

To cite this book chapter:

Morrison, A.M. and Coca-Stefaniak, J.A (2024), "City branding and sustainable urban development", In: C. Maxim, A.M. Morrison, J. Day and J.A. Coca-Stefaniak (eds.), *Handbook of Sustainable Urban Tourism*, Cheltenham: Edward Elgar (publ.)

25. City branding and sustainable urban development

Alastair M. Morrison and J. Andres Coca-Stefaniak

1. Introduction

City destination branding is "*the steps city destination management organisations take to develop and communicate particular identities and personalities for city tourism that are different from those of all competitors*" (Morrison and Maxim, 2022, p. 139). What is the relationship between city destination branding and sustainable urban development? In this chapter, the authors argue that it is when particular cities use sustainability or stewardship as part of their expressions of identity and personality. They want visitors and residents to associate them with sustainability.

Several examples of countries that feature sustainability in destination branding include New Zealand, Costa Rica, Bhutan, Dominica, and Slovenia. However, more attention should be given to combining sustainability and branding at a city level, particularly in the context of smart cities and smart tourism destinations (Coca-Stefaniak, 2019; Huertas et al., 2021), although many urban areas are heavily engaged with sustainable development. Insch (2011) also noted limited research on green destination marketing and branding, and this chapter addresses these gaps in the literature.

Aim and objectives

The main aim of this chapter was to explore the relationship between sustainable urban development and city destination branding. The specific objectives were to:

1. Compare place branding, city branding, and destination branding
2. Discuss green destination branding
3. Review the relationship between city destination branding and sustainable urban development
4. Analyse sustainable tourism city branding cases and derive indicators and actions for sustainable branding strategies
5. Describe a new paradigm for city destination branding

2. Place branding, city branding, and destination branding

A green city is often used as an alternative term for sustainability (Breuste, 2022). Anderson (2021) defines a sustainable city as “*an urban enclave whose design, construction, and operation prioritizes the preservation of the natural world alongside the economic, social, and physical health and wellness of the city’s inhabitants.*” The authors presume that branding is an element of the operational aspects of sustainable or green cities and that this branding intentionally embraces sustainable development. Before the detailed analysis and findings on this relationship, a comparison is made between city destination branding and place branding and city branding, three parallel streams of scholarship. The authors follow this book’s approach of blending the academic literature and practitioner information in comparing the three concepts.

Overall, place branding is a broader concept that addresses more aspects of an urban area and a greater diversity of markets (e.g., inward investment, new residents, students). The places are not limited to cities as nation branding is also included. City branding treats the place strictly as an urban area. Destination branding involves tourism attractions and resources and appealing to leisure and business event markets. However, the lines of demarcation between the terms are blurred in the research literature and practice. For example, the Whistler resort area in British Columbia, Canada, says that place branding “*is the sum total of expectations, associations, and interactions people have with a destination that cause them to form perceptions of it over time. It is about uncovering and expressing a place’s unique and defining values, traits, and spirit for the benefit of both residents and visitors*” (Tourism Whistler, 2022). A recent literature review that considered place branding and destination branding found seven main themes: general; brand identity, image and personality; politics; heritage; communication/media; and country of origin (Hanna, Rowley, and Keegan, 2021). Although the accumulated information provides conflicting and overlapping definitions of place branding, city branding, and destination branding, it is clear what they are not (only), and that is logos, colour schemes, slogans, or jingles (Govers, 2013; Zagere, 2021). There is also agreement that branding of all these hues must have input from stakeholders (Braun, Kavaratzis, and Zenker, 2013; Day and Kour, 2021; Kavaratzis, 2012; Kavaratzis and Kalandides, 2015; Trapp, 2020; Zouganeli et al., 2012).

2.1 Place branding

Multiple definitions of place branding have been offered; however, the authors prefer: *Place branding refers to the development of brands for geographical locations such as cities, regions and nations with the aim to trigger positive associations and distinguishing a territory or location from others* (Anholt, 2010; Kavaratzis, 2004a).

There were 1,026 documents in Scopus on place branding in November 2022, the first published in 2001. Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2005) had the most citations at 504. Associations that consumers have with a place brand are critical and represent brand value to them (Kavaratzis and Ashworth, 2005, p. 509). We can also think of these as perceptions, feelings, or images about places, whether they are accurate or not. However, several scholars have pointed out the complexity of involving local stakeholders in place branding (e.g., Gilboa and Jaffe, 2021; Golestaneh et al., 2021; Skinner, 2021) as this process is never controlled by a single entity (Stubbs and Warnaby, 2015).

Several review articles have been conducted on place branding (Cassinger et al., 2021; Hanna et al., 2021; Tiwari and Bose, 2013; van Ham, 2008). Overall, the geographic scope for place branding ranges from multi-country regions to individual nations and then to cities and local areas. There is significant discussion about the exact definition of place branding, and this has consumed a great deal of academic energy.

2.2 City branding

As the name suggests, this is branding at a city level. Kavaratzis (2004b, p. 70) defines city branding as “*the means both for achieving competitive advantage in order to increase inward investment and tourism, and also for achieving community development, reinforcing local identity and identification of the citizens with their city and activating all social forces to avoid social exclusion and unrest.*” Searching in the Scopus database by city branding produced a lesser number of documents than for place branding, at 650. The first article on city branding was published in 2004 and the most cited is by Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2005).

Review articles have been conducted on city branding (e.g., Green, Grace, and Perkins, 2016; Lucarelli and Berg, 2011; Oguztimur, and Akturan, 2016). Dinnie (2011) edited a landmark publication with the title of *City Branding* and several other books followed later.

2.3 Destination branding

Destination branding represents “*the steps taken by a destination or its DMO, in collaboration with its stakeholders, to develop and communicate an identity and personality, which are different from those of all competing destinations*” (Morrison, 2023).

A search of the Scopus database in November 2022 yielded 627 documents, with the first published in 1998. The most cited document is by Liping Cai (2002) of Purdue University, with 602 citations. The conversation on destination branding was in part fuelled by the apparent successes of “*100% Pure New Zealand*”, “*Incredible India*,” and “*Malaysia Truly Asia*.” The publication of the first book on destination branding in 2004 was a watershed moment (Morgan, Pritchard, and Pride, 2004). It was followed by two other books -- *Destination Branding for Small Cities* (Baker, 2007) and *The branding of tourist destinations: Theoretical and empirical insights* (Camilleri, 2018). Steven Pike made several valuable contributions to the destination branding literature in the past 20 years (Kotsi and Pike, 2021).

Several review articles on destination and tourism branding include Hanna et al., 2021; Kasapi and Cela, 2017; López-Rodríguez, Mora-Forero, and León-Gómez, 2022; Ruiz-Real, Uribe-Toril, and Gázquez-Abad, 2020; and Tran and Rudolf, 2022. Ruiz-Real et al. (2020) found that there had been no in-depth research of trends in destination branding. In terms of topic coverage, these researchers found seven clusters. The first group included the main theoretical models on destination branding and the second covered consumer analysis, destination management, and communication strategies. Cluster three was about destination marketing and tourism marketing and the fourth was related to brand equity and identity. The fifth dealt with brand images and perceptions; the sixth was about destination branding performance and competitiveness; and the seventh on destination image and consumer-based

brand equity.

Some destination management authors view destination branding as something other than an isolated function; instead, it is connected with destination images (how consumers perceive destinations) and positioning (how destinations desire to be perceived). Morrison (2023) recommends simultaneous consideration of the three concepts of positioning, destination image, and branding (PIB).

From the on-the-ground perspective, there are significant challenges and potential problems with place branding, city branding, and destination branding. These include a lack of sufficient knowledge among place management practitioners (de Noronha, Coca-Stefaniak, and Morrison, 2017), issues in effectively engaging with stakeholders (Tøttenborg, Ooi, and Hardy, 2022), the potential for political influence (Hanna et al., 2021), and difficulties in encapsulating the images of complex cities in a single concept (Gattupalli, 2022).

The differences between place, city, and destination branding are mainly in their scope and in the outcomes of association (for place and city branding) and identity and personality (for destination branding). In practical terms, all three concepts have value in considering the nexus of branding and sustainable development. Although the academic debate about definitional differences will continue and remains elusive, a fusion of these terminologies seems appropriate when considering the relationship between destination branding and sustainable development. An urban area's sustainable development efforts go well beyond just tourism and generate associations and images not necessarily communicated through destination branding alone. It also needs to be recognised that branding is not purely about communications with markets and imaging; it must be backed up with product and service development within the destination.

3. Green destination branding

The terms green destination and green destination branding are concepts related to this chapter's topic. Inch (2011) argues that green tourism brands need to be better understood and that whether green branding offers destinations an opportunity to differentiate themselves from competitors has received little research attention. She states that environmental conservation and sustainability practices are primary brand associations with green destinations. The city of Malmö in Sweden is cited as an example of a green destination brand, and Costa Rica, New Zealand, and Australia are also mentioned as green destinations. Green destination brands are difficult to maintain due to the differing interests of various stakeholders.

A case study on green destination branding in Hungary defines these areas as having a concern for the needs and limitations (e.g., carrying capacity) and geographical, environmental, and sociocultural features (Lőrincz, Kruppa-Jakab, Szabó, and Csapó, 2021). The authors suggest that the green branding of cities is a recent trend, and sustainability issues (economic, social, and environmental) are being integrated into city branding. Chan et al. (2018) employed the Green Brand Hexagon (GBH) and surveys in Hong Kong and Copenhagen to compare visitor impressions of the cities' green branding approaches. These authors argue that visitor perceptions are the 'starting conditions' for the green branding of cities. The six attributes of GBH are green status, green space, green potential, green pulse, green citizenship, and green prerequisites. The authors noted that the complex

city user combination needed to be improved to establish green branding. Neidig et al. (2022), using the case study of Vitoria-Gasteiz in the Basque Country of Spain, suggest that cities follow international green standards to build their international reputations. Pursuing the European Green Capital award is an example of urban areas' efforts (Kern, 2019; Sareen and Grandin, 2020).

These and other research articles treat green branding as a type of destination branding, hence green destination branding. All are unanimous in detecting green destination branding as a growing trend and beneficial for cities (Malik, Gangwani, and Kaur, 2022; Mousavi, 2021; Rinaldi, Giovanardi, and Lucarelli, 2021). However, there are significant challenges and issues in implementing green destination branding, including the diverse stakeholders and audiences. The authors feel that using green here emphasises the environmental pillar of sustainable development and that the term sustainable destination branding is more appropriate.

The concept of greenwashing needs to be mentioned here. According to SourceWatch.org (2022), "*Greenwashing is the unjustified appropriation of environmental virtue by a company, an industry, a government, a politician or even a non-government organization to create a pro-environmental image, sell a product or a policy, or to try and rehabilitate their standing with the public and decision makers after being embroiled in controversy.*" This insincere sustainability branding and communications is being used by some cities (Rinaldi et al., 2021); however, it is to be avoided.

This chapter now discusses the relationship between city destination branding and sustainable urban development.

4. City destination branding and sustainable urban development

Some, but not all cities make their sustainability intentions obvious, including Ljubljana, which says it is a "sustainability-minded destination" (Ljubljana Tourism, 2022). In this part of the chapter, evidence is drawn about the strategies employed by cities to demonstrate their sustainability and stewardship commitments. It is argued that these strategies are eight indicators of sustainability being part of city identity (arranged in alphabetic order).

Green certification

Applying for and receiving various certifications related to sustainability reflects a city's intent. Here, the Global Sustainable Tourism Council's Destination Criteria (GSTC) are the most comprehensive, and several cities have been granted this certification. For example, Sentosa in Singapore has received the GSTC certification.

Incentives for citizens and visitors

More related to the economic pillar of sustainable development, some cities offer incentives for locals to sample and spend money on tourism and hospitality attractions and businesses. A common practice in Europe is to sell city cards that offer discounted prices for attractions and other tourism venues. The use of these cards stimulates greater spending within urban areas.

Memberships

Joining organisations such as the Global Sustainable Tourism Council (GSTC) indicates

concern for sustainability. For example, Athens, Barcelona, Berlin, Singapore, Suwon, and Vancouver are GSTC members. Brussels is a member of the International Social Tourism Organisation (ISTO), demonstrating its concern for disadvantaged individuals. 4VI (Nanaimo, British Columbia) is a member of The Travel Foundation.

Networks

An example is the Human Rights Cities Network (HRCN), an online platform promoting the development of human rights in Europe and elsewhere (Human Rights Cities Network, 2022). York, England, and Vienna, Austria, are two notable city destinations that are part of HRCN.

Signing of cooperative declarations

There are several declarations and ethical codes for tourism for which cities can volunteer as signatories. For example, Athens, Barcelona, Bilbao, Glasgow, London, Québec City, Valencia, and Vancouver are city signatories to the *Glasgow Declaration on Climate Change Action in Tourism* (One Planet, 2022).

Sustainability pledges and commitments

On official tourism websites, cities often make pledges or commitments about sustainable tourism. For example, for Québec City, "*Destination Québec cité is committed to supporting sustainable travel and tourism both with visitors in the way of advising them to explore the region and with companies to accompany them in this responsible shift. Our goal is to make Québec City the reference among sustainable tourism destinations in North America*" (Destination Québec cité, 2022). The next chapter part includes statements made by official city DMOs about sustainability.

Sustainable tourism plans and strategies

Some cities demonstrate their commitment to sustainable urban development by producing sustainable tourism plans or strategies. Park City (Utah) and Sedona (Arizona) are two urban areas in the U.S. that have developed such plans.

Visual identity

Some cities use green in their visual identities to communicate their concern for the natural environment (Branding Compass, 2019). For example, the website of Travel Portland uses green as the background colour and features many photos of natural areas in the city (Travel Portland, 2022).

While these strategies (Figure 25.1) are only anecdotal evidence that may or may not be connected to destination branding, the authors believe they indicate that the cities desire a sustainable identity. Exploring these strategies in greater detail, a set of sustainable tourism city branding cases are next analysed.

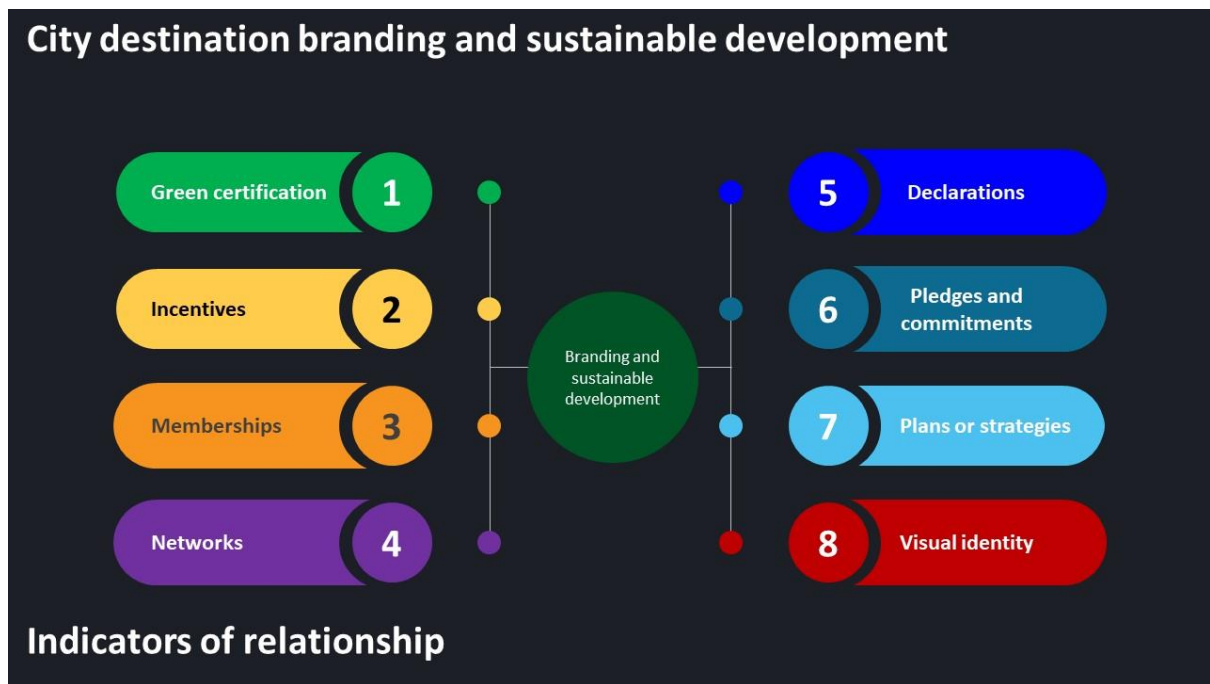


Figure 25.1 Indicators of the destination branding and sustainable development relationship. (PowerPoint template, Courtesy, PresentationPro.com)

5. Sustainable tourism city branding cases

A set of cities was selected based on an analysis of the sustainable city and sustainable destination ranking systems (e.g., The Arcadis Sustainable Cities Index, Arcadis, 2022). Two types of information were collected for these cities: 1) verbatim statements from publicly displayed information about commitments to sustainability or stewardship, and 2) specific city initiatives connected to the three pillars of sustainable development (Table 25.1).

Table 25.1 Sustainable initiatives of selected city destinations
[included at the end of the document]

Copenhagen

The Danish capital might be one of the best examples in the world of merging destination branding and sustainability. The following brief statement from its DMO, Wonderful Copenhagen, captures its sustainable development ambition:

“Wonderful Copenhagen’s ambition for 2030 is that tourism in Greater Copenhagen positively impacts local and global sustainable development” (Wonderful Copenhagen, 2022).

Wonderful Copenhagen in 2017 broke away from the pack of DMOs by announcing its strategy under the banner of *The end of tourism as we know it* (Wonderful Copenhagen, 2017). This new strategy was based on ‘road signs’ that the DMO included: 1. The experience of temporary localhood; 2. Locals are the destination; 3. Branding is all about relations; 4. From marketing to enabling; and 5. A traveller is all kinds of human. Moilanen and Rainisto (2008), in a chapter entitled *City and Destination Branding*, used

Copenhagen as the primary case example.

Ljubljana

Ljubljana is one of the European capital cities recognised for its high proportion of green spaces at 50%, only behind Oslo (72%) and Bern (53%) (World Economic Forum, 2022). As stated above, Ljubljana sees itself as a “sustainability-minded” destination. The following statement adds more detail to this positioning.

“If you were to describe Ljubljana with only a few words, those would be green, safe, friendly and clean. It's a city that has long been recognised for its environmental conscience, where a number of measures in the field of sustainable development, including green mobility, waste management and sustainable urban planning have been implemented over the years” (Ljubljana Tourism, 2022a).

The city DMO’s vision for Ljubljana is “by 2027 it is recognised as the leading and most creative urban sustainable lifestyle destination in the world” (Ljubljana Tourism, 2022b).

Vancouver Island (Nanaimo)

4VI is the first-ever DMO to reinvent itself as a social enterprise, so it is correct to assume that sustainable development for 4VI (formerly Tourism Vancouver Island) is a priority.

“Tourism Vancouver Island is committed to building a more resilient, sustainable, inclusive and vibrant visitor economy in the region. Through a whole team approach, each of our business units collaborates to advance stewardship priorities relating to Indigenous tourism, access and inclusion, labour force and sustainability” (4VI, 2022).

This case example highlights a DMO that has decided to take its social responsibility to a much higher level. 4VI addresses the four pillars of social responsibility (communities, businesses, culture, and environment). It is a revenue-generating business that earmarks a social benefit and directs its revenues toward achieving that benefit (Haugen, 2022). SDG14 (life below water) is its first benefit target. The authors acknowledge that 4VI represents a region rather than a specific urban area; however, its innovative approach could be emulated by city DMOs in the future.

Oslo

“Oslo is full of people and businesses who work towards a healthy environment: From restaurants that serve organic foods to city developers searching for eco-conscious solutions. Together they have turned Oslo into a sustainable destination to be reckoned with” (Visit Oslo, 2022).

Oslo promotes organic and locally sourced foods and sustainable clothing ('slow fashion') as with other Scandinavian capital cities.

Singapore

Singapore is a city-state that has attached a high priority to sustainability. Called *Garden City* by some, Singapore aims to become the world’s greenest city in the future (Kolczak, 2017).

“Singapore has always prioritised sustainability and placed it at the forefront of its long-term

plan. In 2009, we launched the first Sustainable Singapore Blueprint to continuously outline strategies that will improve our green footprint by year 2030. Green measures are now woven into the infrastructure of the economy, with emphasis placed on reducing waste and increasing the use of renewable energy sources like solar power” (Singapore Tourism Board, 2022).

One of the initiatives for which Singapore is world famous is applying biophilic design in buildings (Beatley and Newman, 2013; Guzzo et al., 2022; Newman, 2014).

Stockholm

Along with the two other Scandinavian capital cities of Copenhagen and Oslo, Stockholm is often highly rated for its sustainability efforts. Although not included here, Helsinki and Reykjavik are also among the capital cities with higher scores.

“Sustainability permeates almost everything in Stockholm. Here are some tips for your visit to one of Europe’s greenest cities! Stockholm is at the forefront when it comes to sustainability. Innovative solutions that take the climate and nature into consideration can be seen everywhere and have become a part of everyday life. From public transportation, and the city’s attractions to the variety of boutiques, cafés, and restaurants offering locally sourced meals or sustainable clothes” (Stockholm Business Region, 2022).

The emphasis of locally sourced foods and sustainable clothes are noteworthy in this statement.

Vienna

Vienna is a recognised leader in green meetings and a popular destination for these business events. It also promotes conscious (sustainable) shopping and organic agriculture.

“Conscious shopping, organic agriculture, and smart infrastructure show that quality of life and sustainability go hand in hand in Vienna” (Vienna Tourist Board, 2022).

Wellington

The following is WellingtonNZ’s pitch to potential travel trade partners.

“Wanting to build sustainability into your itinerary? These activities, experiences, transport and more have all started their sustainability journey and work with (the travel) trade” (WellingtonNZ, 2022).

The more in-depth analysis of these eight cities confirmed the application of the eight indicator strategies in Figure 25.1. It also brought out other sustainable development actions by these cities, e.g., local sourcing, sustainable shopping, sustainability guides, responsible travel guidelines, green meetings, urban farming, city cards, social enterprise creation, and others. Figure 25.2 summarizes the city destination sustainability branding actions elaborated upon in Table 25.2.

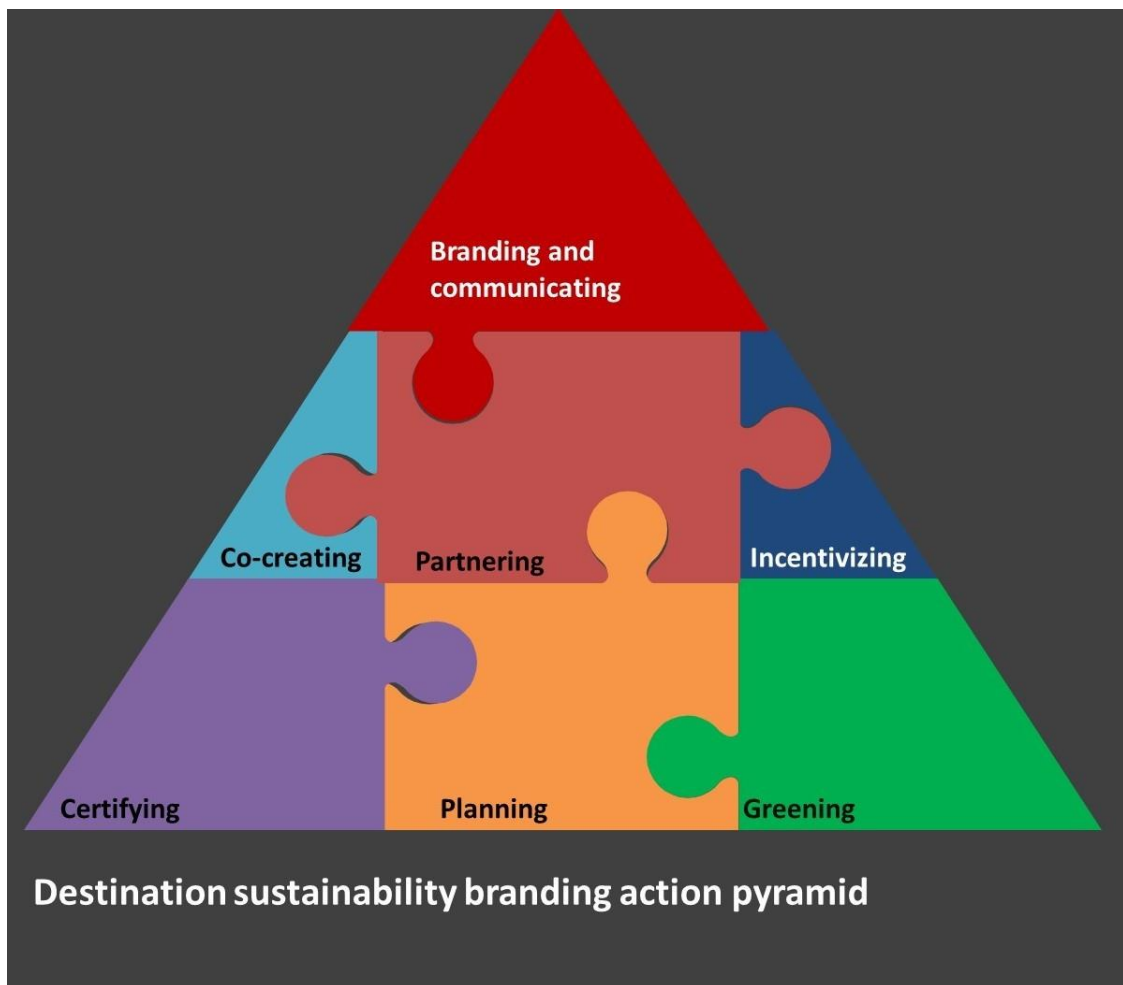


Figure 25.2 Destination sustainability branding action pyramid. (PowerPoint template: Courtesy, SlideModel.com)

Table 25.2 Urban sustainable tourism branding actions
[included at the end of the document]

It is noticeable from these sustainable tourism city branding cases that the emphasis in most of them is on environmental sustainability, with the exceptions being Copenhagen and Vancouver Island. Social-cultural and economic sustainability are not so predominantly featured, although as Table 25.1 shows there are some initiatives being taken by the case example cities on these two sustainability pillars. There is scope in the future in city destination branding for putting greater emphasis on social-cultural and economic sustainability.

6. A new future paradigm for city destination branding

The marketing, branding, and communications of tourism cities in future years must evolve towards a new paradigm that addresses climate change, pollution, crises and disasters, resilience, overtourism, rising sea levels, and other sustainability challenges. This chapter has

highlighted several urban areas moving in this direction; however, many others must do more. Destination branding needs to have a social responsibility dimension and not just be regarded as a marketing and communications tool. Embracing SDG11 (Sustainable cities and communities) should be an anchoring point for the new paradigm. The case examples reviewed in this chapter may serve as benchmarks for other cities in this respect.

With the growing influence of younger generations (Y, Z, and A), who are more concerned with climate change and other sustainability issues, the wisdom of following a sustainable destination branding approach will be further enhanced. Also, as the time shortens to the 2030 deadline for achieving the SDGs, the pressures on cities and other destinations to become more sustainable will intensify.

How will this new paradigm look? The answer is at least partially supplied in Figure 25.2 and Table 25.2. The seven actions constitute a strategy for building a sustainable destination brand (greening, planning, certifying, partnering, co-creating, incentivising, and branding and communicating).

Specific future trends that are anticipated for sustainable city tourism branding are as follows:

- It is expected that more city destinations will feature sustainable development and sustainable tourism in their branding strategies.
- Greater emphasis will be given to social-cultural and economic sustainability than before in city tourism branding, as previously mentioned.
- Co-creation with residents, visitors and other stakeholders will expand. This will provide a better guarantee that city tourism activities will be sustainable and more compatible with stakeholder needs.
- DMOs will appoint sustainability officers. Very few DMOs have internal “sustainability champions” who are invested with the responsibility for planning and guiding the sustainable development in tourism. This is akin to the pre-1995 situation when there were no technology departments and officers in DMOs. This will undoubtedly have to change in the future as sustainable tourism tasks need staff allocated to them; sustainable city tourism will not prosper just with “lip service”.
- DMOs will have to craft branding and marketing communications to better fit the emerging generational cohorts to whom sustainable development is a higher priority. This applies to both leisure and business travel.
- New recognition and certification systems will be created that will reward cities with effective sustainable city tourism branding approaches.

7. Stakeholder implications

The engagement of all stakeholders in city destination branding is imperative, although challenging to achieve in actual practice. All stakeholders within the destination must deliver on the brand promise, which if not accomplished will undermine destination branding effectiveness. If sustainability is an element of branding, visitors and travel trade partners must behave responsibly, and residents must do likewise and support and spread the word about the brand (Jeuring and Haartsen, 2017).

It is difficult for all destination branding to maintain consistency and sustainability because of the constant turnover within government agencies, DMOs, and tourism businesses. This may

be an even more difficult task for destination branding closely linked to sustainable development, with New Zealand's *100% Pure NZ* being a barometer of this issue. Players will change, and passions may wane, so there is a need to firmly anchor the concept in the local community and as a value with local residents.

8. Conclusions

Changes in consumer attitudes and preferences and the influence of external factors and global issues such as those expressed in the SDGs are reasons for cities to forge a closer relationship between destination branding and sustainable development. Several cities and their DMOs show leadership in merging destination management with sustainable development, and this trend will undoubtedly continue at a pace in the future.

The changes ahead should force city DMOs to align their unique selling propositions (USPs) more closely with aspects of sustainable development. Several catalysts for these changes include growing concerns for the environment, the SDGs, increasing urbanisation, intensifying competition, the fallout from COVID-19, and trends in markets and consumer behaviour. This also comes at a time when funding is becoming a more significant issue for DMOs, and many are trying to reinvent themselves in the recovery from the pandemic.

References

- 4VI. (2022). Stewardship, <https://vancouverisland.travel/corporate/stewardship/>
- Anderson, M. (2021). Green cities: How to make a sustainable city, One Key Resources/ Milwaukee Tool, <https://onekeyresources.milwaukeeetool.com/en/green-city>
- Anholt, S. (2010). Definitions of place branding – Working toward a resolution. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, 6, 1-10.
- Arcadis. (2022). The Arcadis Sustainable Cities Index 2022, <https://www.arcadis.cn/en/knowledge-hub/perspectives/global/sustainable-cities-index>
- Baker, B. (2007). Destination branding for small cities. Tualatin, Oregon: Creative Leap Books.
- Beatley, T., and Newman, P. (2013). Biophilic cities are sustainable, resilient cities. *Sustainability*, 5, , 3328-3345, <https://doi.org/10.3390/su5083328>
- Branding Compass. (2019). Color theory: Green as a branding color, <https://brandingcompass.com/branding/color-theory-green-as-a-branding-color/>
- Braun, E., Kavaratzis, M., and 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.
- Breuste, J. (2022). *The green city. Urban nature as an ideal, provider of services and conceptual urban design approach*. Berlin: Springer-Verlag GmbH.
- Cai, L. A. (2022). Cooperative branding for rural destinations. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(3), 720-742.
- Camilleri, M. A. (2018). *The branding of tourist destinations: Theoretical and empirical insights*. Bingley, England: Emerald Publishing.
- Cassinger, C., Gyimóthy, S. and Lucarelli, A. (2021). 20 years of Nordic place branding research: A review and future research agenda. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 21(1),70-77.
- Chan, C.-S., Marafa, L. M., Van Den Bosch, C. C. K., and Randrup, T. B. (2018). Starting conditions for the green branding of a city. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*,

10, 10-24.

City of Stockholm. (2020). Strategy for a smart and connected city, <https://international.stockholm.se/governance/smart-and-connected-city/strategy-for-a-smart-and-connected-city/>

Coca-Stefaniak, J.A. (2019). Marketing smart tourism cities: A strategic dilemma. *International Journal of Tourism Cities*, 5(4), 513-518.

Day, J., and Kour, G. (2021). Destination-based brand equity: The impact of destination image on the destination stakeholders. Travel and Tourism Research Association: *Advancing Tourism Research Globally*, 56, https://scholarworks.umass.edu/ttra/2021/research_papers/56

de Noronha, I., Coca-Stefaniak, J. A., and Morrison, A. M. (2017). Confused branding? An exploratory study of place branding practices among place management professionals. *Cities*, 66, 91-98.

Destination Québec cité. (2022). Sustainable tourism in Québec City, <https://www.quebec-cite.com/en/quebec-city/sustainable-tourism-quebec>

Dinnie, K., ed. (2011). *City branding: Theory and cases*. Basingstoke, England: Palgrave Macmillan.

Gattupalli, A. (2022). Place branding: Reviving cities through brand strategy, Arch Daily, <https://www.archdaily.com/991419/place-branding-reviving-cities-through-brand-strategy>

Gilboa, S. and Jaffe, E. (2021). Can one brand fit all? Segmenting city residents for place branding. *Cities*, 116, 103287.

Golestaneh, H., Guerreiro, M., Pinto, P. and Mosaddad, S. H. (2021). On the role of internal stakeholders in place branding. *Journal of Place Management and Development*, 15(2), 202-228.

Govers, R. (2013). Why place branding is not about logos and slogans. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, 9(2), 71-75.

Green, A., Grace, D., and Perkins, H. (2016). City branding research and practice: An integrative review. *Journal of Brand Management*, 23(3), 252-272.

Guzzo, R. F., Suess, C, and Legendre, T. S. (2022). Biophilic design for urban hotels – prospective hospitality employees’ perspectives. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 34(8), 2914-2933.

Hanna, S., Rowley, J., and Keegan, B. (2021). Place and destination branding: A review and conceptual mapping of the domain. *European Management Review*, 18, 105-117.

Haugen, J. (2022). 4VI creates new model for destination marketing organizations by becoming a social enterprise, Sustainable Brands, <https://sustainablebrands.com/read/walking-the-talk/4vi-creates-new-model-for-destination-marketing-organizations-by-becoming-a-social-enterprise>

Huertas, A., Moreno, A. and Pascual, J. (2021). Place branding for smart cities and smart tourism destinations: Do they communicate their smartness? *Sustainability*, 13(19), 10953.

Human Rights Cities Network. (2022). Who we are, <https://humanrightscities.net/who-we-are/>

Insch, A. (2011). Conceptualization and anatomy of green destination brands. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 5(3), 282-290.

Jearing, J. H. G., and Haartsen, T. (2017). Destination branding by residents: The role of perceived responsibility in positive and negative word-of-mouth. *Tourism Planning & Development*, 14(2), 240-259

Kasapi, I., and Cela, A. (2017). Destination branding: A review of the city branding literature. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 8(4), 129-142.

Kavaratzis, M. (2004a). From city marketing to city branding: Towards a theoretical framework for developing city brands. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, 1, 58-73.

Kavaratzis, M. (2004b). From city marketing to city branding: Towards a theoretical

framework for developing city brands. *Place Branding*, 1(1), 58-73.

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., and Ashworth, G. J. (2005). City branding: An effective assertion of identity or a transitory marketing trick? *Tijdschrift voor Economische en Sociale Geografie*, 96(5), 506-514.

Kavaratzis, M., and Kalandides, A. (2015). Rethinking the place brand: The interactive formation of place brands and the role of participatory place branding. *Environment and Planning A*, 47, 1368-1382.

Kern, K. (2019). Cities as leaders in EU multilevel climate governance: Embedded upscaling of local experiments in Europe. *Environmental Politics*, 28(1), 125-145.

Kolczak, A. (2017). This city aims to be the world's greenest, National Geographic, <https://www.nationalgeographic.com/environment/article/green-urban-landscape-cities-Singapore>

Kotsi, F., & Pike, S. (2021). Destination brand positioning theme development based on consumers’ personal values. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 45(3), 573-587.

Ljubljana Tourism. (2022a). Ljubljana, a sustainability-minded destination, <https://www.visitljubljana.com/en/meetings/why-ljubljana/ljubljana-a-sustainability-minded-destination/>

Ljubljana Tourism. (2022b). Vision and strategy, <https://www.visitljubljana.com/en/about-us/vision-and-strategy/>

López-Rodríguez, C. E., Mora-Forero, J. A., and León-Gómez, A. (2022). Strategic development associated with branding in the tourism sector: Bibliometric analysis and systematic review of the literature between the years 2000 to 2022. *Sustainability*, 14, 9869, <https://doi.org/10.3390/su14169869>

Lőrincz, K., Kruppa-Jakab, E., Szabó, R., and Csapó, J. (2021). Green branding as a tool and future potential for destination marketing: Implications from a case study in Veszprém, Hungary. *Society and Economy*, 43(3), 253-269.

Lucarelli, A., and 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.

Malik, G., Gangwani, K. K., and Kaur, A. (2022). Do green attributes of a destination matter? The effect on green trust and destination brand equity. *Event Management*, 26, 775-792.

Moilanen, T., and Rainisto, S. (2008). City and destination branding. In *How to brand nations, cities and destinations: A planning book for place branding*, pp. 77-146. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan UK.

Morgan, N., Pritchard, A., and Pride, R. (2004). Destination branding: Creating the unique destination proposition. Oxford: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.

Morrison, A. M. (2023). Marketing and managing tourism destinations, 3rd ed. London: Routledge.

Morrison, A. M., and Maxim, C. (2022). *World tourism cities*. London: Routledge.

Mousavi, R. (2021). The role of green tourism as a marketing tool of destinations. *Journal of Tourism and Hospitality*, 10(85), 1000003.

Neidig, J., Anguelovski, I., Albaina, A., and Pascual, U. (2022). “We are the Green Capital”: Navigating the political and sustainability fix narratives of urban greening. *Cities*, 131, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cities.2022.103999>

Newman, P. (2014). Biophilic urbanism: A case study on Singapore. *Australian Planner*, 51(1), 47-65.

Oguztimur, S., and Akturan, U. (2016). Synthesis of city branding literature (1988-2014) as a research domain. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 18, 357-372.

One Planet. (2022). Signatories of the Glasgow Declaration,

<https://www.oneplanetnetwork.org/programmes/sustainable-tourism/glasgow-declaration/signatories>

Rinaldi, C., Giovanardi, M., and Lucarelli, A. (2021). Keeping a foot in both camps: Sustainability, city branding and boundary spanners. *Cities*, 115,

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cities.2021.103236>

Ruiz-Real, J. L., Uribe-Toril, J., and Gázquez-Abad, J. C. (2020). Destination branding: Opportunities and new challenges. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 17,

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2020.100453>

Sareen, S. and Grandin, J. (2020). European green capitals: branding, spatial dislocation or catalysts for change? *Geografiska Annaler: Series B, Human Geography*, 102(1), 101-117.

Singapore Green Plan. (2022). A city of green possibilities, <https://www.greenplan.gov.sg/>

Singapore Tourism Board. (2022). Sustainability,

<https://www.visitsingapore.com/mice/en/plan-your-event/sustainability/>

SourceWatch.org. (2022). Greenwashing,

<https://www.sourcewatch.org/index.php?title=Greenwashing>

Stockholm Business Region. (2022). A sustainable vacation in Stockholm,

<https://www.visitstockholm.com/see-do/activities/a-sustainable-vacation-in-stockholm/>

Stubbs, J., and Warnaby, G. (2015). Rethinking place branding from a practice perspective: Working with stakeholders. In: *Rethinking place branding* (pp. 101-118). Cham, Switzerland: Springer.

Tiwari, A. K., and Bose, S. (2013). Place branding: A review of literature. *Asia Pacific Journal of Research in Business Management*, 4(3), 15-24.

Tøttenborg, A., Ooi, C.-S., and Hardy, A. (2022). Giving and taking ownership of a destination brand: Mechanisms of stakeholder engagement. *Journal of Place Management and Development*, 15(4), 511-532.

Tourism Whistler. (2022). What is a place brand?

<https://members.whistler.com/placebranding/>

Tran, N. L., and Rudolf, W. (2022). Social media and destination branding in tourism: A systematic review of the literature. *Sustainability*, 14, 13528,

<https://doi.org/10.3390/su142013528>

Trapp, N. L. (2020). Managing participatory destination branding: Insights from the Aarhus resident ambassador program. *Journal of Place Management and Development*, 13(3), 241-253.

Travel Portland. (2022). This is Portland, <https://www.travelportland.com/>

van Ham. (2008). Place branding: The state of the art. *Annals, AAPSS*, 166, 126-148.

Vienna Convention Bureau. (2022). Green meetings,

<https://www.vienna.convention.at/en/sustainability/green-meetings>

Vienna Tourist Board. (2022). Sustainable Vienna,

<https://www.wien.info/en/sightseeing/green-vienna/sustainable-vienna>

Visit Oslo. (2022). Green Oslo. Inspiration for an eco-friendly stay,

<https://www.visitoslo.com/en/your-oslo/green-oslo/>

WellingtonNZ. (2022). Sustainable tourism in Wellington,

<https://www.wellingtonnz.com/tourism-trade/travel-trade-toolkit/sustainability/>

Wonderful Copenhagen. (2017). The end of tourism as we know it,

<https://localhood.wonderfulcopenhagen.dk/>

Wonderful Copenhagen. (2022). Sustainable events,

<https://www.wonderfulcopenhagen.com/sustainable-events>

World Economic Forum. (2022). Which European capitals have the most green spaces?

<https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2022/08/green-space-cities-climate-change/>

Zagere, E. (2021). Destination branding – more than just a logo, Solimar International,

<https://www.solimarinternational.com/destination-branding-top-tips-to-attract-travelers/>

Zouganeli , S., Trihas, N., Antonaki, M., and Kladou, S. (2012). Aspects of sustainability in the destination branding process: A bottom-up approach. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 21(7), 739-757.

Table 25.1 Sustainable initiatives of selected city destinations

| Cities | Environmental | Social-cultural | Economic |
|--|--|--|---|
| Copenhagen, Denmark | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bicycling • Multiple sustainable experiences • Copenhagen Sustainability Guide and <i>Planet CPH</i> app • Sustainable mobility | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Localhood</i> concept • Sustainable shopping promotion • <i>Tourism for good</i> strategy | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Money-saving Copenhagen Card |
| Ljubljana, Slovenia | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creation of cycle routes and green spaces • European Green Capital 2016 • Sustainability vision for tourism | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Gourmmmet</i> Ljubljana branding | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ljubljana Card • Local sourcing |
| Oslo, Norway | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • European Green Capital 2019 • Highest proportion of green spaces • Sustainable transport | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emphasis on green eating (ecological and organic restaurants) • Sustainable clothing and shopping program | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local sourcing • Oslo Card |
| Singapore | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Biophilic building design • GSTC member • Sentosa certified by GSTC • Singapore Green Plan 2030 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Singapore Heritage Plan 2.0 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Free admission to national museums and heritage institutions • Tourism credit scheme during COVID-19 |
| Stockholm, Sweden | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bicycling • High percentage of eco-friendly certified hotels • Waste recycling | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strategy for Stockholm as a Smart and Connected City • Sustainable shopping program | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local sourcing • The Stockholm Card |
| Vancouver Island (Nanaimo, British Columbia, Canada) (4VI) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Leave no trace</i> principles • SDG14 benefits • Signatory to Glasgow | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Signatory to UN Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explore Vancouver Island Gift Card |

| | | | |
|-------------------------|--|---|---|
| | declaration <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Member of Tourism Declares | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social enterprise creation | |
| Vienna, Austria | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Green meetings leadership • Green museums • Smart City Wien | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • HRCN membership • Social contributions by business events • Sustainable shopping program | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Urban farming • Vienna City Card |
| Wellington, New Zealand | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Low carbon transport • Sustainable Tourism Pilot • Zero waste events | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Promotion of Māori culture • Refugee employment in food service • Sustainable fashion program • Sustainable food initiatives | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Wellington City Pass |

Table 25.2 Urban sustainable tourism branding actions

| Actions | Descriptions | Examples |
|----------------------------|--|--|
| Branding and communicating | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Developing and communicating a sustainable development identity and personality | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sustainability pledges and commitments • Visual identity |
| Certifying | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Applying for and receiving sustainability certifications | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • GSTC and other certifications |
| Co-creating | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Jointly creating sustainable visitor experiences | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Open innovation to produce new sustainable tourism experiences |
| Greening | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reducing adverse environmental effects of tourism • Adopting beneficial environmental initiatives | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Green buildings and biophilic design • Green meetings • Green mobility and transport • Green spaces |
| Incentivizing | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Providing economic savings and benefits | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • City cards • Local sourcing of food and other supplies |
| Partnering | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Joining and networking with others with a mutual interest in sustainable development | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Memberships in sustainability organizations • Signatories to sustainable development declarations |
| Planning | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting the vision, goals, strategies, or plans for sustainable development through tourism | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sustainable tourism strategies or plans • Sustainable tourism vision statements |