MARKETING AND MANAGING CITY TOURISM DESTINATIONS

Alastair M. Morrison

Introduction

Cities are critical to tourism in all countries of the world. They are often important transportation hubs and contain extensive arrays of daytime and night-time attractions, activities and experiences. The main purpose of this chapter is to situate the tourism marketing, branding and product development of urban areas within the context of destination marketing and management. A descriptive research approach is followed using literature reviewing and expert opinion on the themes. In so doing, the author acknowledges that two streams of urban tourism research have developed, one stream within tourism journals, books and association professional development activities; the other stream, one sub-stream of which can be called place marketing and branding, appears in similar venues related to urban studies and planning, city management, sustainable development, transportation and other. Furthermore, it is recognised that there has been a considerable gap between city marketing practice and related academic scholarship, and both have developed rather separately.

To say that city tourism marketing is something recent is far from the truth. In fact, 1896 saw the establishment of the first city convention promotion bureau in Detroit, Michigan (Gartrell, 1988, p. 4; Travel Michigan, 2016). However, the marketing of cities has changed quite dramatically in the ensuing approximately 125 years, becoming more professional and broad-reaching, and has transformed with Web 1.0 and 2.0, the greater emphasis on destination/place branding, more concern with sustainability and the advent of smart cities.

This chapter begins with a mini academic literature review on city tourism marketing, branding and product development. The literature review highlights among other things that city tourism needs to be managed and not just marketed. Second, the chapter provides a short history of destination marketing and management. It demonstrates the transformation from destination marketing to destination management. The third part of the chapter is devoted to best processes and practices in city destination marketing and management. This discourse explains the multiple roles of destination management beyond just marketing and branding. The chapter ends with a short summary drawing together the strands from the previous four parts.
A brief review of the academic literature

Chronology of the literature

The academic literature on urban tourism and city tourism marketing is characterised by a broad range of contributions from multiple disciplines. This review begins by examining two major streams of this literature, from tourism and from place marketing and branding. The review is indicative rather than comprehensive and is designed to give an overview of the relevant academic literature.

Tourism journal research stream: The literature in English on urban tourism stretches back to the early 1980s, with Vandermey (1984) being one of the first to use the expression of “urban tourism” in an article title. Based on the example of Calgary, Alberta, Canada, he proposed a model of the urban tourism system with a destination management organisation (DMO) at its core. This article measured the scope and economic impact of tourism in Calgary, mirroring the focus of many of the earlier contributions in the 1960s and 1970s covering tourism planning, development and impact measurement (e.g. An Foras Forbartha, 1966; Archer and Owen, 1971; Butler, 1974; Gunn, 1977). Other important contributions to urban tourism research during the 1980s were from Buckley and Witt (1987) (tourism in difficult areas), Law (1985) (selected British urban tourism case studies), Riley (1984) (hotels and city identities), and Smith (1985) (locations of urban restaurants). The 1980s also saw an increase in consumer-based tourism and community resident research, which at times had a focus on urban areas. For example, Haywood and Muller (1988) evaluated the city tourism experiences of visitors to Toronto, Ontario, Canada. Um and Crompton (1987) measured resident attitudes toward tourism in New Braunfels, Texas.

The 1990s was the decade when significant publishing began on city and urban tourism marketing. Most of the articles had a focus on the supply side of urban tourism and were based on specific city cases. Bramwell and Rawding (1994) examined the tourism marketing organisations in Birmingham, Bradford, Manchester, Sheffield and Stoke-on-Trent, all traditional industrial cities in England. They noted the trend toward forming public–private partnerships (PPPs) to govern city tourism marketing. The authors also highlighted the role of city destination branding in competitive differentiation. Jansen-Verbeke and van Rekom (1996) determined the motivation of visitors to museums in Rotterdam. Bramwell and Rawding (1996) contrasted the marketing images being used by Birmingham, Bradford, Manchester, Sheffield and Stoke-on-Trent. Lawton and Page (1997), who asserted that urban tourism was not adequately recognised as a concept, found that the image being promoted of Auckland, New Zealand did not match what the city really offered to visitors. Qu and Zhang (1997) analysed the marketing approaches and markets of Hong Kong as an urban tourism destination. Spotts (1997) found that urban destinations had the greatest impacts on variations in visitor spending within Michigan. Bramwell (1998) contributed an article, based on Sheffield, where he examined methods for measuring user satisfaction with city tourism products. Also noteworthy was his recommendation that cities should adopt a “place marketing framework”. Van Limburg (1998) investigated the attributes that attracted visitors to Den Bosch in the south of the Netherlands.

The new millennium signalled a major increase in article and book publishing on urban tourism and its marketing and branding. The first decade was when the concepts of place branding and destination branding became popular topics for academic authors. In particular, there was greater focus on city destination branding (Paskaleva-Shapira, 2007; Pearce, 2007; Chacko and Marcell, 2008), specific city tourism market segments (Hughes, 2003; McKercher, Okumus and Okumus, 2008), stakeholder relationships and cooperation (Sheehan, Ritchie and Hudson, 2003; Sheehan, Ritchie and Hudson, 2003).
Marketing and managing city destinations

2007), city products and attractions (Leslie and Craig, 2000; Chang and Lai, 2009; Griffin and Hayllar, 2009), and competitiveness (Asprogerakas, 2007; Paskaleva-Shapira, 2007). Hughes (2003) examined Manchester’s promotion aimed at the gay market and found it could have an undesirable effect on gay residents of the city. Paskaleva-Shapira (2007) outlined new paradigms of city tourism management as competitiveness, cultural heritage tourism, city branding, visitor perception and urban quality of life. Pearce (2007) concluded that there was further scope for Wellington, New Zealand to profit from its unique selling point as a capital city. Sheehan, Ritchie and Hudson (2007) examined the relationship among city governments, hotels and the DMO in marketing and promoting urban tourism destinations. As will be seen in the next subsection, there was also an upsurge in publishing on urban tourism research in the non-tourism journals during 2000–2009.

For 2010–2019, the volume and diversity of publishing on urban tourism continued to increase. As in the previous decade, the popular topics included branding (Wu, Funck, and Hayashi, 2014; Apostolopoulou and Papadimitriou, 2015; Roult, Adjizian, and Auger, 2016; Chigora and Hoque, 2019), competitiveness (Valls, Sureda, and Valls-Tuñon, 2014) and market segments (Irmiäs, 2012; Dai, Hein, and Zhang, 2019). Other topics covered were city attractiveness (Rogerson and Rogerson, 2017; Boivin and Tanguay, 2019), consumer behaviour (Su, Hsu, and Marshall, 2014; Caldeira and Kastenholz, 2018), economic diversification (Erkuş-Öztürk and Terhorst, 2018), future of city tourism (Postma, Buda, and Gugerell, 2017), Olympic Games legacies (Sant, Mason, and Hinch, 2013; Roult and Auger, 2016), online tourism information (Lee, Yoon, and Park, 2017), policy (Amore and Hall, 2017; Maxim, 2019), public transport (Le-Klahn and Hall, 2015), rural versus urban media coverage (Lahav, Mansfeld, and Avraham, 2013) and urbanisation (Luo et al., 2016).

Publishing on urban tourism research was an increasingly popular theme for authors in tourism journals since the 1980s. However, until the arrival of the International Journal of Tourism Cities in 2015, there was no single dedicated venue in tourism for contributions on urban tourism research and tourism cities. Having said that, several tourism journals published such content, notably Tourism Management and Annals of Tourism Research, and more recently the Journal of Destination Marketing & Management. Journals outside of tourism also accepted these works and they are now discussed with particular reference to place marketing and branding.

Non-tourism journal research stream: The foregoing literature was placed in tourism journals; however, a parallel stream developed in non-tourism journals. These include journals with a focus on urban and regional studies and planning such as Cities (since 1983), International Journal of Urban and Regional Research (since 1977), Journal of Place Management and Development (since 2008), Place Branding and Public Diplomacy (since 2007), Journal of Urban Affairs (since 1981) and Urban Studies (since 1964). The relevant articles in these journals either partly or primarily dealt with city tourism. Generally, but not exclusively, the contributions were from researchers not considered as “mainstream” tourism scholars.

Cities is a journal that has published many articles related to tourism. For example, Barker and Page (2002) reviewed visitor safety in Auckland, New Zealand. They argued that there was generally a poor understanding of perceived visitor safety during special events held in cities. Rabbiosi (2015) based upon Paris, examined how leisure shopping could be used as a city destination branding approach. She found there to be ambivalence in the city about using such a commercialised theme to brand Paris. Molinillo et al. (2019) investigated the extent of visitor engagement through popular social media platforms in Spanish smart cities. They concluded that these smart cities needed to improve their communications and branding through Facebook, Twitter and Instagram.
The *International Journal of Urban and Regional Research* (IJURR) has published several articles in urban tourism research and city destination marketing. Husbands and Thompson (1990) analysed resident attitudes in Livingstone, Zambia. They found that residents’ perceptions were affected by their social status and by educational levels attained. Hoffman (2003) considered the marketing of ethnic diversity within Harlem in New York City. She characterised tourism as being an economic development strategy for inner city ghettos combined with cultural and political objectives (p. 297). Dürr (2012) later raised the issue of slum tourism and analysed the case of Mazatlán in Mexico. She found that tours to slums had ambiguous implications, positive and negative, and did not particularly benefit those living in poverty there.

Associated with the Institute of Place Management, the *Journal of Place Management and Development* has published a significant number of city-tourism-related articles. Jackson (2008) studied residents’ perceptions of the social, economic and environmental impacts of special events in the destinations in which they lived. He determined that residents were generally supportive of special events if they contributed socially and economically to their communities. However, they were not unaware of the negative effects of certain special events. Martínez-Ruiz, Martínez-Caraballo and Amatulli (2010) conducted an analysis of luxury goods stores in Venice, Italy with a view to determining the characteristics of business success in a tourism destination. The most successful fashion retailers, by length of store operation, were Italian. They intimated that all luxury brand retailers were not taking full advantage of their location in a famous tourism destination. Duignan (2019) examined the legacies of the London Summer Olympics on small retailers in Greenwich. He found that locally based small retailers were increasingly failing due to higher commercial rents and indifference.

The *Journal of Urban Affairs* has featured several topics related to urban tourism. Boyd (2000) covered racial heritage tourism being promoted by African American neighbourhoods in the United States. She acknowledged the role of this form of tourism in redeveloping these parts of cities. Gladstone and Fanstein (2001) compared the development of tourism in Los Angeles and New York City based upon labour market effects. Turner and Rosentraub (2002) investigated the roles of centre cities in tourism, culture, sport and entertainment. Russo and Scarnato (2018) examined the development of tourism in Barcelona and the impacts of tourism growth on the city and its political regime.

*Place Branding and Public Diplomacy* has published a significant volume of city destination branding articles. Bouchon (2014) reviewed the positioning and branding of Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. He identified the challenges in Kuala Lumpur having a global city image. Lai and Ooi (2015) considered the political difficulties ensuing the designations of World Heritage listings for George Town and Melaka, Malaysia. Alonso and Bea (2012) attempted to quantify the brand images of Spanish cities on the Internet. They found that cities with high Internet visibility enjoyed considerable strength in cultural tourism.

In *Urban Studies* Gotham (2002) described the gentrification that had occurred in New Orleans, Louisiana as a result of the city’s tourism marketing and development. Using Patras, Greece as their case study, Daskalopoulou and Petrrou (2009), also in *Urban Studies*, used data envelopment analysis (DEA), to determine the tourism competitiveness of the city. Later in *Urban Studies*, Hartal (2019) explored the background to Tel Aviv’s marketing as a place for LGBT vacations.

Journals with a focus on sustainability and sustainable development also publish articles related to tourism and some of these concern urban tourism. These include *Sustainable Development, Sustainable Cities and Society* and *Sustainability*. Timur and Getz (2009) in *Sustainable Development* investigated the goals and challenges for sustainable tourism in Calgary and Victoria, Canada. Kapera (2018) in *Sustainable Cities and Society* examined the sustainable tourism development
Marketing and managing city destinations

efforts of local authorities in Poland. Aall and Koen (2019) in *Sustainability* called for broader discussion in urban sustainable tourism than just about overtourism.

Other non-tourism journals have published articles related to city tourism marketing and branding. For example, Ashworth and Voogd (1988) had an article on city marketing in *The Town Planning Review*. Biagi and Detotto (2014) wrote on crime as a tourism externality in *Regional Studies*. This chapter’s reference list further demonstrates that scholarly article publishing on urban tourism and city destination marketing is scattered over many journals, within and outside of tourism.

This is just a small sampling of tourism-related articles in these non-tourism journals. However, it is obvious from the foregoing that there is a rich history of publishing on city tourism in non-tourism journals. Although not all contributed by tourism scholars, these articles offer many valuable perspectives for the marketing and branding of urban areas. Some are critical of tourism’s impacts on cities and, therefore, contribute to a more balanced view of the phenomenon. Moreover, these articles and their contents indicate that it is insufficient to only consult the tourism journals when analysing these topics in the literature.

**Review articles on urban tourism:** In addition to the specific literature from these two streams on city destination marketing and management, there have been several important review articles on city tourism that include related content. The most cited work among these is Ashworth and Page (2011), which identified 12 sub-themes of urban tourism research. Marketing and place imagery represented one of the sub-themes. The authors noted an increased focus on city tourism marketing including greater attention being given to branding. Pearce (2001) proposed an integrative framework for urban tourism research with one of the eight themes being marketing. Selby (2004) noted that the recent research on urban tourism had improved the understanding of city marketing and management. However, he recommended a tentative research agenda for furthering urban tourism knowledge. Edwards, Griffin, and Hayllar (2008), based on research conducted in Australia, developed a somewhat broader agenda for urban tourism research. Once again, city destination marketing emerged as a significant topic and issue. Dupré (2019) conducted a 25-year review (1991–2016) of the literature to identify trends and gaps in the research on urban development and tourism. Importantly, she found a lack of adequate synergy between urban development and tourism in relation to place-making.

Together, these review articles delivered several important messages. First, they suggested that urban tourism had not yet received the recognition it deserved. Second, the review articles recommended that a multidisciplinary perspective for research was required for urban tourism. Third, they outlined schemes for comprehensively researching the urban tourism phenomenon.

Having examined the two main streams of the academic literature and then useful review articles, several predominant research themes in urban tourism marketing and markets are now reviewed. Due to space limitations, the following does not represent a complete coverage of all the literature themes associated with city destination marketing and management.

**Destination and place marketing and branding**

Particularly in the new millennium, many articles were published on destination and place branding with respect to cities. Previously, the cases of Paris (Rabbiosi, 2015), Kuala Lumpur (Bouchon, 2014), George Town and Melaka (Lai and Ooi, 2015) and Spanish cities (Alonso and Bea, 2012) were mentioned. Other examples are Balakrishnan (2008) who reviewed Dubai’s success as a case study in destination branding; Uysal (2013) analysed the role of religion in the branding of Istanbul; Bellini and Pasquinelli (2016) investigated how Florence’s fashion
companies influenced its destination branding. Noteworthy here is that all these contributions were in non-tourism journals and fuelled by the greater emphasis on place marketing and branding in the past 20 years.

Although the tourism literature has tended to have a greater focus on the branding of countries, states and provinces, there have been many articles and books with a focus on city destination branding. For example, Heath and Kruger (2010) contributed a chapter on the branding of Tshwane (Pretoria), South Africa in the book, *City Tourism: National Capital Perspectives*. Sahin and Baloglu (2014) used a city brand advocacy model in determining the effects of word-of-mouth generation in various trip-purpose segments. Kavaratzis (2017) advocated a participative place branding process including the views of residents. Roult, Adjizian and Auger (2016) examined the recognition of Montréal’s Olympic Park and its stadium among international visitors to the city. Apostolopoulou and Papadimitriou (2015), using Patras, Greece as a case example, investigated the influence of destination personality on the behaviour of tourists. Once again, these represent only a small sample of the city destination branding articles in the tourism literature; however, they indicate the recent growing interest in the topic and the types of research studies that are being conducted.

Hankinson (2010) discussed the growth of published research on place branding. However, he argued that it had made no reference to the development of mainstream branding research, nor did it adequately reflect the views of practitioners. Gertner (2011) reviewed 212 articles on place marketing and place branding published from 1990 to 2009. He is highly critical of the rigour of the research in this body of literature.

### Markets and types of tourism

Scholars have produced significant amounts of journal articles and books related to specific markets for cities and types of tourism within urban areas. Within this *Routledge Handbook of Tourism Cities*, there are several related articles including ones on business tourism (Davidson), events (Gorchakova and Antchak), cultural and heritage tourism (Boyd), visiting friends and relatives (VFR) (Backer), dark tourism (Lennon), geotourism (Richards, Simpson, and Newsome), bird watching (Simpson and Newsome), walking tourism (Morris), families (Lehto, Chen, and Le) and Millennials (Kim). As these markets for and types of city tourism are so numerous, only a small slice of the literature is presented here on: (1) history, heritage, culture and creativity; (2) events and festivals; (3) business tourism and events; (4) sport; (5) shopping, entertainment and dining; (6) built contemporary leisure attractions; (7) architecture; and (8) ethnicity, diasporas and VFR.

**History, heritage, culture and creativity:** With respect to types of tourism, history, heritage and culture have attracted great attention in the literature. Jansen-Verbeke and van Rekom (1996) studied the motivations of museum visitors in cities in the Netherlands, while recognising that museums were an effective way of attracting visitors for urban tourism (p. 373). Ashworth and Tunbridge (2000) published the book, *The Tourist-Historic City*, and highlighted the expanding role of heritage and cultural products in city tourism. Later, Richards and Palmer (2010) authored the book, *Eventful Cities: Cultural Management and Urban Revitalization*, which reviews the development of culture, events and creativity in enhancing the attractiveness of city destinations. The fusion of history, heritage and culture with creativity is becoming a major drawing card for many cities and their tourism sectors. There are numerous examples of cultural and arts districts dotted around the world, including the Distillery District in Toronto, Bangkok River, 798 Art District in Beijing, Pier 2 in Kaohsiung (Taiwan), Dublin’s Creative Quarter in Ireland and Westergasfabriek in Amsterdam. Roberts (2001, p. 12) noted that the creative industries were
increasingly being used as the foundation for urban cultural development. Other authors considered the roles of the creative industries in specific destinations (Rogerson, 2006) and the interactions between tourism and the creative industries (Long and Morpeth, 2016; Long, 2017). Richards (2011) argued that traditional cultural tourism was transforming and shifting from tangible to intangible heritage along with greater involvement with the everyday life of cities.

**Events and festivals:** There is a substantial literature on events in tourism and academic journals devoted to this topic. Getz (2008, p. 403) said that events are “important motivators of tourism” and proposed a typology of planned events that includes cultural celebrations, political and state, arts and entertainment, business and trade, educational and scientific, sport competition, recreational and private events. Cities are hubs for all these categories of events and celebrations and a main reason for urban vibrancy. Business and trade events (often referred to as the MICE markets) are a significant source of tourism for major cities, as just discussed, as well as a key focus for city destination marketing and branding. Sport competition events are also of great significance to urban tourism and sport “mega events” in cities have attracted attention from many scholars (e.g. Gursoy and Kendall, 2006; Preuss, 2007).

Festivals also play a significant role in city tourism worldwide. In Getz’s taxonomy (2008) these include cultural celebrations and arts and entertainment. O’Sullivan and Jackson (2002) investigated the contribution of festivals to sustainable local economic development using three case studies from Wales. They found that the opportunities to enhance sustainability were not being fully capitalised upon. Gotham (2005a) examined festivals in New Orleans and found that their effects were not all positive. Quinn (2006) analysed two arts festivals in Wexford and Galway, Ireland and found that tourism had a strong influence on their growth.

**Business tourism and events:** Business tourism and events are exceptionally important to most cities in terms of volume and economic impacts. However, as Davidson remarks in this handbook, this type of city tourism has received scant attention compared with leisure tourism. The author concurs with this viewpoint and from personal experience with city DMOs in North America observes that they tend to place greater emphasis on business tourism in their sales and marketing. This contradiction is another indication of the wide chasm between academia and practice, and it is also not surprising that leisure tourism-oriented journals achieve high metrics on SSCI and SCImago, while meeting and event journals struggle to achieve even modest ratings.

Draper, Thomas and Fenich (2018), in a review article of event management research, highlight an upsurge in publishing on the topic beginning in the 1990s. They classified events into two main categories, business and leisure. Business events are organised by associations, companies and governments for educating, motivating, selling and/or networking with their employees, members and/or customers to attain business goals (Fenich, 2012).

Incentive travel also generates events for urban areas. However, it is one aspect of business tourism that has not attracted as much scholarly attention as from other authors, despite a flurry of academic articles in the early 1990s (e.g. Ricci and Holland, 1992; Sheldon, 1995; Shinew and Backman, 1995). Mair (2005) argued that there was not enough research about why travel was such a powerful motivator. However, Fenich, Vitiello, Lancaster and Hashimoto (2015) concluded that companies have been using incentive travel effectively to motivate employees toward higher sales.

**Sport:** Sport competition events have a significant influence on urban tourism. Cities are important venues for professional and amateur sport, and for hosting sport events. Gibson (1998) in a review of the sport tourism literature to date noted that cities were increasingly using sport events to attract tourists. Kurtzman (2005) concluded that sport tourism has a very high economic
value throughout the world. Most of the largest sport installations are in urban areas. Gratton, Shibli and Coleman (2005) investigated UK city investment in sporting infrastructure as a strategy for economic regeneration in former industrial urban areas. They noted that sport events were increasingly being used to raise city profiles and enhance their images. Another research focus with sport tourism is on city resident support for its development. For example, Hritz and Ross (2010) surveyed Indianapolis residents and found that social and economic benefits were predictors of support for future sport tourism development.

**Shopping, entertainment and dining:** Shopping, entertainment and dining in all formats are hallmarks of city tourism. Their clustering within urban areas is a magnet for local residents and out-of-town visitors. Timothy (2005) and Tosun et al. (2007) highlight the importance of shopping to travel and tourism, and cities as the main “shopping hubs” of countries are the principal beneficiaries.

Cities are at the heart of the experience economy (Richards, 2001). Lorentzen (2009, p. 833) identified the creative branches generating experiences in cities as tourism, fashion, visual arts, radio/television, publishing firms, toys/entertainment, sports, architecture, design, film/video, advertising, edutainment, events, computer games and cultural institutions.

Cities are great places for dining. Franck (2005) characterises urban areas as dining rooms, markets and farms for residents and visitors. Du Rand and Heath (2006), rather surprisingly, found that food was not being featured significantly in destination marketing in South Africa and globally. McKercher, Okumus and Okumus (2008) concluded that food consumption was an “ubiquitous activity” for most visitors and not a special interest phenomenon. In contrast to du Rand and Heath, Henderson (2009), who published a literature review on food tourism, found that it was a common theme in destination and business marketing.

Culinary and gastronomic tourism are other terms found in the literature related to food tourism. Ignatov and Smith (2006, p. 238) defined culinary tourism as “tourism trips during which the purchase or consumption of regional foods (including beverages), or the observation and study of food production (from agriculture to cooking schools) represent a significant motivation or activity”. Gastronomic experiences, according to Quan and Wang (2004, p. 302) can be one of the major motivations for travel. Kivela and Crotts (2006) found that gastronomy plays a major role in the way that tourists experience destinations.

The performing arts are a sub-set of culture and cultural tourism, as well as often being associated with festivals. However, they are a key part of city entertainment and the night-time economy (Lovatt and O’Connor, 1995) in many urban areas. Some cities like New York and London are famous for their theatre districts, others for their music including Nashville, New Orleans and Memphis. There is some research linking tourism and the performing arts (e.g. Barbieri and Mahoney, 2010; Lim and Bendle, 2012); however, it seems to be a fertile theme for more analysis. Bars and nightclubs are found in most cities as well and they have attracted some attention because of drunkenness and associated social problems (e.g. Roberts, 2006).

Casinos are significant tourism magnets for several cities including Macau, Las Vegas, Singapore, Incheon and Manila. There has been a significant amount of research on casino tourism and gaming, with much attention being given to resident reactions to the phenomenon. Other scholars have focused their attention of the development and impacts of tourism on specific cities, including Atlantic City (e.g. Braunlich, 1996), Detroit (Wiley and Walker, 2011), Incheon, Korea (e.g. Choi et al., 2019), Las Vegas (e.g. Ritzer and Stillman, 2001), Macau (e.g. Loi and Kim, 2010) and Singapore (e.g. Wu and Chen, 2015).

**Built contemporary leisure attractions:** Large urban and metropolitan areas are popular locations for a variety of leisure and entertainment attractions, including theme parks (Bigne, Andreu, and Gnoth, 2005; Milman, 2009), family recreation centres and water parks (Jin, Lee, and Lee,
Marketing and managing city destinations

2015), museums (Plaza, 2006; Silberberg, 1995), science centres (Lipardi, 2013), aquaria (Bal-
lantyne et al., 2007; Cater, 2010), zoos (Mason, 2000; Frost, 2011), performing arts centres 
(Hale and MacDonald, 2005; Quinn, 1967), botanic gardens (Balantyne, Packer, and Hughes, 
2008; Henderson, 2014) and others. The significant local and regional populations are the main 
economic justification for selecting these sites, while out-of-town tourism may also contribute 
substantially.

Architecture: Cities are known for having stunning architecture that adds to their attractiveness 
and memorability. There are of course many styles of architecture ranging from the ancient to 
ultra-modern. Some of the cities known for older architecture are Athens (Greece), Budapest 
(Hungary), Florence (Italy), Istanbul (Turkey), Oxford (England), Paris (France), Rome (Italy) 
and St. Petersburg (Russia). Modern or contemporary architecture is well represented in cities 
such as Barcelona (Spain), Brasilia (Brazil), Columbus (Indiana, USA), Dubai (UAE), Shanghai 
(China) (from Condé Nast Traveler (2017) and Travel Channel (2019) ratings of cities).

Specht (2014) published the book, Architectural Tourism: Building for Urban Travel Destinations, 
signalling this to be a special form of tourism. He argued that architecture plays a critical role in 
every area of tourism (p. 2), including offering numerous venues for leisure activities. Lasansky 
and Place, in which they noted the “reciprocal relationship between the modern practice of 
tourism and the built environment” (p. 1). Both sets of authors cite the Guggenheim Museum 
Bilbao (Spain) as a success story in how postmodern architecture positively influenced tourism 
to a city, as is the Sydney Opera House. In fact, there are so many iconic historic and modern 
structures that are associated with cities and their tourism including the Eiffel Tower (Paris), 
Statue of Liberty (New York), London Eye, Atomium (Brussels), Taj Mahal (Agra, India), 
Great Wall (China), Voortrekker Monument (Pretoria, South Africa) and Burj Al Arab Hotel 
(Dubai) to name just a few.

Ethnicity, diasporas and VFR: People from specific ethnic groups and national origins have 
tended to cluster in certain parts of cities. These clusters, many as a product of immigration, 
have in many instances become attractions for visitors as well as leisure places for residents. Jan 
Geographies on Leisure, Tourism and Mobilities) that included chapters on New Orleans, New 
York, Miami, Lisbon and Boston discussing these neighbourhoods’ roles in tourism. The Greek-
towns in Detroit, Michigan and Toronto, Ontario and Chicago’s Polish Downtown are great 
examples, as are the Chinatowns in many major cities.

Developing and marketing these urban areas is not without particular challenges and prob-
lems. For example, Conforti (1996) using Little Italy as a case example identified issues with 
using ethnic ghettos as tourist attractions and as an element of city tourism marketing and brand-
ing. He pointed out that historically these were places of oppression and restrictions, and that 
their residents were victims of derogatory stereotypes.

Another aspect of immigration that influences city tourism might be called the diaspora 
effect, where substantial communities of people originating from other countries live and work 
in particular urban areas (Bruner, 1996; Scheyvens, 2007). These immigrant communities often 
become magnets for inbound VFR travel from the origin countries. For example, several cities 
in the GCC (Gulf Cooperation Council) have significant numbers of immigrants and immigrant 
workers from South Asia and benefit from many family and friend visits from Bangladesh, India, 
Pakistan and Sri Lanka.
**Smart tourism in cities**

According to Lopez de Avila (2015, n.p.), a smart destination is an innovative tourist destination, built on an infrastructure of state-of-the-art technology guaranteeing the sustainable development of tourist areas, accessible to everyone, which facilitates the visitor’s interaction with and integration into his or her surroundings, increases the quality of the experience at the destination, and improves residents’ quality of life.

Information communication technologies and big data are often quoted as being at the heart of smart destinations and cities (Buhalis and Amaranggana, 2013; Gretzel et al., 2015; Boes, Buhalis, and Inversini, 2016; Gretzel, Zhong, and Koo, 2016).

**Cities as transportation hubs**

Many cities are important transportation hubs which tends to enhance their significance in tourism. Their strategic locations are the reason for airlines, high-speed railway systems, cruise ships and ferry companies, and other transport providers to choose them as hubs. Some of the cities known for being excellent and multi-modal hubs are Amsterdam, Dubai, Miami, Shanghai and Singapore.

Surprisingly, there is not a substantial body of literature linking transportation and tourism. However, the extant studies show strong synergies between the two. For example, as early as in 1985, Mescon and Vozikis explored the significant economic impact of cruise tourism on Miami and Dade County. Later, Lohmann, Albers, Koch and Pavlovich (2009) analysed how Dubai and Singapore, with coordinated efforts from the airlines, airports and DMOs, used their air hub status to become more viable tourism destinations. Pagliara, La Pietra, Gomez and Vassallo (2015) examined the impact of the high-speed rail system on tourism to Madrid, Spain. Tang, Weaver and Lawton (2017), with Singapore Changi Airport as their focus, investigated whether airport users could be convinced to return as stayover visitors in the city. All of these studies highlighted the significant impact of transport hubbing on city tourism; however, this is an area of research that requires more attention in the future.

**Negative aspects of city tourism development and marketing**

There have been many articles and books that have criticised tourism due to its negative impacts on urban areas. As noted earlier, the non-tourism journal stream tends to have significant negative assessments of city tourism. Some of the issues of concern include overtourism (Ali, 2018; Séraphin, Sheeran, and Pilato, 2018; Pinke-Sziva, Smith, Olt, and Berezvai, 2019), sustainability (Hinch, 1996; Timur and Getz, 2009), globalisation (Gotham, 2005b; Dupré, 2019), urbanisation (Mullins, 1991); gentrification (Gotham, 2002; Gravari-Barbas and Guinand, 2017) and touristification (Freytag and Bauder, 2018), terrorism (Coca-Stefaniak and Morrison, 2018) and slum tourism (Meschkank, 2011; Dürr, 2012; Frenzel and Koens, 2012), most of which are discussed in other chapters in the *Routledge Handbook of Tourism Cities*.

Criticisms of public investment in sport facilities and convention and exhibition centres reflect another negative view on certain aspects of city tourism (Whitson and MacIntosh, 1996; Laslo and Judd, 2005; Long, 2005; Sanders, 2014; Tomlinson, 2014).
(1996) argued that large events create significant benefits for tourism and the construction sector; however, the public sector costs are often understated.

Another aspect of criticism on tourism in cities has a focus mainly on the night-time activities of certain tourists. These include the negative impacts of noise (Zaeimdar and Bahmanpour, 2014; Rouleau, 2017), and crime, drunkenness and stag tourism (Vesey and Dimanche, 2003; Thurnell-Read, 2011, 2012; Biagi and Detotto, 2014).

**Management issues**

The research literature suggests that cities face other issues and challenges in marketing and managing tourism. Governance is one of these issues and fundamentally involves the choice of which body should assume the responsibility for tourism and its marketing and management. Schmallegger and Carson (2010), for example, highlight the limitations of strong government “patronage” of tourism for Darwin in the Northern Territory of Australia.

Cities are the beneficiaries of historical urban planning (Shoval, 2018) as well as being the inheritors of newer urban planning strategies (Maxim, 2019). While city tourists may be unaware of the fruits and follies of urban planning, they undoubtedly interact with many of its facilities and services, whether these be modern rapid urban transport systems, cultural performance venues or historical monuments.

The advances of the sharing economy have had a profound influence on cities and urban tourism as well. “Living like a local” has become an important aspect of staying in peer-to-peer accommodations such as Airbnb (Paulauskaite et al., 2017; Stone, 2018).

This brief review of the literature demonstrates a growing academic interest in urban tourism research and city tourism marketing and branding. Not all of these commentaries have portrayed tourism in a positive light and underline the need for city destination management, and that it is not just sufficient to focus on urban economic development through city destination marketing and branding. Now, the third part of the chapter provides a historical background on destination marketing and management. The progression in actual practice from destination marketing to a fuller scope of destination management is noteworthy in this discourse.

**A short history of destination marketing and management**

The brief review of the academic literature reflected that scholars began to show greater interest in urban tourism research and city tourism marketing in the 1980s and 1990s. Destination marketing has been discussed as a concept for more than 30 years. The pioneering book in English on destination marketing was published in 1988 by Richard Gartrell, *Destination Marketing for Convention and Visitor Bureaus*, and it was released under the banner of the International Association of Convention & Visitor Bureaus (IACVB) (now Destinations International). It is noteworthy that Ashworth and Voogd (1990) published their book, *Selling the City: Marketing Approaches in Public Sector Urban Planning*, just two years later. After that, Eric Laws published a text with the title of *Tourist Destination Management: Issues, Analysis and Policies* (Routledge) in 1995. The introduction of the Certified Destination Management Executive (CDME) programme in 1992 by the then IACVB was a watershed for the field of destination marketing and management. It recognised that destination marketing and management were not just topics; they more importantly represented a profession. Core and elective classes were offered, and the participants were senior DMO executives and managers, mainly from city destinations.

Later in 2004, Destinations International established a Performance Measurement Team to begin the process of identifying DMO performance measurement benchmarks. A *Handbook of measures*

The Destination Marketing Accreditation Program (DMAP) was another breakthrough on the professional side of destination marketing. Unlike the CDME programme, DMAP focuses on DMOs as organisations rather than on individual DMO professionals. DMAP was especially important in identifying 16 “domains” for measuring the performance of a DMO (governance; finance; human resources; technology; marketing; visitor services; group services; sales; communications; membership; management and facilities; brand management; destination development; research/marketing intelligence; innovation; and stakeholder relationships).

During the first two decades of the new millennium, there was a surge in published books, academic articles and practice-oriented manuscripts on destination marketing and management. One of the most influential of the new books was Destination Branding (2004) by Nigel Morgan, Annette Pritchard and Roger Pride. This new publication seemed to spur many academic researchers into doing research, writing articles and arranging conferences around the topic of destination branding. It should be recognised that many tourism scholars beginning in the early 1970s were producing valuable research contributions on destination image and its measurement. This research undoubtedly provided a valuable platform for what was to come later about destination branding and positioning.

Another benchmark was UNWTO’s A Practical Guide to Destination Management published in 2008. Prepared for UNWTO by TEAM Tourism Consulting of the UK, this was the first practical guide on all aspects of destination management. UNWTO and the European Travel Commission (ETC) later co-sponsored two additional practical guides: Handbook on Tourism Destination Branding (2009, prepared by Tom Buncle) and Handbook on Tourism Product Development (2011, prepared by Tourism Development International).

Several related books from academic authors have been added in recent years. These have included two books by Stephen Pike: Destination Marketing Organisations: Bridging Theory and Practice (Elsevier Science, 2005) and Destination Marketing: An Integrated Communication Approach (Butterworth-Heinemann, 2008). Two other books were published in 2011: Destination Marketing and Management: Theories and Applications by Youcheng Wang and Abraham Pizam (CABI) and Managing and Marketing Tourist Destinations: Strategies to Gain a Competitive Edge by Metin Kozak and Seyhmus Baloglu (Taylor & Francis). All four of these books were welcome additions to the scholarship on destination marketing and management and offered a variety of different perspectives on the topics.

There has been an evolution within cities from sales and selling convention capacity to employing a broader range of promotional techniques, and from there to destination marketing that in part includes urban tourism product development. That journey has continued to the present day, in which city destination management is the focus and where there is a concern for sustainable tourism development. Having discussed this transformation, the chapter now reviews the best approaches to city destination marketing and management.

Best processes and practices in city destination marketing and management

It is obvious from the foregoing that city destination marketing has matured during recent decades and that it remains an important role within the broader concept of destination management. Useful guidelines for destination marketing and management have been produced by
trade associations, inter-governmental organisations and NGOs, consultants, authors of books and others.

**Roles of city destination management**

Destination marketing is just one of several components of destination management. Morrison (2019) identifies the other roles of destination management as community relationships and involvement, leadership and coordination, partnerships and team-building, planning and research, product development and visitor management (Figure 9.1).

Although historically, the marketing and promotion role was the primary and most important one, it now represents just one of several in city destination management. A short description of all these roles follows:

- **Leadership and coordination**: Setting the agenda for tourism and coordinating all stakeholders’ efforts toward achieving that agenda.
- **Partnership and team-building**: Fostering cooperation among government agencies and within the private sector and building partnership teams to attain the destination vision and specific goals and objectives.
- **Community relationships and involvement**: Involving local community leaders and residents in tourism and monitoring resident attitudes towards tourism.
- **Visitor management**: Managing the flows, impacts and behaviours of visitors to protect resources and to enhance visitor safety, experiences and satisfaction.
- **Planning and research**: Conducting the essential planning and research needed to attain the destination vision and goals.
- **Product development**: Planning and ensuring the appropriate development of physical products and services for the destination.

*Figure 9.1 The destination management roles in city tourism.*
Marketing and promotion: Creating the destination positioning and branding, selecting the most appropriate markets and promoting the destination.

Within city destination marketing, there are specific processes that require significant attention: (1) marketing planning process; (2) marketing strategy; (3) brand development; (4) marketing plan development; and (5) performance evaluation. Before discussing these, the success factors for city tourism destinations must be discussed.

City destination success factors

The 10 As Framework: The 10 As Framework was first introduced by Professor Alastair M. Morrison of Purdue University when working on the team to develop the Tourism Master Plan for the city of Hangzhou in Zhejiang Province, PR China in 2003–2004. It has since been in continuous use within international tourism policy and planning exercises in several countries and was first published by Morrison in Marketing and Managing Tourism Destinations by Routledge in 2013 and subsequently updated in the 2nd edition of this book in 2019. Prior to its application in tourism policy and planning, the 10 As Framework was validated by DMO leaders in the Certified Destination Management Executive (CDME) programme, offered by Destinations International from the early 1990s.

The main purpose of the 10 As Framework is to provide criteria for policy, planning, management and marketing leading to successful destinations. It is a parsimonious typological process model that focuses a destination’s attention on critical aspects ranging from awareness and accessibility to action and accountability.

Determining the success of city tourism destinations: How can it be determined if a city tourism destination is successful or not? If the destination is judged to be successful, can the DMO take the sole credit for this great achievement? These are hugely difficult questions to answer but nevertheless they should be tackled.

• Quantity or quality? One answer to the first question is that the successful destinations are the ones with the most tourists. So, you will often see the “world’s top destinations” identified as the ones with the most tourist arrivals according to UNWTO. These would include countries such as France, USA, China, Spain, Italy and the UK. However, many will argue that this is a choice of “quantity” over “quality” and that smaller destinations are not necessarily inferior because they have fewer visitors. Additionally, these are countries and there are many more destinations and DMOs below the country level.

• Can we believe the rating schemes? Some travel magazines and guidebooks publish “top destination” lists each year. There are many of these “top destination” lists but it is interesting to note that not many destinations appear twice on these. But more importantly no specific and detailed criteria are given for the selections. Some of the ratings are done by editors and journalists and others by consumers.

• What about other destination rating systems? The World Centre of Excellence for Destinations (CED), located in Montréal, Canada, developed the System of Measures for Excellence in Destinations (SMED). Established in 2007, CED has evaluated several destinations around the world with SMED. A panel of SMED experts visits and assesses each destination that applies, and the destination pays a fee for this service. The destinations that have been evaluated successfully include Abitibi-Témiscamingue (Canada), Andorra, Cantons de L’Est (Canada), Chengdu (China), Crete (Greece), Douro Valley (Portugal), Jeddah (Saudi Arabia), Madeira (Portugal), Mexico City, Montréal (Canada), Riviera Maya (Mexico),
Samos (Greece) and Tela (Honduras). This system was a breakthrough for destination management and was created with the support of UNWTO. However, the criteria for approval of destinations under SMED have not been made public.

• **Description of the 10 As Framework:** The 10 As Framework outlines a set of attributes for judging the success of tourism destinations. Each of these ten attributes begins with the letter “A” (Figure 9.2).

The following is a short explanation of each of the ten A attributes:

• **Awareness:** This attribute is related to tourists’ level of knowledge about the city destination and is influenced by the amount and nature of the information they receive. The main question to be asked here is: *Is there a high level of awareness of the city among potential tourists?*

• **Attractiveness:** The number and geographic scope of appeal of the city destination’s attractions comprise this attribute. The main question is: *Does the city offer a diversity of attractions that are appealing to tourists?*

• **Availability:** This attribute is determined by the ease with which bookings and reservations can be made for the city destination, and the number of booking and reservation channels available. The main question is: *Can bookings and reservations for the city be made through a variety of distribution channels?*

• **Access:** The convenience of getting to and from the city destination, as well as moving around within the destination, constitutes this attribute. The main questions are: *Is there convenient access to and from the destination by all modes of transportation? Is there convenient transportation within the destination?*

• **Appearance:** This attribute measures the impressions that the city destination makes on tourists, both when they first arrive and then throughout their stays in the city. The main questions are: *Does the city make a good first impression? Does the city make a positive and lasting impression?*

![Figure 9.2 The ten As of successful city tourism destinations.](image-url)
• **Activities:** The extent of the array of activities and experiences available to tourists within the city destination is the determinant of this attribute. The main questions are: *Does the city offer a wide range of activities and experiences in which tourists want to engage? Does the city offer authentic experiences that are of interest to tourists?*

• **Assurance:** This attribute relates to the safety and security of the city destination for tourists. The main question is: *Is the city clean, safe and secure?*

• **Appreciation:** The feeling of the levels of welcome and hospitality contribute to this attribute. The main question is: *Do tourists feel welcome and receive good service in the city?*

• **Action:** The availability of a long-term tourism plan and a marketing plan for tourism are some of the required actions. The main questions are: *Have appropriate tourism policies been developed? Is the tourism development and marketing in the city well planned?*

• **Accountability:** This attribute is about the evaluation of performance by the city DMO. The main question is: *Is the DMO measuring the effectiveness of its performance?*

These ten attributes can be useful for all city destinations, but they need to be expressed in greater detail than that shown above. Additionally, there are other criteria that could be added to this list of ten. For example, the economic contributions of tourism to the city might also be included, as well as the degree to which the city is following a sustainable tourism agenda.

**Marketing planning process**

While academics dissect urban tourism in seemingly unending ways, it is left to city practitioners to accomplish marketing in the most professional fashion possible. Undoubtedly, most of them have never read many of the previously cited articles or books, however they do their level best to use the right marketing processes and practices. While academics are trying harder now to have meaningful impact on the practice of tourism, the chasm between university research writing and industry implementation remains very great. Industry associations for city tourism marketing practitioners likewise have achieved much on professionalising destination marketing and management for cities.

All cities must plan their tourism marketing. This planning consists of long-term (strategic) and short-term (tactical) time periods. For city tourism marketing, the strategic time period is three to five up to ten years into the future, while the tactical time period is one to two years ahead. A core part of the marketing planning process is a time-ordered hierarchy of vision, marketing goals and objectives. Figure 9.3 shows this hierarchy including the destination vision, DMO vision, marketing goals and objectives, and a description of these four follows.

• **Destination vision:** This is a super-long-term goal for tourism in the city. It is expressed as a future “picture in words” or a verbal, aspirational image of the city.

• **DMO vision:** The future desired status and characteristics of the DMO that support the attainment of the destination vision.

• **Marketing goals:** Long-term (three to five years) measurable results for city tourism marketing to be achieved.

• **Marketing objectives:** Short-term (one to three years) measurable results for city tourism marketing to be achieved.

Reaching these goals and objectives requires answering the five questions shown in Figure 9.3 and using the processes that go along with each of them, beginning with an environmental scan and situation analysis for “Where are we now?” The main outcome of this stage is the definition of the city’s unique selling propositions (USPs) for tourism.
Marketing and managing city destinations

Marketing strategy process

Addressing the “Where would we like to be?” question constitutes the marketing strategy process. Basically, a marketing strategy is a combination of the city’s targeted tourism markets and its chosen approach to positioning, image and branding (Figure 9.4).

Figure 9.3 City destination marketing planning process.

Figure 9.4 City positioning, image and branding.
Brand development process

Earlier in the chapter, the academic literature on destination and place branding was reviewed and it was pointed out that the brand development for city tourism was getting greater attention. There are four parts in the brand development process for city tourism. Figure 9.5 shows the first part of destination branding as the situation analysis (destination, competitive, market, destination image, resident and past marketing). The destination image analysis determines the existing perceptions of the destination among past and potential tourists.

The second part is where input is gathered from tourism sector stakeholders and residents about the image and positioning of the city. In particular, they should express what they see as being the most unique features of the city. This input feeds into the third part of the brand development process, where the city’s tourism unique selling propositions (USPs) are identified. These USPs are crucial to city destination branding, as they spell out what is different in the city in comparison with competitors.

The fourth part is where the city tourism branding is designed, implemented and evaluated, which is accomplished in six sequential steps as shown in Figure 9.5.

- **Brand strategy development**: Defining the branding objectives, brand positioning and target markets.
- **Brand identity development**: Designing a creative approach that normally will include a new logo, colour scheme and other visual image guidelines, slogan, musical score and other elements.
- **Brand launch and introduction**: Revealing the new city tourism brand to the public for the first time, usually at some sort of special event. For the brand introduction, a variety of materials (e.g. a brand manual) are prepared for the use of the brand by the city DMO and by tourism sector stakeholders
- **Brand implementation**: Embedding the brand within the city such that it appears in every communication and interaction with tourists. This also includes delivering on the brand promise.

![City destination brand development process](image-url)
Marketing and managing city destinations

• **Brand monitoring and maintenance**: Tracking implementation of the city tourism brand and assessing the progress towards achieving the branding objectives. Tweaking and refreshing the brand are steps that can occur in brand maintenance.

• **Brand evaluation**: Determining the effectiveness of the brand and its implementation in reaching its objectives.

**Marketing plan and implementation**

Every city should regularly develop a marketing plan for tourism. This plan is a written document that details what will be done to accomplish the marketing objectives. An executive summary, marketing plan rationale and implementation plan are the three parts of the marketing plan.

• **Executive summary**: A brief summary of the key highlights and major initiatives outlined in the plan.

• **Rationale**: The reasons and assumptions behind the choices of city marketing activities.

• **Implementation plan**: The marketing objectives, activities and programmes, marketing budget, timetable, assignment of responsibilities and evaluation procedures and measures.

**Performance evaluation process**

All good city marketing will be for naught if it is not evaluated against the goals and objectives. This evaluation is accomplished in two stages, monitoring progress and measuring performance. The monitoring of progress takes place when implementing the marketing plan; the performance measurement when the plan is completed. City DMOs must demonstrate their marketing effectiveness and performance, as this indicates accountability for the funds invested in city marketing.

**Summary**

Cities play a vital role in tourism worldwide. Deservedly, urban destination marketing and management are receiving higher priorities in practice as well as in the academic literature. Although city promotion has historically been a core focus for tourism in urban areas, the remit has significantly broadened into city destination management. It is now recognised that there is more to city tourism than just marketing and promotion and that all three concerns of the triple-bottom-line of sustainability (economic, social-cultural and environmental) must be considered. The coining of overtourism in 2016 (Ali, 2018) has put city tourism under a media and public microscope, questioning the wisdom of too much economic reliance and marketing of urban tourism.

Figure 9.6 is a summary diagram of the three main parts of this chapter. This discourse has highlighted the research on city tourism marketing, branding and product development. These are aspects of tourism that are attracting more attention; however, there is much more scope for future research.

City destination marketing and management would gain greater attention and recognition if its various stakeholders and research strands coalesced. There is a chasm between academics and practitioners and even within academia various parties are not coordinating and integrating their efforts. There are multiple agendas for future academic research as well as self-criticism of the quality of research being done on urban tourism.
References


A.M. Morrison


Marketing and managing city destinations


