approach using NVivo 12 software through coding the contributing factors. In the first stage of the analysis, the authors reviewed the transcripts by repeatedly searching for themes that were relevant to the study (Thelander & Säwe, 2015). The next step was to develop a coding scheme before entering a comparative analysis of the factors based on stakeholder perception. This is called 'data transformation', in which the information is condensed, clustered, sorted, and linked. This study employed inductive analysis, a data-driven analysis that includes coding the data without attempting to fit a preexisting coding frame or the researcher's analytic preconceptions (Fastiggi et al., 2021; Insch & Walters, 2018).

The data analysis used an open coding feature, resulting in the following factors: stakeholder collaboration; departmental coordination; leadership and knowledge of government staff; public management (including funding or budget allocation, evaluation, etc.); and tourism component (including attraction, amenities, accessibilities, promotion). After coding the theme, selective coding was undertaken, consisting of stakeholder collaboration, departmental coordination, leadership, knowledge of government staff, attraction, accessibilities, and promotion. The amenities are not taken into account for two reasons. First, no respondent discussed it. Second, as Indonesia's capital city, Jakarta is well-equipped in terms of amenities. These codings procedures also involved kappa coefficient calculation to ensure data reliability. The analysis results were processed using "project map, concept map, and relationship" features, identifying the significant

factors according to stakeholders' perceptions. The relation between these crucial factors is also observed, which aids in formulating strategies for improving the implementation of 'Enjoy Jakarta'.

Validity and reliability are essential factors in research. Qualitative research has many ways to ensure validity. First is adequacy, defined as data adequacy to represent a particular phenomenon. The data's adequacy is essential to avoid biased conclusions (Sousa, 2014). This study approached data adequacy by collecting data until information saturation (Moser & Korstjens, 2018). Data saturation was achieved by interviewing a minimum of three participants from each type of stakeholder group. The second way of ensuring validity is credibility, which may be achieved through, for example, triangulation. Triangulation may involve mixing methods of analysis or data collection. This study's triangulation was done through various data collection methods: in-depth interviews and focus group discussions (FGD). Further, interviewing different respondents from the same group served as respondent validation. The second round of interviews was undertaken to complete the interview data. This phase involved around nine relevant informants. Based on the recommendations by previous participants, these informants were either from the government or non-government sectors engaged in the implementation of 'Enjoy Jakarta'.

In the analysis process, reliability is ensured by involving another person in the data input and data coding stages. NVivo 12 allows the researcher to measure the kappa value and determine whether the data is reliable. A kappa value above 0.7 represents excellent agreement between observers and denotes good reliability (Kurande et al., 2013). The data in this study have a kappa value of 0.807289 and, thus, can be considered reliable. The reason that this study's reliability threshold has been met can be attributed to the use of methods as qualitative research commonly applies either purposive, snowball or convenience sampling (Moser & Korstjens, 2018). Additionally, this study meets the required number of interviews. Moser and Kortsjens (2018) underline that a minimum of 15-20 in-depth interviews and 2-4 FGDs should be undertaken in a typical qualitative study.

#### 04.0 RESULTS OF CONTRIBUTING FACTORS OF THE 'ENJOY JAKARTA' PROGRAM

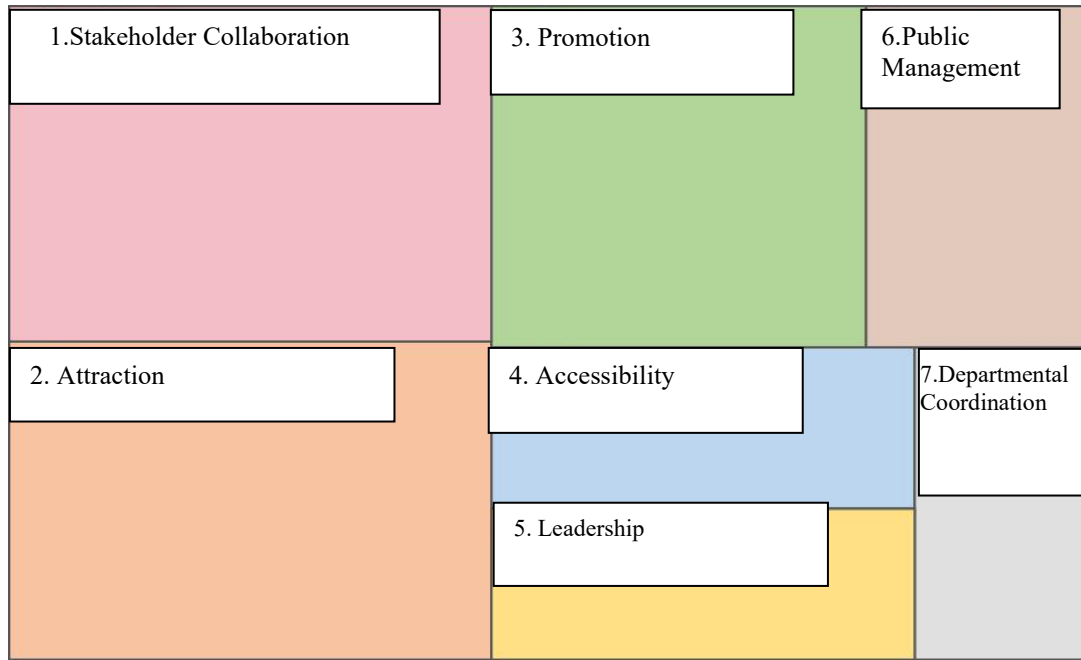
This section explains the tourism stakeholders' perception of the 'Enjoy Jakarta' tourism program. This study serves as a reflection on fifteen years of implementation of the program. It also provides novel insights into how stakeholders' perceptions shape city branding programs. As argued by Pike (2009), the success of any program may have come from the perception of its benefactors.

Based on our interviews, we have identified seven contributing factors to the implementation of 'Enjoy Jakarta'. These seven factors are departmental coordination, knowledge/leadership, stakeholder collaboration, public management, accessibility, attraction and promotion. Six different stakeholders discussed these factors: academician, association/NGO, destination manager, government, private and public.

Using NVivo 12, it is known how different stakeholders perceived each contributing factor as the most important factor (Table 2). For example, according to an academician, attraction is the most important. This is based on the frequency of the factor mentioned by the academician in the interview session. On the other hand, according to respondents from associations/NGOs, stakeholder collaboration is the most important factor. A tree map is then produced by the analysis undertaken in NVivo 12, which highlights the rank of each factor and shows that attraction and stakeholders' collaboration are the most significant contributing factors in the implementation of 'Enjoy Jakarta', according to our respondents (Figure 2).

**Table 2** Contributing factors of tourism programs based on stakeholder perception  
(Source: Authors' analysis - NVivo 12 result)

Contributing Factors	Academician	Association /NGO	Destination Management	Government	Private	Public
Departmental Coordination	1	2	1	5	0	0
Knowledge or Leadership	2	4	0	5	2	0
Stakeholder Collaboration	1	13	3	6	4	4
Public Management	3	3	0	5	0	3
Accessibility	2	3	0	1	1	5
Attraction	4	5	3	8	3	7
Promotion	2	7	2	2	4	8



**Figure 2** The rank of contributing factors  
(Source: NVivo 12 analysis)

Details of the aforementioned seven contributing factors are elaborated below.

#### a) Stakeholder Collaboration

Stakeholder collaboration refers to the coordination and cooperation among government and non-government parties, such as the private sector, association, academician, destination management, and public. Stakeholder collaboration is considered the most important, yet lacked, factor for 'Enjoy Jakarta' to succeed.

According to the tourism association, the government only invites collaboration when a specific event occurs. The government has held no regular coordination.

*"Regarding collaboration between government and associations, it is only incidental when there are activities. Presently, there are no routine activities that accommodate such collaboration. Generally, the government invited us to provide input on the program"* (A4, 2019).

The destination management staff and residents also experience a similar phenomenon. The government only invited the destination management staff once a year to compose the event's calendar. On the other hand, residents expect to be more involved in the events held by the government.

*"We were only involved during the composition of the event calendar. We were asked for input regarding the project to implement in that particular year. After that, we have never been invited again. During the program implementation, we were also not involved. We only contact the government when we need to apply for permits to organize a particular event. We think the government was busy with administrative matters"*. (D1, 2019)

*"We expect the government to hold regular bazaar. The bazaar held by the government charges an affordable stall fee; therefore, we may promote and sell our product. Unfortunately, bazaars were frequently held by the private sector, which charged a huge registration fee. We also expect a subsidy for us regarding the bazaar registration fee"*. (R3, 2019).

According to the academician, stakeholder collaboration is crucial in city branding. However, stakeholder collaboration has been limited due to the lack of government capabilities and political will.

*"In the partnership governance era, collaboration is a must. However, there has often been a lack of initiative from the government to facilitate such collaboration. It is because of the local government's lack of capabilities or political will. We think the central government needs to provide some incentive to increase the local government's awareness regarding stakeholder collaboration"*. (E3, 2018)

The lack of collaboration, according to the private sector, has been one of the main reasons for the financial problems in organizing events

*"We think that there has been a lack of collaboration between parties. Initiatives undertaken by the government were not sufficient. In other countries, some DMOs foster stakeholder collaboration. The absence of DMO in Jakarta depends on government awareness to promote regular collaboration. It is also important to underline that budget constraints could be overcome". (P4b, 2018)*

Due to the limitation of collaboration opportunities organized by the government, an informal forum was created in 2018 by the private sector and tourism association. The forum, Jakarta Tourism Forum (JTF), runs almost every month to discuss issues related to tourism. The forum's main agendas are to improve tourism components, namely Attraction, Amenities, and Accessibilities (3A), and strengthen promotion and stakeholders' awareness. Based on the interview, stakeholders from associations and private companies argue that they need a more formal institution such as DMO. It is because JTF does not have access to the decision-making process.

#### b) **Attraction**

The attraction could manifest in natural/human-made objects, old/new places, events/festivals, and temporary/permanent sites. In Jakarta, there have been several problems observed by all stakeholder groups related to the attraction. According to destination management staff, major tourist attractions in Jakarta have more competitors nowadays. For example, Ancol Dreampark (Taman Impian Jaya Ancol), the most visited tourist destination in Jakarta, has always been compared with the newly built Jatim Park in East Java. Further, direct flights to several tourist destinations outside Jakarta have reduced tourist visits to some tourist destinations in Jakarta. Additionally, management issues and public transportation issues have made some destinations, such as TMII (Taman Mini Indonesia Indah) and museums, become not attractive enough.

*"Nowadays, Jakarta has more competitors. More direct flights were opened to nearby major cities like Bandung, Jogja, and Malang. These cities also offer more tourist attraction options. Further, these cities also possess fewer traffic problems than Jakarta". (D2, 2018)*

*"We think that it would be good to hold events in the tourist destination area. For example, bazaar and exhibition can be organized in the museum to attract visitor the museums". (D3, 2018)*

The tourism association also realized that Jakarta has limited attraction centers compared to other cities in terms of attraction. However, Jakarta possesses various MICE places that potentially attract business visitors. Therefore, the government should optimize this area through 'bleisure', which means business and leisure, to enable tourists to extend their stay by considering other attractive centers.

*"Jakarta is an interesting place for business and MICE purposes, not tourism. That is why tourists do not consider Jakarta a tourism destination. Therefore, the tourism department needs to be able to take advantage of these visitors to extend their stay by providing good attractive centers and events". (A4, 2019)*

#### c) **Promotion**

Promotion is also a factor complained about by all tourism stakeholder groups. It is because city branding is dependent on promotion. However, in the case of Jakarta, promotion in the form of domestic and international events and advertorial media was not optimal.

According to the tourism association sector, the government has not prioritized promotion. In 2016, there was a cut in the promotion budget by up to 80%, leading to a significant decrease in promotion activity.

*"Budget priorities are influenced by the direction of the head of the department and the city mayor. For example, when the government was not prioritizing tourism a few years back, the budget dropped dramatically. Therefore, there was no exhibition and promotion the following year". (A1, 2018)*

The government revealed that the promotional budget was reduced because of the leader's preference for the program priority. On the other hand, the private sector considered that the limitation on budget promotion could be managed as long as the government allows the private sector to organize the promotional events.

*"The government is supposed to encourage private sectors to organize events to promote Jakarta tourism. For example, the government could provide incentives for the event permit. In this way, budget for promotion may not be the sole responsibility of the government". (P1a, 2018)*

#### d) **Accessibility**

Accessibility is also problematic in Thousand Island, one of the main tourist destinations in Jakarta. According to our informant from the tourism association group, tourist visits to Thousand Island have stagnated due to the lack of public transport.

*"It is known that Thousand Island possesses enormous tourism potential. Unfortunately, the island's development has not been supported by proper access. For example, visiting the islands through Ancol Marina Bay is quite convenient, but the price is too high for ordinary people. On the other hand, lower transportation prices could be found by accessing the island through Tanjung Pasir and Tanjung Kait Beaches. However, the service and the boats are not so good". (A3, 2018)*

Based on the interviews, improving public transportation in Jakarta is crucial. Therefore, it is imperative to integrate public transportation network and enhance the quality of roads (i.e., in the Thousand Islands). In this context, departmental coordination is vital since the accessibility is not under the authority of the Jakarta Tourism Department. The agency needs to work closely with other departments, such as Transportation Department and the Public Works Department. This case depicts a problem with departmental coordination, where most businesses were undertaken in a rather sectoral manner.

*"We understand that the accessibility to a tourist destination is important, and some may need improvement. However, this matter is beyond our jurisdiction. Its needs to be coordinated by Bappeda (Local Planning Agency)". (G2a, 2018)*

*"Accessibility is a vital component in tourism. No matter how attractive the destinations, people will be reluctant to come if the accessibility is not good. Government need to prioritize accessibility improvement". (E1, 2019)*

#### e) **Leadership/Knowledge**

The leadership or knowledge of government staff was of concern to four out of six stakeholders (academician, association, government, and private sector – see Table 1). Leadership is combined with knowledge since the government needs to understand how to plan and execute the plan based on collaboration (Ardyan & Farida, 2016; Avraham & Ketter, 2008; Cleave et al., 2016). Leadership quality is critical in managing collaboration (Budeanu et al., 2016).

Our respondents considered this factor crucial in understanding city branding in the tourism context. It commonly happens that government staff finds city branding as merely creating a slogan, logo, and event. Besides, the government staff's knowledge also influences the innovation, program's priority, budget allocation, and collaboration with other stakeholders. Some of our respondents' answers reflect this.

*"Leaders who understand the importance of collaboration would frequently hold a discussion. But this is heavily dependant upon the awareness of the leaders". (P2, 2019)*

*"...in particular, this is because no specific guidance on how to conduct proper collaboration". (G5, 2019)*

*"Asides from managerial skills, the government also needs to have entrepreneurial skills, to enable it to focus on policy and regional marketing efforts. Furthermore, a smooth collaboration between government and private sector is likely to overcome budget limitation faced by the government". (A2, 2019)*

*"In my opinion, there are three crucial things to guarantee city branding's success, namely the government's political will, commitment, and courage". (A3, 2019)*

#### f) **Public Management**

Public management is how the government runs the bureaucracy's works (Rhodes, 2008). Public management in this study refers to program priority, budget allocation, staff rotation, and evaluation. This is the factor complained about most by the government informants.

According to the association, there has been a problem with how the local tourism department handles the project administration. The tender process, for example, may get delayed up to six months. For any programs with a duration of one year, this is problematic as other activity schedules could be postponed, thus impacting the quality of the result.

*"Government programs are often inconsistent and not continuous. For example, events may take place at a different time from the schedule in the calendar of events. It is because procurement tender related to the events sometimes was delayed. Moreover, the event calendar was often too late, thus, making it difficult for people to plan their travel and for the travel agent to promote those events". (A1, 2018)*

According to the informant from the government, city branding programs were often composed without considering the evaluation of the previous program. In some cases, programs were designed solely based on the head agency's preference. Moreover, there has been relatively little evaluation of the outcome of the city branding programs. Most evaluations were undertaken only to measure the output of the programs (i.e., event implementation).

*"In program composition, it was mostly based on leader preference and staff input. We only carried out output evaluation on our programs. Therefore, at the moment, we do not know whether our programs have significant impacts or not". (G2c, 2018)*

Additionally, according to another informant from the government, frequent staff rotation also impeded the achievement of city branding programs among government institutions. Based on the interviews, most programs were short-term in nature. Ideally, city branding should not merely formulate slogans, logos, and events. City branding is a continuous process of attracting tourists and investments, which can only be measured in the long-term strategy. One or two events do not guarantee that city branding can fulfil its goal (Braun et al., 2010). Additionally, there has been no evaluation of the programs' outcomes. Consequently, most programs were discontinued. One of the reasons for implementing such a short-term program was the leader and staff rotation. Frequent rotation further resulted in changing the program in five years. Strategy formulation shall also determine program priority. The program priority decision will also determine the budget allocated, which is also influenced by the leadership factor. For example, this study found that the tourism department's decreasing budget because of the leader's change priority had implicated the decreasing program-related promotion.



### g) Departmental Coordination

This research also found departmental coordination as a dominant issue. While the government is required to ensure collaboration among stakeholders is undertaken properly (Anttiroiko, 2015; Bai et al., 2010), on the other hand, problems that arise due to a lack of internal or departmental coordination should also be overcome.

'Enjoy Jakarta' has been undertaken in a rather sectoral manner. In particular, departmental coordination's complexity is considered one of the critical drawbacks from the government officials' perspective. During the 'Enjoy Jakarta' program, it is observed that there are gaps between the local department. For example, the management of tourist destinations, such as museums and zoos, is under the DKI Jakarta Education Office.

*"Indeed, cross-departmental coordination needs to be optimized. Presently, the department only focuses on its tasks, with limited cross-sectoral programs". (G3, 2018)*

*"The Thousand Island has not been supported by proper infrastructure provision. There has been a lack of coordination between the Department of Transportation and Thousand Island National Park Agency". (G2e, 2018)*

*"The tourism department only carries out their job specifications, leading to a lack of coordination in the development planning. The department does not have the authority to manage the cross-sectoral issue. It is the role of the Local Planning Department (Bappeda)". (G2b, 2018)*

On the other hand, promoting tourist destinations is under the Jakarta Tourism and Culture Department. There has been a lack of communication between both departments, leading to the inappropriate messages created for the visitor. The Department of Education managed the asset without considering the promotional aspect, such as the quality of facilities, calendar of events, and tourism trend development (market demand, tourist profile, and behaviour). Their disciplines' different nature is exacerbated by their lack of training in tourism management and lack of market information. It caused the destinations were often not successfully promoted and developed.

In Indonesia, a sectoral rivalry has been a latent obstacle to departmental collaboration. Since decentralization, central or vertical coordination, as the coordination of state responsibilities distributed across the three government tiers: national, regional, and local, has been diminished. In contrast, horizontal coordination between government departments, either nationally or locally, needs synergies and complementarities across several policy spheres (Bakvis & Juillet, 2004). Therefore, sectoral development needs to find a way in the decentralization era, where the regional and local government's role has been more significant today.

## 05.0 DISCUSSION

Based on the interviews, we found two general classifications of respondents' perceptions: the governance factor and the tourism component factor. The governance factor includes stakeholder collaboration, departmental coordination, public management, leadership, and knowledge of government staff. The tourism component refers to factors that increase the attractiveness of tourist destinations, which refers to attractions, accessibility, and promotion (Figure 3). Some elaborations on the reasoning of this division are as follows.

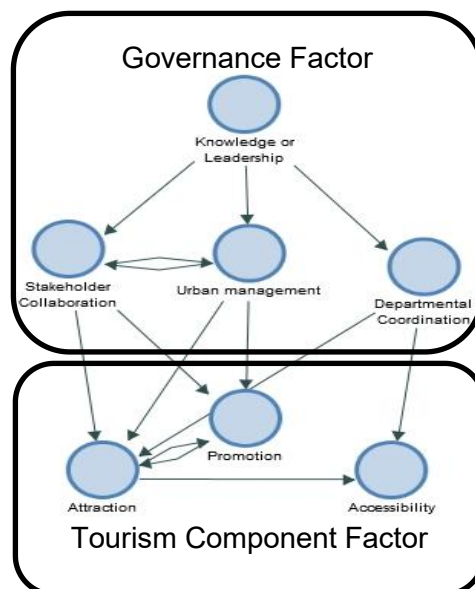


Figure 3 Relationship between factors

Church and Coles (2007) argue that governance in the tourism context is embedded with power and authority that could influence other factors. To what extent these power and authority could be translated into effective policies differed across the world (Beaumont & Dredge, 2010). For example, Pulido-Fernández and de la Cruz Pulido-Fernández (2018) argue that tourism governance as an ability to produce effective policy is the rate of stakeholder participation or community-based development. Acharya and Rahman (2016) also emphasized that the proper participation of stakeholders may influence the policy's quality since stakeholder perception is crucial as cities consist of multiple stakeholders. Moreover, Budeanu et al. (2016) add the government's decision-making process cannot be separated from various stakeholders' involvement since government officials' level of understanding determined the extent of the government's collaboration with other sectors.

This study finds that stakeholders' involvement merely provides comments and inputs in the tourism program implementation. It is also found that there were limited programs or events held together between the government and other stakeholders. As Ulus and Hatipoglu (2016) observed, one of the obstacles to effective collaboration is the lack of institutional structure. It is resulting in limited platforms and activities that can facilitate stakeholder collaboration. Further, little awareness and knowledge of stakeholders also exacerbate the lack of cooperation. Rainisto (2007) further argues that the planning group's presence may endorse a cross-sectoral agreement regarding the collaboration urgency. Therefore, creating a communication platform that can gather cross-sectoral aspirations is crucial. It is to assure that public policy formulated represents stakeholders' aspirations, ensuring the transparency of the decision-making process and avoiding any vested interests that may only benefit relevant parties.

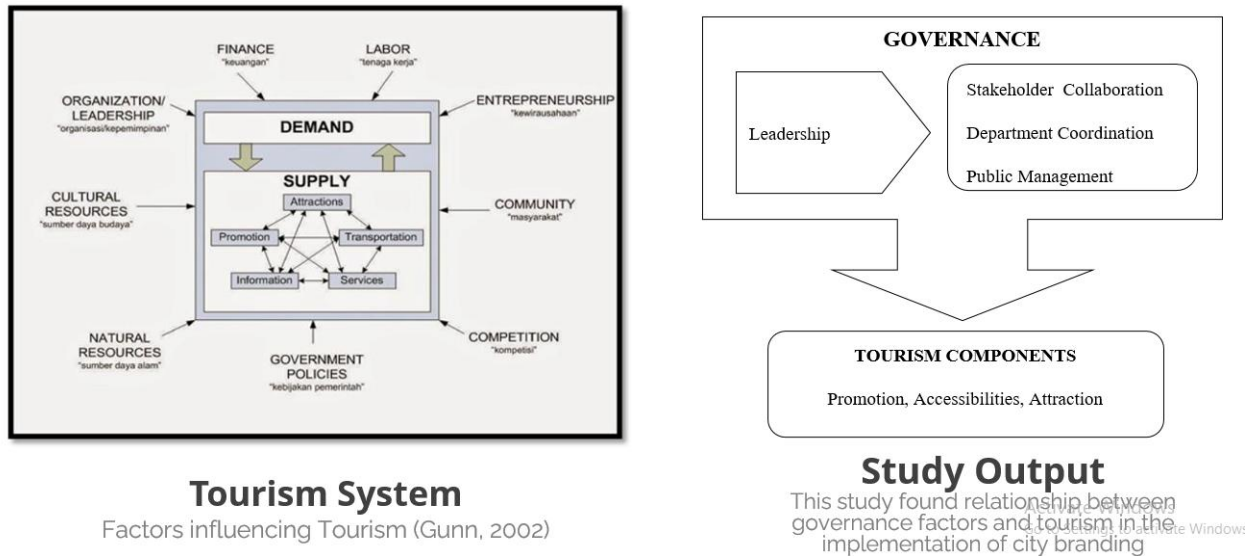
The stakeholder collaboration will be affected by authority and power (Kastarlak & Barber, 2011). Johnson and Wilson (2000) observed that leadership is identical with the power possessed by individuals in making decisions. Leadership is crucial and influences the leader's strategic vision to ensure support and cohesion, provide a platform for future growth, and create an enabling environment that would allow cooperation among tourism sectors (Pulido-Fernández & de la Cruz Pulido-Fernández, 2018). It also happens in Jakarta. Most stakeholders, such as associations and academicians, argue that leadership is considered a significant factor in tourism success since the leadership will influence the quality of the organization and stakeholder management (Figure 4). Endorsement of leadership is also essential for raising awareness and motivating entrepreneurship in government roles (Kastarlak & Barber, 2011).

The other factor in this study shows that departmental coordination highlights the need for cooperation among different departments in the same administration system. The decentralization has affected the coordination between departments in implementing city branding campaigns. 'Enjoy Jakarta' has been undertaken in a rather sectoral approach where each local agency has individually implemented programs under the branding campaign. According to Ashworth and Kavaratzis (2010), city branding should become a strategic development tool involving various sectoral agencies who work together to achieve the branding campaign's aim. Contrary to that expectation, 'Enjoy Jakarta' was only seen as the formulation of slogans and logos. Further, Ashworth and Kavaratzis (2010) also add that if city branding is a merely sectoral program, it may not fulfil its goal, such as attracting investment and building a sense of ownership among the city residents. It generally happens in most Indonesian cities, where the city branding implementation approach is undertaken as a single sector program.

The last factor is public management, which focuses on how policies are formulated, decided, and implemented (Braun, 2012). For instance, in Jakarta, local governments are trapped in short-term programs influenced by the administration process, such as a tender process taking over six months. In contrast, the private sector focuses on long-term promotions. An example of the problem can be seen from the dispute on the preparation of the event calendar. According to the private sectors, the event's calendar must be outlined a year before, which is not the case for the local government. Cai (2009) argues that certain collaboration difficulties could be derived from collaboration between public and private organizations and their different logics, such as long-term versus short-term interests. Therefore, tourism partnerships promote discussion and negotiation and help formulate acceptable policy proposals (Hall, 2008). In sum, this study shows that strong and visionary leadership is essential in the governance factor. It would encourage stakeholder collaboration and implement effective departmental coordination, thus resulting in proper public management.

This case study of a major city in the Global South is vital in diversifying the range of studies on city branding that have typically focused on cities in the West. Increasingly, cities in the developing world are adapting branding strategies based on Western models that may not be suitable or beneficial for the local socio-economic and environmental context. For example, Baker and Cameron (2008) found several success factors in destination marketing, comprised of strategic orientation, destination identity and image, stakeholder, brand implementation, monitoring and review. However, 'Enjoy Jakarta' as a case study shows how the decentralization system influences the governance factors (leadership, stakeholder collaboration, departmental coordination and public management). For example, departmental coordination becomes a big challenge since the sectoral ego hinders the program implementation collaboratively. This paper is therefore well positioned to expand the knowledge of city branding practices in emerging and developing countries.

This study also found that four factors in governance factor influence the tourism component factors. This has been observed in several tourism works of literature, for example, "tourism governance" (see Beaumont & Dredge, 2010; Farmaki, 2015). However, the factor in tourism governance identified to influence the tourism sector was only stakeholder collaboration (Bichler, 2021; Farmaki, 2015). This study managed to identify additional factors in governance, which are leadership, departmental coordination, and public management, that impact the quality of the tourism sector in the city branding context, as depicted in the following Figure 4.



**Figure 4** Comparison between the study's output and the theory of tourism system  
(Source: Author's analysis)

Besides governance factors, this study also shows that three additional factors emerged from the interviews: accessibilities, attraction, and promotion. Gunn and Var (2002) observed that these three factors are parts of the tourism system. A functioning tourism system consists of demand and supply. The supply consists of attraction, promotion, transportation, information, and services. However, in this study, only three supply-side factors dominate: attraction, accessibility, and promotion. Respondents did not discuss the other two factors, i.e. information and service. Gunn and Var (2002) proposed various influencing aspects of the external factor, some of which also alluded to leadership. The difference between the model proposed in the case of 'Enjoy Jakarta' is that governance factors (leadership, stakeholder collaboration, departmental coordination, and public management) dominate and significantly influence tourism component factors.

In terms of the relationship between governance factors, it is found that leadership affects other government factors in a unidirectional way. Leadership influences departmental coordination since strong leadership ensures that coordination among different institutions is taking place. As observed by Ye and Björner (2018), the urban governance system in China, characterized by strong leadership, influences city branding practices by ensuring coordination among different administrative tiers is implemented. Further, strong leadership from central agencies or strong government officials promoted interdepartmental coordination, as observed in Canada (Bakvis & Juillet, 2004; Kraak, 2011). Leadership also influences stakeholder collaboration. Good leaders can inspire and motivate people to contribute to society, as observed by Bichler (2019). Good leaders also set up values and environments in which contributing parties can generate innovation (Di Mascio & Natalini, 2013). Eventually, the performance of stakeholder collaboration is determined by good leadership (Kavaratzis & Hatch, 2013). Finally, leadership also impacts public administration. Kim (2008) observed that some countries have benefited from globalization due to adaptive and responsive public administration. However, this public administration and management also depend on strong leadership in those particular countries.

To sum up, the relationship between contributing factors where leadership motivates, encourages, and inspires actors by setting long-term values and directions is successfully rendered. This study also discusses Rainisto's (2007) result where the success factors he stated have the same important weight and have not revealed the influence between these components. However, the current study argues that leadership influences other factors such as stakeholder collaboration, department coordination, and public management. There is abundant literature on the intersection of tourism and governance generally (Beaumont & Dredge, 2010; Moscardo, 2011). However, the present work also finds that governance factors may influence tourism components (i.e., attraction, accessibility, and promotion).

## 06.0 CONCLUSION

Based on the analysis, it is clear that successful tourism programs require good governance. Using Jakarta as a case study, we found that governance influences tourism components. The factors related to governance that tourism stakeholders complain about most are stakeholder collaboration, departmental coordination, and government knowledge. Other major contributing factors are related to tourism components: attraction, accessibility, and promotion. The stakeholders consider other factors, such as attractions and amenities, insignificant in the context of Jakarta as a capital city. Based on the study, this paper argues that the quality of governance factors will influence the tourism component factor of 'Enjoy Jakarta'.

This study strengthens the literature on city branding. In particular, the implementation of city branding in developing countries with a decentralized system has been provided. This study supports previous scholars' argument that many cities have been trapped solely in creating slogans and logos. In the case of Jakarta, this is due to the fact that there is a lack of capability among the government bureaucrats,

especially in understanding city branding. City branding should be seen as a strategic development tool that integrates cross-sectoral programs. However, in reality, 'Enjoy Jakarta' campaign is only undertaken by the Jakarta Tourism Department.

Based on a series of analyses, seven factors are interrelated and influence the implementation of city branding. Among seven factors, two classifications can be made. Stakeholder collaboration, departmental coordination, public management, and leadership are classified as governance factors. The other three factors: attraction, promotion, and accessibility, can be classified into tourism components. Further, this study shows that the governance factor influences the tourism component factor. This supports the concept of tourism governance, which has been discussed in several pieces of literature. While previous literature focuses on stakeholder collaboration, this study further extends by including departmental coordination and public management. At a theoretical level, this study highlights the importance of a multi-stakeholder perspective in strengthening the collaboration that leads to the success of the tourism sector. In particular, the highlight can be given to the governance factor comprising departmental coordination, stakeholder collaboration, and knowledge of government staff. The governance factor will influence the quality of tourism components.

At a practical level, the added value of this paper relays its suggestions for improving local governance to ensure the effective implementation of tourism programs, particularly in developing countries. This is relevant due to the different institutional settings in various countries in regard to the role of local governance, especially in dealing with the latest issues on tourism.

Future research should focus more on integrating advanced information technology and branding strategies that can enhance multi-stakeholder involvement in the governance system in tourism development. Further studies may also need to assess each stakeholder's involvement in detail. This includes observing and analyzing each stakeholder's participation in all of the phases of participation. Additionally, research with the ethnography method, immersing the researcher in the daily activities of stakeholders, may benefit the further development of city branding. The aim is to understand that each stakeholder may have a different perception and expectation, thus determining the contribution of each stakeholder.

### Acknowledgement

This research work would not have been accomplished without the support from Jakarta Tourism Department which provided access to essential data and information.

### References

- Acharya, A., & Rahman, Z. (2016). Place branding research: A thematic review and future research agenda. *International Review on Public and Nonprofit Marketing*, 13(3), 289-317.
- Adamo, G. E., Ferrari, S., & Gilli, M. (2019). Creativity as a source of differentiation in urban tourism: The case of Torino city. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 21(3), 302-310.
- Adinugroho, S., & Mutiaz, I. R. (2012). Designing interactive digital media for Jakarta's historical sites as a medium for conservation and placemaking. *Jurnal Desain Komunikasi Visual Nirmana*, 14(1), 36-46.
- Ahn, Y.-j., Hyun, S. S., & Kim, I. (2016). City residents' perception of MICE city brand orientation and their brand citizenship behavior: A case study of Busan, South Korea. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 21(3), 328-353.
- Anholt, S. (2007). What is competitive identity? In S. Anholt (Ed.), *Competitive identity: The new brand management for nations, cities and regions* (pp. 1-23). London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Antiroiko, A.-V. (2015). City branding as a response to global intercity competition. *Growth and Change*, 46(2), 233-252.
- Ardyan, E., & Farida, N. (2016). Attribute attractiveness of city, city brand love and tourist behavior: The case of Jakarta. In X. Yan, Z. Zou, P. Taraseina, A. Rokhman & Y. Li (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 2016 International Conference on Public Management (ICPM 2016)* (pp. 101-103). Zhengzhou: Atlantis Press.
- Arman, A., Hadi, S., Fauzi, A., & Achsan, N. A. (2017). Assessing the effects of inter-regional spillover and feedback in Indonesia. *International Journal of Environmental Problems*, 3(1), 13-25.
- Aro, K., Suomi, K., & Saraniemi, S. (2018). Antecedents and consequences of destination brand love — A case study from Finnish Lapland. *Tourism Management*, 67, 71-81.
- Ashton, A. S. (2014). Tourist destination brand image development—An analysis based on stakeholders' perception: A case study from Southland, New Zealand. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 20(3), 279-292.
- Ashworth, G., & Kavaratzis, M. (Eds.). (2010). *Towards effective place brand management: Branding European cities and regions*: Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.
- Avraham, E., & Ketter, E. (2008). *Will we be safe there?* Analysing strategies for altering unsafe place images. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, 4(3), 196-204.
- Bai, X., McAllister, R. R. J., Beaty, R. M., & Taylor, B. (2010). Urban policy and governance in a global environment: Complex systems, scale mismatches and public participation. *Current Opinion in Environmental Sustainability*, 2(3), 129-135.
- Baker, M. J., & Cameron, E. (2008). Critical success factors in destination marketing. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 8(2), 79-97.
- Bakvis, H., & Juillet, L. (2004, June 16-17). *The strategic management of horizontal issues: Lessons in interdepartmental coordination in the Canadian government*. Paper presented at the Conference on Smart Practices toward Innovation in Public Management, Vancouver, Canada.
- Barreda, A. A., Bilgihan, A., Nusair, K., & Okumus, F. (2016). Online branding: Development of hotel branding through interactivity theory. *Tourism Management*, 57, 180-192.
- Beaumont, N., & Dredge, D. (2010). Local tourism governance: A comparison of three network approaches. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 18(1), 7-28.
- Beh, Y. S., & Tham, J. K. M. (2013). Perceived critical success factors (CSFs) for the tourism industry of Penang Island: A supply perspective. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*, 4(9), 495-510.
- Bertelli, A. M., Hassan, M., Honig, D., Rogger, D., & Williams, M. J. (2020). An agenda for the study of public administration in developing countries. *Governance*, 33(4), 735-748.
- Bichler, B. F. (2021). Designing tourism governance: The role of local residents. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 19, Article 100389.
- Boisen, M., Terlouw, K., Groote, P., & Couwenberg, O. (2018). Reframing place promotion, place marketing, and place branding - *Moving beyond conceptual confusion*. *Cities*, 80, 4-11.
- Bouchon, F. A. L. (2014). *Truly Asia* and global city? Branding strategies and contested identities in Kuala Lumpur. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, 10(1), 6-18.
- Bramwell, B., & Lane, B. (2011). Critical research on the governance of tourism and sustainability. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 19(4-5), 411-421.
- Braun, E. (2012). Putting city branding into practice. *Journal of Brand Management*, 19(4), 257-267.
- Braun, E., Kavaratzis, M., & Zenker, S. (2010, August 19-30). *My city – my brand: The role of residents in place branding*. Paper presented at the 50th European Regional Science Association Congress, Jönköping, Sweden.

- Braun, E., Kavaratzis, M., & Zenker, S. (2013). My city – my brand: The different roles of residents in place branding. *Journal of Place Management and Development*, 6(1), 18-28.
- Bregoli, I. (2013). Effects of DMO coordination on destination brand identity: A mixed-method study on the City of Edinburgh. *Journal of Travel Research*, 52(2), 212-224.
- Budeanu, A., Miller, G., Moscardo, G., & Ooi, C.-S. (2016). Sustainable tourism, progress, challenges and opportunities: an introduction. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 111, 285-294.
- Buhalis, D. (2000). Marketing the competitive destination of the future. *Tourism Management*, 21(1), 97-116.
- Cai, L. A. (2009). Tourism branding in a social exchange system. In L. A. Cai, W. C. Gartner & A. M. Munar (Eds.), *Tourism branding: Communities in action* (Bridging tourism theory and practice, vol. 1, chapter 7, pp. 89-104). Bingley: Emerald.
- Chan, C.-s., & Marafa, L. M. (2013). A review of place branding methodologies in the new millennium. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, 9(4), 236-253.
- Chan, C. S., Peters, M., & Marafa, L. M. (2015). Public parks in city branding: Perceptions of visitors vis-à-vis residents in Hong Kong. *Urban Forestry & Urban Greening*, 14(4), 1157-1165.
- Chen, N. (C.), Dwyer, L., & Firth, T. (2014). Effect of dimensions of place attachment on residents' word-of-mouth behavior. *Tourism Geographies*, 16(5), 826-843.
- Church, A., & Coles, T. (Eds.). (2007). *Tourism, power and space*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Cleave, E., Arku, G., Sadler, R., & Gilliland, J. (2016). The role of place branding in local and regional economic development: bridging the gap between policy and practicality. *Regional Studies, Regional Science*, 3(1), 207-228.
- da Cruz, N. F., Rode, P., & McQuarrie, M. (2019). New urban governance: A review of current themes and future priorities. *Journal of Urban Affairs*, 41(1), 1-19.
- Damayanti, M., & Latifah, L. (2015). Strategi Kota Pekalongan dalam pengembangan wisata kreatif berbasis industri batik. *Jurnal Pengembangan Kota*, 3(2), 100-111.
- De Noni, I., Orsi, L., & Zanderighi, L. (2014). Attributes of Milan influencing city brand attractiveness. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 3(4), 218-226.
- de Noronha, I., Coca-Stefaniak, J. A., & Morrison, A. M. (2017). Confused branding? An exploratory study of place branding practices among place management professionals. *Cities*, 66, 91-98.
- Di Mascio, F., & Natalini, A. (2013). Context and mechanisms in administrative reform processes: Performance management within Italian local government. *International Public Management Journal*, 16(1), 141-166.
- Dinardi, C. (2017). Cities for sale: Contesting city branding and cultural policies in Buenos Aires. *Urban Studies*, 54(1), 85-101.
- Evans, G. (2015). Rethinking place branding and place making through creative and cultural quarters. In M. Kavaratzis, G. Warnaby, G. Ashworth (Eds.), *Rethinking place branding: Comprehensive brand development for cities and regions* (pp. 135-158). Cham: Springer.
- Farmaki, A. (2015). Regional network governance and sustainable tourism. *Tourism Geographies*, 17(3), 385-407.
- Fastiggi, M., Meerow, S., & Miller, T. R. (2021). Governing urban resilience: Organisational structures and coordination strategies in 20 North American city governments. *Urban Studies*, 58(6), 1262-1285.
- Florek, M., Herezniak, M., & Augustyn, A. (2019). You can't govern if you don't measure: Experts' insights into place branding effectiveness assessment. *Journal of Place Management and Development*, 12(4), 545-565.
- Fok, K. W. K., & Law, W. W. Y. (2018). City re-imagined: Multi-stakeholder study on branding Hong Kong as a city of greenery. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 206, 1039-1051.
- Fortunata, S. (2014). *Kajian pencitraan kota (city branding) Yogyakarta: Kesesuaian antara konseptual dan faktual berdasarkan media internet* (Unpublished master's thesis). Universitas Gadjah Mada, Yogyakarta, Indonesia.
- Gómez, M., Fernández, A. C., Molina, A., & Aranda, E. (2018). City branding in European capitals: An analysis from the visitor perspective. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 7, 190-201.
- Guest, G., Namey, E., Taylor, J., Eley, N., & McKenna, K. (2017). Comparing focus groups and individual interviews: Findings from a randomized study. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 20(6), 693-708.
- Gunn, C. A., & Var, T. (2002). *Tourism planning: Basics, concepts, cases* (4th ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Hall, C. M. (2008). Servicescapes, designscapes, branding, and the creation of place-identity: South of Litchfield, Christchurch. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 25(3-4), 233-250.
- Hall, C. M. (2014). *Tourism and social marketing*. London: Routledge.
- Insch, A., & Walters, T. (2018). Challenging assumptions about residents' engagement with place branding. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, 14(3), 152-162.
- Islam, M. W., Ruhanen, L., & Ritchie, B. W. (2018). Adaptive co-management: A novel approach to tourism destination governance? *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 37, 97-106.
- Jalilvand, M. R., Samiei, N., Dini, B., & Manzari, P. Y. (2012). Examining the structural relationships of electronic word of mouth, destination image, tourist attitude toward destination and travel intention: An integrated approach. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 1(1-2), 134-143.
- Jamal, T., & Camargo, B. A. (2018). Tourism governance and policy: Whither justice? *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 25, 205-208.
- Johnson, H., & Wilson, G. (2000). Biting the bullet: Civil society, social learning and the transformation of local governance. *World Development*, 28(11), 1891-1906.
- Kastarlak, B. I., & Barber, B. (2011). *Fundamentals of planning and developing tourism*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.
- Kavaratzis, M. (2012). From "necessary evil" to necessity: Stakeholders' involvement in place branding. *Journal of Place Management and Development*, 5(1), 7-19.
- Kavaratzis, M. (2015). Place branding scholars and practitioners: "Strangers in the night"? *Journal of Place Management and Development*, 8(3), 266-270.
- Kavaratzis, M., & Hatch, M. J. (2013). The dynamics of place brands: An identity-based approach to place branding theory. *Marketing Theory*, 13(1), 69-86.
- Kim, C.-K. (2008). Public administration in the age of globalization. *International Public Management Review*, 9(1), 39-55.
- Kirillova, K., Fu, X., Lehto, X., & Cai, L. (2014). What makes a destination beautiful? Dimensions of tourist aesthetic judgment. *Tourism Management*, 42, 282-293.
- Kladou, S., Kavaratzis, M., Rigopoulou, I., & Salonika, E. (2017). The role of brand elements in destination branding. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 6(4), 426-435.
- Kotsi, F., Balakrishnan, M. S., Michael, I., & Ramsøy, T. Z. (2018). Place branding: Aligning multiple stakeholder perception of visual and auditory communication elements. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 7, 112-130.
- Kraak, A. (2011). Horizontal coordination, government performance and national planning: The possibilities and limits of the South African state. *Politikon*, 38(3), 343-365.
- Kurande, V. H., Waagepetersen, R., Toft, E., Prasad, R. (2013). Reliability studies of diagnostic methods in Indian traditional Ayurveda medicine: An overview. *Journal of Ayurveda & Integrative Medicine*, 4(2), 67-76.
- Lee, T.-S., Huh, C. L., Yeh, H.-M., & Tsaur, W.-G. (2016). Effectiveness of a communication model in city branding using events: The case of the Taiwan Lantern festival. *International Journal of Event and Festival Management*, 7(2), 137-148.
- Lele, G. (2019). Asymmetric decentralization and the problem of governance: The case of Indonesia. *Asian Politics & Policy*, 11(4), 544-565.
- Lu, H., de Jong, M., Song, Y., & Zhao, M. (2020). The multi-level governance of formulating regional brand identities: Evidence from three Mega City Regions in China. *Cities*, 100, Article 102668.
- Lucarelli, A., & Berg, P. O. (2011). City branding: A state-of-the-art review of the research domain. *Journal of Place Management and Development*, 4(1), 9-27.
- Merrilees, B., Miller, D., & Herington, C. (2012). Multiple stakeholders and multiple city brand meanings. *European Journal of Marketing*, 46(7/8), 1032-1047.
- Moscardo, G. (2011). Exploring social representations of tourism planning: Issues for governance. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 19(4-5), 423-436.
- Moser, A., & Korstjens, I. (2018). Series: Practical guidance to qualitative research. Part 3: Sampling, data collection and analysis. *European Journal of General Practice*, 24(1), 9-18.
- Munar, A. M. (2011). Tourist-created content: Rethinking destination branding. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 5(3), 291-305.
- Ooi, C.-S., & Pedersen, J. S. (2010). City branding and film festivals: Re-evaluating stakeholder's relations. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, 6(4), 316-332. doi:10.1057/pb.2010.30

- Pakarti, P., & Usman. (2016, 26-27 October). City branding attributes development: Workers and students perspectives. In *Proceeding ICOBAME. Proceedings of the International Conference of Banking, Accounting, Management and Economics* (pp. 232-242). Magelang: Universitas Stikubank.
- Pike, A. (2009). Geographies of brands and branding. *Progress in Human Geography*, 33(5), 619-645.
- Pulido-Fernández, J. I., & de la Cruz Pulido-Fernández, M. (2018). Proposal for an indicators system of tourism governance at tourism destination level. *Social Indicators Research*, 137(2), 695-743.
- Rainisto, S. (2007). Success factors of place branding. *Regions Magazine*, 268(1), 20-22.
- Rakodi, C. (2001). Forget planning, put politics first? Priorities for urban management in developing countries. *International Journal of Applied Earth Observation and Geoinformation*, 3(3), 209-223.
- Rhodes, M. L. (2008). Complexity and emergence in public management: The case of urban regeneration in Ireland. *Public Management Review*, 10(3), 361-379.
- Risanto, Y., & Yulianti, I. (2016). City branding strategy on the evaluation of tourism destination problems in rural area (Evidence from Pasuruan City, Indonesia). *Journal of Indonesian Tourism and Development Studies*, 4(1), 5-12.
- Rukayah, R. S., Wibowo, A. A., & Wahyuningrum, S. H. (2015). Public participation in branding road corridor as shopping window or batik industry at Pekalongan. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 168, 76-86.
- Schofield, P., Crowther, P., Jago, L., Heeley, J., & Taylor, S. (2018). Collaborative innovation: Catalyst for a destination's event success. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 30(6), 2499-2516.
- Schroeder, K. (2015). Cultural values and sustainable tourism governance in Bhutan. *Sustainability*, 7(12), 16616-16630.
- Sousa, D. (2014). Validation in qualitative research: General aspects and specificities of the descriptive phenomenological method. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 11(2), 211-227.
- Statistics of Indonesia (<https://www.bps.go.id/>).
- Sugiarsono, J. (2009, August). City branding, bukan asal membuat logo dan slogan. *Majalah SWA*, 25(17), 192.
- Thelander, Å., & Säwe, F. (2015). The challenge of internal stakeholder support for co-creational branding strategy. *Public Relations Inquiry*, 4(3), 323-341.
- Tsaur, S.-H., Lin, Y.-C., & Lin, J.-H. (2006). Evaluating ecotourism sustainability from the integrated perspective of resource, community and tourism. *Tourism Management*, 27(4), 640-653.
- Ulus, M., & Hatipoglu, B. (2016). Human aspect as a critical factor for organization sustainability in the tourism industry. *Sustainability*, 8(3), Article 232.
- Yap, K. S. (2010). Good urban governance in Southeast Asia. *Environment and Urbanization ASIA*, 1(2), 131-147.
- Ye, L., & Björner, E. (2018). Linking city branding to multi-level urban governance in Chinese mega-cities: A case study of Guangzhou. *Cities*, 80, 29-37.
- Zenker, S., Braun, E., & Petersen, S. (2017). Branding the destination versus the place: The effects of brand complexity and identification for residents and visitors. *Tourism Management*, 58, 15-27.
- Zenker, S., Knubben, E., & Beckmann, S. C. (2010, April 18-20). *Your city, my city, their city, our city – Different perceptions of a place brand by diverse target groups*. Paper presented at the 6th Thought Leaders International Conference on Brand Management, Lugano, Switzerland.
- Zenker, S., & Rütter, N. (2014). Is satisfaction the key? The role of citizen satisfaction, place attachment and place brand attitude on positive citizenship behavior. *Cities*, 38, 11-17.
- Zheng, W., Liao, Z., & Lin, Z. (2020). Navigating through the complex transport system: A heuristic approach for city tourism recommendation. *Tourism Management*, 81, Article 104162.