A FUNCTIONAL APPROACH TOWARDS CITY BRAND COMMUNICATION

The case of Rotterdam

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ABSTRACT

Establishing a city as a brand increased in popularity and practice over the past decade(s) (Braun, 2012; Zenker, 2011). Similar movements are observable in literature, witnessing the increasing number of academic publications on the topic (e.g. see for an overview Lucarelli & Berg, 2011). Possible effects of different styles of advertisements on the development of psychological and physical bonds with a place have been rarely empirically tested though. Better understanding of communication exerted by cities in a marketing and branding context is therefore required. Within the scope of effects and message persuasiveness, a theoretical angle not yet examined till date, is the functional approach towards attitudes and attitude change, as proposed originally by Katz (1960) and Kelman (1961). This, despite classical papers on attitude were primarily concerned with in and out-group situations. As cities are concerned with residents and non-residents encountering their brand messages, further research on this matter seems interesting. The current paper expands research on city brand communication by empirically testing the effects and persuasiveness of different advertisements and linking them to functional attitude theories. It combines theories from the field of environmental psychology, city branding and attitude functions, to predict and clarify the impact promotional messages have on internal and external stakeholders. To test whether residents and non-residents responded differently to the previously described promotional messages, a survey was sent out by email and through social media. Residents and non-residents were randomly assigned to full paged, color print advertisements, communicating promotional messages in either a utilitarian or value-expressive manner. Thereafter, a questionnaire on their perception of the city of Rotterdam was conducted. The current findings suggest that different framing of the messages can result in differences in effectiveness. The paper thereby provides moderate support for connecting attitude functions to the context of city branding. It shows in an empirical manner, that previous findings on internal and external groups in advertising may also apply to city branding and advertising.

1. Introduction

Our globalizing environment enables us to exchange information with individuals all over the world. Distances and borders tend to faint, as mobility is higher than ever. Although offering a rich variety of opportunities, such global forces also put countries and cities in a whole new competitive spectrum. While touristic destinations have to compete on a more global level, regions may even more so battle for companies, investors, new citizens and a qualified workforce (Hospers, 2003; Kavaritz, 2005; Zenker, 2009). Over the past decades, cities and countries increasingly started to use a variety of marketing techniques, in order to establish places as brands (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2009). The aim to create or re-invent an image or brand for a city is a complicated and risky one though. Understanding the needs and perceptions of stakeholders with regard to their city will be critical. Cities are much larger and more complex than mainstream products. They are hard to grasp, and a wide variety of stakeholder groups are embedded. This variety and complexity ask for tailored communications, while yet a certain degree of uniformity is necessary in communicating a recognizable and strong brand.

In case the brand communication is directed to one stakeholder group only, others may become detached or even alienated by it (Parkerson & Saunders, 2005). Umbrella brand architecture is called for, enabling a distinct positioning appealing to various stakeholders, while leaving opportunities for group specific communication (Braun, 2013). In the case of city branding, the need for wide local support among residents and organizations is unequivocal. For this, the proposed identity or positioning should have interfaces with the current perception of the place. However, what local authorities aim for may be different, or even in conflict, with the perceptions or claims on the city by residents and non-residents. Although consideration of stakeholder groups will probably make common sense, residents sometimes publicly oppose the image enhancing initiatives by city councils (Atkinson, Cooke, & Spooner, 2002). A striking example is Hamburg, where artists, musicians and other residents started a counter campaign called ‘not in our name’. They distanced themselves from the proclaimed brand ‘Hamburg: image city’, and stated not to identify, represent or wish to be associated with the communicated brand in any way (Sommer, 2012). Another example is the case of Glasgow, where marketers tried to create a vibrant and fashionable image. Locals criticized the brand communication as they felt the new image did not reflect the working-class culture, identity and history (Mooney, 1990).

Papers reporting on criticized image-enhancing initiatives are multifold. Often they identify neglect of local heritage and residents’ sense of place at the foundation of local opposition (e.g. Brownhill, 1994; Holcomb, 1994; Hubbard, 1998; Ward, 2003). Meanwhile, a countermovement will generally search for opportunities to make itself publically known, whereas residents who are indifferent or actually supportive, are arguably less likely to start related campaigns to show this. Therefore, ‘to understand if opposition is the norm and whether place-branding images are always ‘unwanted’ misrepresentations of places, a broader set of residents’ voices should thus be considered along with the oppositional ones’ (Colombino, 2009). Moreover, also the persuasiveness and attractiveness of advertisements towards non-residents should be taken into account.

This paper aims to assess and clarify differences in the perception and effects of city brand advertisements between different stakeholder groups. Despite the obvious presence of various interest groups, the majority of city brand studies focuses on just one type of stakeholders. Furthermore, those papers, which actually did focus on differences in place brand perception between stakeholders (Zenker & Beckmann, 2013; Colombino, 2009), generally remained at a conceptual rather than empirical level. An observation by the way, which applies to the large majority of papers written on city branding. Literature recognizes, but most often does not quantify, the possibility of different stakeholders having different brand image perceptions (Merrilees, 2012). Let alone the related consequences for brand communication effectiveness and the bonds stakeholders develop with a psychical place.

In the current paper, I will address the existing gap in city branding literature and empirically test the effects of different types of advertisement on the perception of- and attitudes towards- the city. For this purpose, I employed a survey-based experiment. I designed informative and value-expressive advertisements, in line with the functional approach to attitude formation. Here, informative advertisements primarily relate to the functional amenities present in a place. The value expressive variant on the other hand, differently frames a similar message, by using the social group and ambassadors the city represents. The main premise here is that the distinct ways of framing the content, will result in opposite effects to internal and external stakeholders groups. In order to test this, residents and non-residents of Rotterdam have been randomly assigned to the stimulus material, after which a questionnaire on their social identification and functional associations with- and attitude towards- the city was conducted. The findings described in this paper, may be valuable for city branding officials, governments and advertising agencies working for cities. Using a different research angle, it could improve the understanding of the full range of responses to persuasive appeals. The success of marketing executed by business thereby holds a promise for cities, however, the question still to be answered is how cities could make effective use of that potential.

2. Literature review

2.1.1 Branding and cities

Despite the growing popularity of city marketing and city branding in practice, and in specialized fields of economics such as urban economics and economic geography, the marketing literature itself has remained relatively moot regarding the topic. Some forms of city branding have been around for ages though. A commonly known instrument of city branding, for example, is the usage of flagship projects (Evans, 2003; Kent, 2009; Zenker, 2013). City branding efforts go beyond advertising and numerous examples can be found throughout human history. For instance, Ashworth (2009) notes: '*the Coliseum, Parthenon and Hanging Gardens of Babylon, were intended not only to house distinctive public functions but equally to convey, through their very presence, statements about the governments that erected them. They were flagships of much more general policies and ideas than the utilitarian functions they performed'*. More related to the topic of this paper are advertisements promoting a certain city or region as a desirable destination for migrants*: 'already in the age of colonial expansion, both west European and east coast American newspapers were full of advertisements aiming at potential migrants. (…) Developers of the late 19th and early 20th century suburbs in the UK used promotional strategies'* (Gold & Ward, 1994). Recent forms of place branding try to establish a place as a brand and rely, like any other business, on a variety of modern marketing techniques (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2009). These modern city and place branding efforts rose in popularity over the last decades, with the advent of rapid urbanization (Braun, 2012; Zenker, 2011).

The rise in popularity of city branding led a considerable development of academic papers on the topics of city branding and city marketing, especially in the fields of urban economics and economic geography (see for overview e.g. (Lucarelli & Berg, 2011). Such developments triggered the development of new instruments and tools capable of measuring a city's *equity.* Examples include city brand scales (E.g. Anholt City Brand Index: Anholt, 2006) and The Saffron European city brand barometer (Hildreth, 2011). The growing interest in the topic is not solely positive though. Criticism is widespread, and ranges from challenges to the democratic legitimacy of place branding (Eshuis & Edwards, 2013), to the difficulties in implementation due to diversified stakeholders and scale levels (Zenker & Beckmann, 2013), and the notion cities mainly communicate through their physics and culture (e.g. Evans, 2003; Zenker & Beckmann, 2013), to most recently, the statement that traditional forms of city brand communication may not have any impact on stakeholders (Braun, Eshuis, & Klijn, 2014). Despite this growing body of literature, empirical studies examining possible effects of advertisements on the development of place bonds and attitudes have rarely been executed. This is the gap I address with my master thesis. For a more extensive discussion on the background and evolution of the city branding literature see textbox 1 in Appendix A.

2.1.2 Different Stakeholders and Distinct Target Customer Groups

In the context of city marketing, some important stakeholder groups include current- and potential-residents, business organizations, tourists, and investors (Merrilees, 2012). A key motto in marketing and branding literature is that firms need to carefully craft their advertising messages to the needs and wants of different customer groups, which may be very different from each other (Kotler & Keller, 2011). Originally, city marketing primarily focused on external customer groups, by targeting tourists, business organizations and external investments (Ashworth & Voogd, 1990; Berg & Braun, 1999; Kotler, Haider, & Rein, 1993). Although the importance of those stakeholders is by no means questionable, the scope of attention has broadened over the past years. More specifically, city marketers and scholars have started to regard residents in general, and the highly educated and qualified workforce in particular, as a critical aspect of a region's or a city's competitive position. An influential piece of literature that can help us better understand this particular target customer group is the best-selling book by social scientist Richard Florida, *The Creative Class* (Florida, 2002).

In *The rise of the Creative Class* and other of his books, Richard Florida argues that the creative class is considered to be the most important economic power in the development and economic growth of a place, or region in general. 'Florida describes the ability to create meaningful new concepts and products, and to turn this creativity into economic success, as typical for members of the creative class, with a "creative core" developing ideas and "creative professionals" using them' (Zenker, 2009). Authors have argued that one of the main tasks of a city council is therefore to attract and preserve the creative class for their town, as investments and companies are likely to follow (Michaels, 2001). Therefore, it should be no surprise that the creative class is often the main group of attention in both place marketing literature and -practice (Zenker, 2009; Zenker & Beckmann, 2013; Boschma & Fritsch, 2009).

2.1.3 The importance of residents

Additionally, the importance of current residents has gained recognition. According to Hospers (2010) successful acquisition of new external groups as a result of place marketing will be limited, because of strong spatial self-preference. Despite our ever-increasing mobility and global information exchange, actual migration is often still limited due to location specific capital and a strong sense of place. Meanwhile, when a city wishes to attract external groups, the current residents are arguably the best promoters: word of mouth promotion is considered to be most authentic and trustworthy (Zenker et al., 2013; Braun et al., 2013). Such word of mouth promotion is growing in importance even more with the ever-rising usage of online social networks (Braun, Eshuis, & Klijn, 2014).

The city impressions one acquires will furthermore depend a great deal on the perceived culture, atmosphere and behavioral interaction with its residents. Or to speak with Shakespeare's (1609) words: '*What is a city but the people'*? In commercial branding the concept of customers as co-creators of value is quite common (Anchrol & Kotler, 1999; Warnaby, 2009). Finally, irrespectively of their "economic" importance and value, city councils and their marketing communication departments have a moral obligation to take its residents into account. It is also in their self-interest, given that it is from this population that they garner the votes that elect them as representatives of the resident population. In other words, residents are the key stakeholder group that should feel well represented by their city's brand. Successful brands could potentially lead to improved civic pride, engagement and place attachment. "Apart from the necessary relationships with place marketing actors, the relations should extern to residents within the area, in order to develop what mainstream marketing theory would call brand loyalty" (Warnaby et al, 2011). To better understand the effects of cities' marketing actions on different customer, or stakeholder, groups, we need to improve our understanding of these different stakeholders' psychology, which is why I will review literature from the field of Environmental Psychology next.

2.2 Environmental psychology

When studying individuals' affective and cognitive bonds with physical surroundings, a short side step to the field of environmental psychology should be made. As branding literature applicable to cities is limited, consideration of a broader scope of literature seems valuable. Environmental psychology is concerned with the psychological bonds individuals develop with their physical environment. In a literature study, Scannell and Gifford (2009) identified two distinguishable bonds individuals develop with a place. That is, an affective one, which chiefly comprises the emotional bond an individual has with a place (place attachment), and one with a cognitive dimension. The latter relates primarily to self-categorization and thus the cognitions one has about himself as a member of a physical environment (place identification).

In terms of Hidalgo & Hernández (2001) place attachment may be defined as the affective link people establish with specific environments, where they have a propensity to remain and where they feel comfortable and safe. The concept is generally divided into physical and social place attachment (Riger & Lavrakas, 1981). The physical environment to which individuals may feel attached could basically be any physical setting, from parks, forests and mountains to the urban setting of their cities (Manzo, 2005). According to the meaning mediated model of place attachment, we do not become attached to the physical environment around us directly**.** Instead, we rather become attached to symbolic meanings the features in our environment represent (Stedman, 2003). The physical aspects constrain the possible meanings a place may adopt, and therefore, physically based place attachment rests in these symbolic meanings. Also related to the concept of place attachment is place dependence, which has been defined as a type of attachment based on the activities or amenities a place provides to an individual (Jorgensen & Stedman, 2001; Moore & Graefe, 1994). A somewhat similar concept is pursuing personal goals: opportunities for successful goal pursuit lead to a positive affective bond with a place (Stokhols & Shumaker, 1981). In line with this concept, Lewicka (2008) considers place attachment to be a result of significant memories attributed to it. On a more concrete level, Zenker and his colleagues (2013) showed that the perceived urbanity, diversity, nature and recreation possibilities provided by a city, are main factors in predicting a resident's satisfaction with a place and their attachment to it.

Most studies argue place attachment mainly relies on the attachment to those individuals living in a particular region and the related interactions facilitated in it (Woldoff, 2002). In this perspective, one could see the attachment a place as a social construction. A vision supported by social geographers (e.g. Kasarda & Janowitz, 1974), and for this reason sometimes compared to the concept of ''sense of community" (McMillan & Chavis, 1977). Places will often symbolize social groups and contribute to a social identity. Due to economic constraints and related lifestyles, relatively homogeneous neighborhoods tend to emerge in which social bonds and networks flourish (Lalli, 1992). Meanwhile such neighborhoods or cities as a whole may facilitate a source of differentiation or identity distinctiveness, contributing to the social identity of its inhabitants.

The recognition of a place representing one's social group is a concept related to place identification (Twigger-Ross & Uzzell, 1996). Proshansky et al. (1983, p. 59) define it as ''a sub-structure of the self-identity of the person consisting of, broadly conceived, cognition about the physical world in which the individual lives''. In terms of the social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Tajfel, 1981), identification with a place or with a group of residents could be "legitimate additions to the existing range of identifications" (Twigger-Ross & Uzzell, 1996).

Place attachment based upon self-categorization thus relates to the interactions and social bonds facilitated within a particular physical environment and the social identity individuals may derive from it. A clear example of attachment and identification with a place on a broad level is nationalism, where the physical environment clearly has representative value for one's group (Bonaiuto, Breakwell, & Cano, 1996). Civic place attachment is an instance of group symbolic place attachment that occurs at the city level (Hidalgo & Hernández, 2001; Vorkinn & Riese, 2001). The related attitudes individuals form towards their physical surroundings on a city level, will be the main focus of this paper.

2.3 Theoretical framework

Figure 1, below, summarizes the conceptual framework that guides my thesis. Next, I will discuss the different components of this framework and the relations between them.

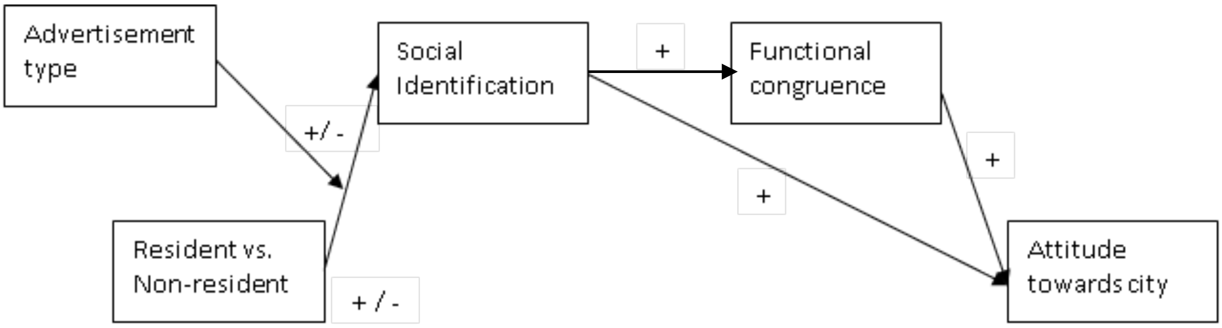


Figure 1 – Conceptual Framework

2.3.1 Attitude towards city: *Components in attitudes formation*

Given the previous distinction made between the affective and cognitive bonds individuals develop with their physical surroundings, one might expect those mechanisms will also be under influence of separate and distinguishable antecedents. However, in literature little agreement is found on their relations, and neither there is on whether they are similar or very different phenomena (Kyle, Graefe, Manning, & Bacon, 2004). The previously mentioned factors, however, could arguably be linked to more established literature on branding and attitudes. Here, similar concepts have been attributed to the formation of attitudes and the persuasiveness of brand appeals. '*Attitudes are the predisposition of the individual to evaluate some symbol or object or aspect of his world in a favorable or unfavorable manner. Attitudes include both the affective, and feeling core of liking or disliking, and the cognitive, or belief, elements that describe the object of the attitude, its characteristics, and its relations to other objects. (…) When specific attitudes are organized into a hierarchical structure, they comprise value systems'* (Katz, 1960).

According to Katz (1960) we form attitudes towards objects primarily because they serve a knowledge function. It aids the organization and structure of incoming information, allows us to interact with our environment and provides consistency in our frame of reference (Shavitt & Nelson, 2002). While attitudes towards brands or cities are likely to serve this knowledge function to a certain degree, different motives may play a role. In consumer behavior literature it is well-established consumers seek for brands and products, which match both their functional demands and symbolic values (Belk, 1988; Lee & Hyman, 2008; Solomon, 1983; Aaker, 1995). Similarly, one's choice for a place of residence is shown to be under influence of psychological (e.g. affection and self-concept) and functional (Utilitarian (Katz,1960)) variables (Sirgy & Su, 2005). Considering the previously discussed environmental-psychological antecedents for cognitive and affective bonds with a place (e.g. concepts of place dependence, goal pursuit, creation of memories, place identification and social attachment), similarities are apparent and a similar distinction is proposed for the evaluation of a city brand's attractiveness.

2.3.2 Functional congruence

The fact consumers evaluate products based upon at least some utilitarian features will make common sense to most. Traditionally, is has been argued that the gathering of information and knowledge about utilitarian features helps to maximize rewards and minimize punishment obtained from objects in the environment (Katz, 1960). According to Katz, who used the word adjustment function instead, the dynamics of this function depend *'upon present or past perceptions of the utility of the attitudinal object for the individual.'(…) The closer these objects are to actual need satisfaction and the more they are clearly perceived as relevant to need satisfaction, the greater are the probabilities of positive attitude formation'* (Katz, 1960). The resulting utilitarian attitudes serve as a summary of the outcomes intrinsically associated with objects and guide behavioral responses to maximize our interests.

Functional congruity is defined as the psychological evaluation of a city based on a comparison of utilitarian aspects of a city with ideal features (Varvoglis & Sirgy, 1984; Johar & Sirgy, 1991). The question thus is, how well the city serves the needs and demands of various stakeholders. Evidence that individuals evaluate cities using functional or utilitarian criteria when acquiring a place to live is multifold. Studies include papers related to housing preferences (e.g. see for overview Sirgy & Su, 2005), evaluation and satisfaction with one's place of residence (Zenker, Petersen, & Anholt, 2013), intentions to migrate (Zenker & Gollan, 2010) and visitation of other places (Sirgy & Su, 2000). This captures much of the physical place attachment notion in the environmental psychology literature, where the opportunities for goal support, place dependence and buildup of personal memories relate to one's believes and expectations about available activities and features in the city. Both for residents and non-residents, evaluation of the utilitarian attributes will be important in the perception of the city brand attractiveness. Whereas residents will have somewhat different utilitarian needs with their place than their non-resident counterparts, the evaluation of attractiveness will concern similar city attributes to a large extend (Merrilees, Miller, & Herington, 2009; Parkerson & Saunders, 2005).

H1: *Individuals perceiving a high level of functional congruence will develop more positive brand attitudes towards the city than people with low levels of functional congruence*

2.3.3 Social identification

Attitudes also serve an important social role, aiding in one's self-expression and social interaction. They tell something about us, and facilitate identification with reference groups (Kelman, 1961). This in turn crafts our own unique identity and helps us to express our central values (Katz, 1960). Attitudes towards a city may mediate our relations with others, because they are likely to be based on what the city symbolizes to us and how this attitude is an expression of the self (Tyler & Weber, 1982). This social role of attitudes has been referred to as the social identity function (Shavitt, 1989). "*Attitudes may have the function of giving positive expression to one's central values and to the way we conceive ourselves. We find reward in the expression of any attributes associated with our egos, which clearly, may result both in positive and negative attitudes. Self-concept motives could also correspond to concerns for defending the ego against potential threats"* (Wood, 2000). Proshansky and varying colleagues have researched the related social identity theory in the context of places (Prohansky, 1978; Prohansky, Fabian, & Kaminoff, 1983). Doing so, they showed that cognitions about the place may also become incorporated into the self-concept, which is merely the concept of place-identification. Place identification in their words, is the 'physical world socialization of the self' (Prohansky, Fabian, & Kaminoff, 1983).

Consumer research has shown that a buyer's attitude toward a product is influenced by the degree of match between the product- and user-image and the buyer's self-concept (Sirgy, 1982). The basic notion of self-congruity theory is consumers prefer brands with personalities that are congruent with their own personality (Aaker, 1995) or self-image (*actual-, ideal-, social-, and/or ideal social self-image* (Sirgy, 1985)). The larger the congruence, the larger the satisfaction of self-consistency needs. This in turn, enhances the audience's positive attitude toward the product (Sirgy, 1985; Sirgy, 1982). Also for touristic visitors the perceived brand image or brand personality provided cues to be linked to the self-concept or to express one-self. In various studies social identity theories have been shown to be applicable (Caprara, Barbaranelli, & Guido, 2001; Eckrini & Hosany, 2006; Todd, 2001; Sirgy & Su, 2000; Ahn, Ekinci, & Li, 2011). In the case of cities, the product and its users are largely the same. Residents and the city culture make up an important part of the perceived city (Braun, Zenker, & Kavaratzis, 2013). For this reason, theory on social identity related attitudes and behavior are especially relevant here. It is expected that a larger overlap in the perceived city identity and self-image, will positively influence city brand attitudes and intention to visit or stay in a place.

H2: *Individuals who socially identify more strongly with a city will develop more favorable city brand attitudes*

2.3.4 Influence of social identification on functional congruity

When working with the functions of social identity and functional congruity in consumer research, it is important to also understand how they are interrelated when explaining and predicting consumer behavior and brand attitudes. Studies in the field of environmental psychology showed that the degree to which one identifies with a place has its influence on the way subsequent information is processed. Aside of the confirmation bias we are subject to, our perception is subjective in nature due to different social experiences and memories, which have acquired different values in our mental representations (Félonneau, 2004). Brown et al. (2003) and Félonneau (2004) showed in separate studies that perceived incivilities and physical decline of a neighborhood were lower for those individuals identifying with their place of residence. Similar results have been found for perception of pollution and risk (Bonaiuto, Breakwell, & Cano, 1996). It seems that once individuals experience a particular cognitive bond with a city, they would be more willing to turn a blind eye on incivilities than others, although a bidirectional effect cannot be ruled out.

Similarly, the relationship between functional congruity and personal congruence has been the topic of several papers on consumer loyalty (Samli & Sirgu, 1981; Sirgy & Samli, 1985). Samli and Sirgy examined the predictors of store loyalty and showed that although self-congruity failed to have significant predictive power over store loyalty itself, it did have a biasing effect on the perceived functional congruity. This biasing-effect implied that although the consumer behavior was primarily related to the perceived functional congruity, functional congruity itself was highly influenced by the degree consumers inferred similarities between their self-image and the traits and values they attributed to the stores. Similar results were found in follow up studies on store loyalty, brand attitudes in multiple product categories and beliefs about the taste of different beer brands (Sirgy et al., 1991). The biasing effect could be both positive and negative. When someone perceives the brand image to be incongruent with the self-image, or does not identify/disassociates, we expect the evaluation of the functional traits of the brand to be colored/biased in a negative way.

An explanation for this observation is postulated by Markus (1980), who argued that the perception of our selves and associations plus relations to others, are organized at a high level in the cognitive hierarchy. The perception and evaluation of brands, stores, product- or cities- attributes operate at a more conscious level. Identification and self-congruity assessment in turn, are said to operate at a more subconscious level, through abstract cognitive schemes. Thereby influencing the processing of information and evaluation of the functional attributes at a conscious level (Mason & Mayer, 1970; 1973). According to Markus, the self-image schemas high in cognitive hierarchy are abstract schemes whereas associations low in cognitive hierarchy are considered to be more concrete schemes. Such abstract schemes are more easily activated and require less processing than the concrete schemes (Wyer & Carlston, 1979). *'Self-image schemes act as super ordinate goals guiding concrete information processing, we can thus infer that self-related beliefs become activated and processed in decision making prior to non-self-beliefs. Hence, social identity related processing is more likely to occur prior to functional congruity type of processing'* (Sirgy et al., 1991).

Considering the findings above, it appears that both in the fields of environmental psychology and consumer behavior, people socially identifying with some entity will develop a positively biased evaluation of its utilitarian attributes. It is therefore hypothesized that the degree to which someone identifies with the perceived place identity will also influence the subsequent evaluation of the city's functional traits.

H3: *People with a high level of social identification with a city will consider it to be more functionally congruent*

2.3.5. Stakeholder Differences, Residents vs Non-residents

After this introduction on the topic of attitude formation and cities, I will narrow down on the effects promotional communication exerts on the private consumers of the place. That is: residents and non-residents. Obviously, all stakeholder groups previously identified remain important. However, it will be hard to research all at once. Business and investment targeted place branding will generally involve different topics of interest, for which comparison between groups will be harder. Having an internal and external stakeholder group, this study aims to identify the potential differences in the perceived city image and responses to the communicated message. Whereas it seems reasonable to assume some city features will be more or less relevant for one group than the other (Snepenger, 1998), a significant overlap in interests and activities may be expected (Merrilees, Miller, & Herington, 2009). Aside of living in the place, residents will possess interests similar to tourists when spending their leisure time (Parkerson & Saunders, 2005). However, due to their different backgrounds, similar activities or messages may be experienced in different ways (Crouch, 2011; Gartner & Ruzzier, 2010; Kim, Ritchie, & McCormick, 2010).

According to the functional approach of Katz's (1960), different people may like or dislike an object with equal intensity but for completely different reasons. *'Stated simply, the functional* *approach is the attempt to understand the reasons people hold the attitudes they do'* (Katz, 1960). Functional theories have been influential and widely cited in the domain of attitudes and persuasion. In particular, they have offered critical insights into persuasion processes. Basically the theories tell *'in order to change an attitude, it is necessary to know the motivational basis for that attitude'* (Shavitt & Nelson, 2002). They attempt to focus on the internal psychological motivations and functions that attitudes serve, rather than the accidents of external influences and circumstances. The functional and matching theory perspective is particularly interesting as classic papers from Katz and Kelman (1961) had a strong emphasis on attitudes towards out-groups, different racial groups and different nations. This in-group–out-group situation is extendable to the city brand communication within a country, where similar feelings could persist between residents and non-resident.

Spivey et al (1983) demonstrated that individuals could be categorized into homogenous groups on the basis of their functional profiles (utilitarian versus value-expressive) (Katz, 1960; Smith, Bruner, & White, 1956). '*Previous research has often measured attitude functions a priori, or focused on personal or situational factors influencing the functions attitudes will serve'.* (Snyder & DeBono, 1985). Such personal factors, however, have been shown to lose relevance when an object primarily serves a single attitude function (Snyder & DeBono, 1985). This paper assumes it should also be possible to categorize individuals who are especially likely to hold attitudes serving a particular type of function based upon one's place of residence**.** Both for residents and non-residents multiple motives and functions will influence the attitude and persuasion. However, it is believed that for the one group certain functions are more dominant than for the other, and this in turn will help us to explain differences in responses and effectiveness of messages related to city brand appeals.

In the case of cities, resident and non-residents are likely to differ in their preconceptions, knowledge, and foremost, their claims on the city. Those differences are at the ground of the influences city brand communication exerts on the internal and external stakeholder groups. When considering the sources of brand communication identified by Kavaratzis (2008), one should note that while residents are constantly exposed to the culture and physics prevalent in the city, visitors and other external groups would rely to a much larger extent on secondary and arguably tertiary communication. Knowledge levels of the internal and external groups are thus likely to differ (Mullen, 1989), out-group members (here, non-residents) will generally have more stereotypical associations with the place brand whereas the in-group should hold much richer, diverse and heterogeneous place brand perceptions (Zenker & Beckmann, 2013). Because of these differences, framing by means of marketing should be possible to a certain extent, yet it seems reasonable there will be differences in the ability to influence city brand associations of residents compared to non-residents and in the need to do so. It seems harder to influence the perception of functional attributes by residents by means of marketing, while they have firsthand experiences with the city on a daily base. However, even for non-residents, modification of attributes comprising a city's image will generally be hard, as has been shown in various studies on the image effects of visiting a particular city or region (Gunn, 1988; Pearce, 1982). The differences suggest that the resident versus non-resident status is a key moderator of the effect of different types of advertisement campaigns on people's perceptions, attitudes and behaviors.

Apart from the knowledge and evaluation of utilitarian attributes of the city, residents and non-residents will especially differ in their social identity based attitudes towards it, and therewith the importance our centrality of such attitudes. *The centrality of an attitude refers to its role as part of a value system which is closely related to the individual's self-concept* (Katz, 1960), and higher centrality of the attitude makes it harder to change. The fact residents started active counter movements towards city branding obviously stems from the fact they lay stronger claims on what the place is and should represent. Also higher levels of identification with a place are known to sometimes result in a reluctance to change (Lewicka, 2005). Individuals want to ensure that their affiliation with a place is communicated in the most positive possible way (Ashworth & Mael, 1989; Dutton & Dukerich, 1991). Living in a city, for the internal-group the city brand has a value-expressive function whereas for the external group a more utilitarian relation with the city is expected. This assumed dichotomy in claims and demands on the city, will be key in forecasting the differences in perception and effectiveness of communicating the place brand in varying styles through advertisements.

H4: *Attitudes towards the city and related brand communication mainly serves a utilitarian function for non-residents whereas a value-expressive function in the case of residents*

3. The Effects of Different Types of City Brand Advertisement on Residents and Non-Residents

3.1 Types of City Brand Advertisements

In order to test the prior hypotheses made, two types of brand appeals have been developed. In the current study, I use colored, full-paged print advertisements to bring the different city brand messages across. When building a personality or brand image around a product, Johar and Sirgy (1991) distinguished between advertisements based on value-expressive (image) or symbolic appeals, and advertisements aiming to build a brand based upon utilitarian (functional) appeals. “The image strategy involves building a "personality" for the product or creating an image of the product user, while the utilitarian appeal involves informing consumers of the product benefits that are perceived to be highly functional and important to the consumer” (Meenaghan, 1995). The proposed dichotomy in advertisement content has been widely supported in advertising literature, although different names have been used (Aaker & Morris, 1982; Crask & Laskey, 1990; Rossiter, 1991; Vaughan, 1980). Obviously, such a dichotomy will often not hold in practice, as advertisement and brands will generally have both appeals inside. A combination of both rational and emotional appeals leading consumer decision-making seems more plausible in real life. Nevertheless, the distinction provides to be a valuable proxy when defining content types, and aids the understanding of responses to different advertisements and brand appeals.

3.2 Advertisements and Formation of Attitudes Towards a City

Many kinds of impressions will contribute to the formation of mental representations of a city and our everyday interaction with it. Marketing communication and city brands can only play a minor role within this process. What is critical however, are the mental processes of cognition through which information is processed, to form stable and learned images of a place. The mental maps individuals hold about a place enable them to interact with- and navigate through their surroundings and make sense of reality. It is a mechanism required to function in daily life. And this is where city brands and marketing communication can tap in. As large cities grow beyond a scale that can be encompassed by an individual, understanding of such a place can be mediated by the communication of images as with branding. Individuals seek for attachment and meanings in a place in order to interact with it on a functional level (Walmsley, 1988). The practices of communicating the place brand in this way, can serve to shape and influence those mental maps in a way deemed to be favorable for future interactions and the creation of personal bonds with it (Erickson & Roberts, 1997; Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005).

Authors have often distinguished between attitude change related to public compliance or private acceptance, when predicting the lasting nature of such attitude change. (Mackie, Worth, & Asuncion, 1990). So, do individuals state a certain attitude because they adjust to the present situation, or do they really stand behind the values or statements associated with it? The former case, in which individuals accept or adjust to a certain source of information because they expect to achieve favorable responses from another person or group, is named compliance. Within the present research, such influence is not considered to be that viable, as all participants took the surveys anonymously. Yet, also in the case information results in private acceptance, private acceptance induced by membership of a particular group has often been considered to be conceptually different from other kinds of private acceptance. Kelman's (1961) views are illustrative here. *'Kelman distinguished between privately accepted attitude change that occurred because of value congruence (internalization) and privately accepted change that occurred because of a role-defining relationship between the source and the recipient (identification)'* (Mackie, Worth, & Asuncion, 1990).

In case there are no clear identity primes or cues triggering group distinctiveness, positive effects from advertisements occur when one feels targeted by the message. Internalizing advertisement information relies mainly on value congruence. '*The advocated position in the advertisement should be congruent with one's own value system and be personally appealing, so that it is internally satisfying to adopt it. That is, viewers who perceive that an advertisement is designed to resonate with them should base their attitudes more on an assessment of value and functional relevance relative to perceived similarity with the source'* (Aaker, Brumbaugh, & Grier, 2000). As may be derived from the word identification, the persuasion of the message or messages mainly occurs because of perceived similarities to the source. The proposed position of the sender, the related behavior or attitude, is adopted because it is associated with the desired relationship (Kelman, 1961). By doing so, the recipient of the message preserves or enhances some aspect of the self (Eagley, Wood, & Chaiken, 1978).

Combining theories of the functional approach to attitudes (Katz, 1960) and attitudes changes (Kelman, 1961; Wood, 2000) with recent environmental psychology and city brand publications, it is proposed that different framing of city brand communication results in opposite evaluations and effects for non-residents and residents.

3.3 Utilitarian advertisements and attitude formation

The persuasiveness of the style of communicating the place brand will vary with the attitude function served for an individual. Which is, as previously discussed, assumed to be predominantly a value expressive one for residents, whereas a utilitarian one for non-residents. Literature tells that advertisements matching the attitude function of the recipient elicit more favorable attitudes and cognitive responses, and are more persuasiveness and effective (Nelson and Shavitt 1997; Shavitt 1991). They are processed more carefully, and moreover, are considered to be more credible (Johar & Sirgy, 1991).

Utilitarian brand appeals aim to inform consumers about some key aspects of the object, which are considered to be highly functional and important to the target consumers. Rossiter and Percy (1987) have also referred to this form of advertising as "informational advertising" (Johar & Sirgy, 1991). Also here, the salience of particular components of one's social identity could be of influence. More precisely, the lack of cues evoking identity related responses. One's place of residence will generally play an important role within the social identity (Twigger-Ross & Uzzell, 1996). Due to a general strong self-preference of physical space (Hospers, 2010), other cities and their inhabitants could be seen as out-groups and could be subject to a negative bias in evaluation. Attitudes here, may work as a defense mechanism to deal with messages or other forms of information that are in conflict with the self (Katz, 1960; Smith, Bruner, & White, 1956). Brand appeals triggering social distinctiveness or identity salience, could therefore potentially be counter effective when it comes to non-resident groups. Utilitarian brand appeals tend to minimize in-group-out-group salience and increase knowledge about the utilitarian features present in the place.

Aside of their differing attitude function, the fact residents experience the city first hand on a daily base, also impacts the ability to alter attitudes by providing informative content. That is, the ability to change attitudes will vary with knowledge about the topic and the intensity of the attitudes held. *"The intensity of an attitude refers to the strength of the affective component. (…) Differentiation refers to the number of beliefs or cognitive items contained in the attitude, and the general assumption is that the simpler the attitude in cognitive structure the easier it is to change. For simple structures there is no defense in depth, and once a single item of belief has been changed the attitude will change"* (Katz, 1960). With lower levels of knowledge about actual traits of the city, and especially lower certainty and strength of those believes, is seems reasonable the functional congruity of non-residents can be more easily affected by providing information.

H5a *There is a moderating effect of advertisement type on functional congruence*: *Whereas utilitarian advertisements positively influence non-residents' functional congruence, as compared to value expressive advertisements, I expect no effects for residents.*

3.4 Value-expressive advertisements and attitude formation

'The image strategy in advertising, involves building a "personality" for the product or creating an image of the product user, and is part of what Rossiter and Percy (1987) *refer to as value-expressive appeals. It holds a creative objective to shape an image of the generalized user of the advertised product (or brand)*'(Johar & Sirgy, 1991). Most often, advertisements of this type will

include some sort of personality, ambassador or spokesman featuring the message. Such endorsers are especially relevant to social identity goals (Shavitt & Nelson, 2002). For a person to accept and internalize a proposed message, support of the internal group and spokesman could be determining. Evaluators believe members of their in-group are more interesting (Linville, Fischer, & Salovey, 1989), more persuasive (Berscheid, 1966), and more likable than members of an out-group (Neimeyer & Mitchell, 1988). Moreover, the evaluation of in-group members has been found to improve when attention is focused on the evaluator's group membership (Abrams, 1985).

One's social-identity will generally comprise various groups, and the relevance and prominence of those social groups will vary per situation. This occurs through temporal alteration of the hierarchical ordering of the individual's identities (Burke & Reitzes, 1991) and by directing attention toward the activated component of one's social self-schema' (Deshpandé & Stayman, 1994; Forehand & Deshpandé, 2001). External factors including advertisements or other brand communication are responsible for such an alteration. Such cues could include reference group symbols (Cialdini-et-al, 1976) symbols related to out-groups (Wilder & Shapiro, 1991), out-group members (Marques, 1988), and visual images and words (Forehand & Deshpandé, 2001). The degree to which messages are perceived as originating from an in- or out-group will influence the motivation to process and willingness to internalize its content. '*More specific, research on persuasion effects suggests that any variable that leads individuals to make similarity judgments between themselves and an advertisement source (e.g., cultural orientation* (Aaker & Williams, 1998)*, social class* (Williams & Qualls, 1989)*, and ethnicity* (Wooten, 1995) *should impact the recipients' message- and related brand perception more positive or negative…)'*.

Value expressive ads are quite likely to evoke identity related responses for both residents and non-residents. While the salience of membership of the social in-group could positively influence residents' feelings of place identification and civic pride, for others, it faces the risk of lower levels of attention or even rejection from the out-group. Non-residents could disassociate themselves from advertisements including strong cues of in-group and out-group membership, as they perceive source dissimilarity and out-group salience, and may feel excluded from the targeted group. Aside of this risk of social disassociation, the matching or mismatching of the elements relevant to the goals of the recipient will influence the nature of processing of a persuasive message. *'The attractiveness or unattractiveness of endorsers elicits greater scrutiny and elaboration when their presence is relevant to the functional basis of the attitude'* (Shavitt & Nelson, 2002)**.** This does not imply the effectiveness and response will be negative per se, when identity goals are made salient for non-residents, and dissimilarity judgments are made. However, it is expected to be less effective and positive in case the advertisement would not have consisted identity primes at all.

H5b *There is a moderating effect of advertisement type on social identification: Whereas value-expressive advertisements positively influence residents' social identification, as compared to utilitarian expressive advertisements, I expect the opposite to be true for non-residents.*

3.5 Advertisement effects to city brand attitudes of non-residents

Combining the proposed effects of advertisement types, and the hypothesis 1 to 3, the expected effects of advertisement types on attitudes should be relatively straightforward. Improvement of social identification or perceived functional congruence is associated with improvement of attitudes towards the city. According to functional theory, attitudes based upon utilitarian evaluations of out-groups could be improved in several ways. Most interesting for the current study, is that facilitation of direct or indirect contact with the external group could change attitudes both positively and negatively. The direction of the effect will depend upon whether the condition of contact hinders or helps to satisfy personal needs (Katz, 1960). So in this case, information on personally relevant aspects of the city, which could provide some sort of need satisfaction for the message recipient, could work in favor of the attitudes towards Rotterdam.

As non-residents' city brand attitudes are assumed to primarily serve a utilitarian function, utilitarian appeals are expected to be relatively most beneficial. The lack of knowledge and experiences with the city, could lead others to base their evaluations on active stereotypes and basic rules-of-thumb (Zenker & Peterson, 2010). The stereotypes held by external groups, do not necessarily need to be negative though, and as they are often more one dimensional and unascertained, they should be also easier to change (Katz, 1960). Non-residents will often lack a concrete picture of the functional attributes of the city in their minds. They learn from the informative advertisements, and when considered to be interesting and credible, the information may be internalized in believes about the city. In this case credibility and relevance of the message will be important, which are more often associated with the utilitarian advertisements.

Increased knowledge and a larger variety of associations attributed to the place brand do not only impact the functional congruity though. They are also expected to aid the social identification process: a broader scope offers more opportunities to link the self to the city in a meaningful way (Zenker & Peterson, 2010). It has been proposed that complexity of the city image and perceived group heterogeneity can increase feelings of belonging to a social group (Mummendey & Wenzel, 1999). Although the arguing of social identity being sort of the 'gate' and 'filter' for processing subsequent information remains viable, a bidirectional relation between social identity and functional congruence makes sense. While one's social identity plays a role in acceptance and integration of the provided information in the existing network of associations and feelings about a certain entity, new associations should also influence the degree to which one identifies with a place. Effective changes in the utilitarian or belief component could thus also result in changes of the affective or social identity component (Katz, 1960). The two concepts are separated but interrelated. Summing up, it is assumed that:

H6a: *Advertisements based on functional attributes positively influence attitudes through social identification and functional attribute evaluations of non-residents, as compared to ambassador advertisements. (In which functional attributes will be main determinant).*

3.6 Advertisement effects to city brand attitudes of residents

As for residents, it is not being said the utilitarian approach will be unpersuasive nor have negative effects on the social identification, functional congruence and brand attitudes. However, using a value-expressive approach is expected to be more persuasive and effective, as their bonds with the city and their attitudes to the city brand serve a different function. The related attitude improvement is sometimes considered to be more temporal and context-specific as compared to attitudes based on utilitarian features (Kelman, 1961). Changing the social identity will be hard in general, and especially for promotional messages on its own (Katz, 1960).

Indeed, by directing attention toward the activated component of one's social self-schema' (Deshpandé & Stayman, 1994; Forehand & Deshpandé, 2001), we expect the value-expressive advertisement to result in a temporal alteration of the hierarchical ordering of the individual's identities (Burke & Reitzes, 1991). In this case: being a resident of Rotterdam. The salience of membership of the Rotterdam social in-group could positively influence residents' feelings of place identification and civic pride. When someone's identity has been triggered by identity primes or increased social distinctiveness, the in-group traits will be more predictive for the individual's subsequent attitudes and behavior (Tybout & Yalch, 1980). By temporarily altering the social identity of an individual, the perception of the city's functional attributes could arguably become positively biased accordingly. We previously derived that people who socially identify with a city are likely to develop a positively biased evaluation of its utilitarian attributes. Therefore, considering the hypothesized relations between social identification, functional congruence and city attitudes, it is assumed that:

H6b *Value-expressive advertisements will positively influence residents' attitudes through social identification and functional attribute evaluations, as compared to advertisements based on functional attribute. (In which social identity will be the main determinant).*

4. Methodology

4.1.1 Empirical Context - Why Rotterdam?

Within the Netherlands, Rotterdam is probably one of the most interesting cities to study city brand practices. The fact Rotterdam was among the first in the world to employ a CMO for the city is no coincidence (Braun, 2008). The city is known to face an identity problem, especially in competition with the other major Dutch cities. Rotterdam is the poorest, most industrial and meanwhile most ethnically diverse city in the Netherlands (Berg, 2011). In the period preceding the Second World War, it successfully profiled itself as a city of work, modernity and progress (Ashworth, 2009). After the entire city center had been destroyed during the bombings in the Second World War, the city decided not to rebuild, but instead, to make a brand new start with modern buildings. While this provides Rotterdam with a unique look and feel within the Netherlands, people sometimes complain Rotterdam does not have a heart. Especially non-residents often consider the city to be gray and cold.

Rotterdam's identity and external image revolved around its harbor functions and related industrial development, its practical blue-collar society and its modernist functionalist post-war rebuilding. By the end of the 20th century economic and social change had rendered this image unhelpful in competing inside and outside the Netherlands for service activities. Especially when compared to other cities cultivating a post-modern, cultural and rich heritage, high environmental quality image.

The problem of having developed a *blue-collar* and *functionalist* image as a city was exacerbated by the acquisition of a reputation for intolerance. This happened after 2001, when the politician Pim Fortuyn was assassinated for his political views. People outside Rotterdam increasingly stereotyped the city's Dutch population as not only working class but also xenophobic and ethno-nationalistic (Ashworth, 2009). Rotterdam had to reinvent its own image, just as many other places in the post-industrial era. In doing so, the architecture, business centers, multicultural society and events, and the inevitable harbor have always remained to play a role. The two most noteworthy city brand campaigns over the past decade were named 'Rotterdam durft' ('*Rotterdam dares'*) and the currently active 'Rotterdam world port, world city'. The tag lines of these campaigns by themselves, already shed some light on differences in the value-expressive and utilitarian nature of the brand. Recently, the cities' development- and marketing efforts reached a new milestone in acknowledgement: the city was named by both the NY times and rough guide, in their lists of top 10 places in the world to be visited in 2014 (New York Times, 2014) (Roughguide, 2014).

4.1.2. Creative Class and Rotterdam

The sample group in this paper consists of students and young high-educated adults, from various cities across the Netherlands. They serve as a proxy of the rather popular target group 'the creative class' (Florida, 2002; 2005; 2008). As previously mentioned, this group is one of the most popular targets in place marketing literature and practice (Zenker, 2009; Zenker & Beckmann, 2013; Boschma & Fritsch, 2009). The high-educated- and qualified workforce has emerged as a critical aspect of a region's competitive position. Meanwhile, students are the most mobile within the Netherlands, and various cities (including Rotterdam) struggle to retain them.

The sample group is particularly interesting to investigate, as its members tend to be less emotionally attached to places. That is: one's level of education is found to be a negative predictor for place attachment (Lewicka, 2005). Similarly, recent studies found that the level of education negatively affects degree of place identification (Tartaglia, 2009). Possibly this is due to the fact higher educated are more mobile than marginalized social groups (Lewicka, 2005). Possibly lower educated identify more with their place as a result of being localized and having little alternative for self-categorization purposes (Bauman, 1998). However, according to Florida (2008) the higher educated also have their bonds with places, and are certainly not as place independent as mobile.

The city council of Rotterdam currently runs an initiative to retain the higher educated by the name of '*Rotterdam Carrièrestad*' (Rotterdam career-city). They aim to better leverage the potential Erasmus University and other educational institutions offer. The city council cooperates with various organizations to bond students and young professionals both 'rationally and affectively' to the city. They do so by stimulating initiatives related to internships, graduation, work and housing, entrepreneurship and by improving the attractiveness of the inner city. More detailed information on specific initiatives and partnering organizations could be found on the Rotterdam city portal (www.rotterdam.nl/carrierestad). Since retaining talents and creative individuals for the city (and therewith improvement attitudes towards the city and place identification) are considered to be primary objectives by city councils, taking students as a proxy for the creative class seems to be most interesting-, useful- and actionable- research group at the same time.

4.1.3 Participants and design

In order to collect data an online survey was sent out by email and through social media. To test whether residents and non-residents responded differently to the previously described promotional messages and framing of a city, three advertisements of both categories were developed[1]. All participants were randomly assigned to one of the two stimuli materials. ('functional' vs. 'value-expressive'). The questionnaire took approximately 10 minutes to complete. As the survey was fairly long for the general standards of students, there was quite a substantial drop-out rate. In order to obtain a sufficient sample size of Rotterdam residents, a number of students were actively approached inside Erasmus University and the City's public library to conduct the survey. Although 308 individuals entered the questionnaire, filtering out the incomplete and unengaged responses resulted in a much smaller sample of 208 respondents. A further removal of all individuals aged older than thirty-nine from the analysis, provided a **final dataset of 192 respondents**. Respondents were reasonably equally distributed over all treatment groups.

The sample consisted of 47,4% individuals qualifying as Rotterdam residents and of 52,6% non-residents respectively. The majority of the respondents indicated they grew up in an urban environment (60,4%) and approximately two third of the respondents was male (66,1%). The average level of education was high, with 73,4% of the respondents having a completed, HBO, Bachelors or Master's degree. Moreover, those other respondents who only completed their secondary school were not old enough yet to have finished an academic degree (AVG= 18,61, SD = 1,479). When looking at the samples of residents and non-residents separately, the average age of Rotterdam

[1] One advertisement focusing on the cultural activities present in the city, one about its dynamic and metropolitan atmosphere, and a third promoting the city as a homeport for talent, ambition and entrepreneurship.

residents was somewhat higher (AVG=24,29, SD=3,331) than of non-residents (AVG = 22,12, SD = 3,266). All treatment groups showed approximately equal distributions of gender, level of education, childhood environment and length of stay at current place of residence.

Table 1: Sample statistics		**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Ad Groups vs. Place of Residents	Non Resident Utilitarian ads	52	27,1
	Non Resident Value Expressive ads	49	25,5
	Resident Utilitarian ads	49	25,5
	Resident Value expressive ads	42	21,9
Environment youth	Rural	76	39,6
	Urban	116	60,4
Highest completed level of education	Secondary school	48	25
	MBO	3	1,6
	HBO	27	14,1
	University Bachelor	64	33,3
	University Master	50	26
Age group	under 20	40	20,8
	20-25	122	63,5
	26-30	26	13,5
	30-39	4	2,1
Sex	Male	127	66,1
	Female	65	33,9
Visit Rotterdam	Never	1	0,5
	A few times	46	24
	Multiple times	30	15,6
	Quite often	32	16,7
	Live(d) there	83	43,2
Length of stay in current place of residence:	One year or less	27	14,1
	1-3 years	38	19,8
	3-5 years	38	19,8
	5-7 years	26	13,5
	7+ years	63	32,8
	Total	192	100

4.1.4. Stimulus material

The experimental manipulations were accomplished through full paged, color print advertisements. Whereas the content of the different advertisements was kept similar as much as possible, the value-expressive ads included **city ambassadors**[2] and the **informative**[3] ones related to actual city attributes and activities. Both groups had one advertisement focusing on the cultural activities present in the city, one about its dynamic and metropolitan atmosphere, and finally one promoting the city as a homeport for talent, ambition and entrepreneurship. The set-up aimed to attach similar symbolic meanings to the city in both stimuli material conditions. That is, aside from the related topics, similar key words and values were presented in the paired advertisements**.**

[2] The three ambassadors featuring the advertisements were locals Maarten van Waardenberg, Ted Langebach and Marlies Dekkers. In the advertisements their picture along with some quotes of their opinion about the city were depicted.
[3] The informative advertisements depicted images of the city, along with a story based on the actual amenities present in the city.

All advertisements can be found in the Appendix B at the end of this paper. To ensure students would read and evaluate the ads properly, they were asked to rank them on likeability, credibility and whether they appropriately reflected the city. Thereafter the actual survey and composed scales were presented. Possibly this set up contributed to the high drop out rates, as most respondents aborted the survey when discovering they were not finished after reading and ranking the advertisements. However, it enlarged chances the respondents took full notice of the information presented to them, and arguably separated the wheat from the chaff in terms of engagement.

4.2 Measures

4.2.1 Identification

For the measurement of personal identification with the city of Rotterdam, both a visual and verbal expression of identification was used. The direct measure of one's identification with the city was based on a visual diagram of degree of overlap between self-definition and the perceived identity of Rotterdam, as developed by Bergami & Bagozzi (2000). As for the verbal part, the statements were based on literature stating one's identification relates to its personal, ideal and social perceived congruence with the entity in question (Sirgy & Su, 2000; Ahn, Ekinci, & Li, 2011; Kilic & Adem, 2012). Four statements were measured using a 7-point Likert scale, and the operationalized identification scale became the average of the visual and verbal component combined**.** Full specification of the items comprising the scale can be found in the appendix. The scale showed good internal consistency for both sample groups, using the Cronbach alpha test statistic: non-residents (M=15.589, SD= 4,92, α =0,82); residents (M=22,214, SD=4,67, α =0,833). Both values are well above the general cut-off point of 0.8 (Kline, 1999), and removal of items would not result in improvement of the scale reliability.

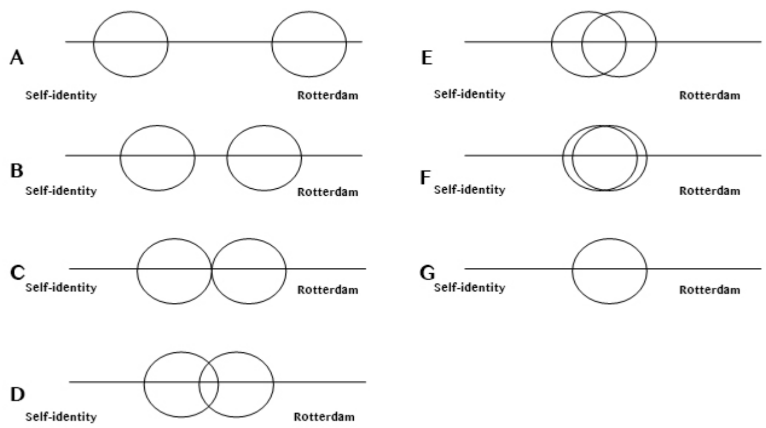


Figure 2: visual diagram of degree of overlap between self-definition and the perceived identity of Rotterdam

4.2.2 City brand attitude

The items comprising the city brand attitude composite were taken from previous brand attitude scales (Delgado-Ballester & Manuera-Aleman, 2001; Low & Lamb, 2000; Merrilees, Miller, &

Herington, 2009; Zenker, Petersen, & Anholt, 2013) and adapted to the city setting, in a similar fashion already executed and validated by Merrilees (2009; 2012). A number of items were further added based upon Bhattacharya & Sen (2003). To acknowledge a city cannot be seen on its own, the attitude towards Rotterdam in comparison to other cities was included into the scale (e.g. "Rotterdam stands out from other popular cities in the Netherlands"). Moreover, two questions were added on whether respondents would recommend others to visit Rotterdam, acknowledging the important role of word of mouth promotion in image formation (Braun, Zenker, & Kavaratzis, 2013), as well as an expression of one's positive attitudes and identification with an object (Buttle, 1998). As a result the attitude scale composed 9 items derived from multiple previously validated brand attitude scales. All scales are fully specified in appendix C of this paper. The internal consistency of the scale was again sufficient for both the non-residents' (M=28,97, SD= 5,19, α = 0,807) and the residents' (M=34,63, SD=4,221, α=0,812) sample.

4.2.3 Functional congruence

An extensive list of items was composed to measure the functional features of a city, as the list of utilitarian evaluative criteria individuals search for in cities could be rather diverse. Various studies on the antecedents of residents city satisfaction, and attitudes towards the city and it's branding have been conducted (most notably: Zenker, Petersen, & Anholt, 2013; Zenker, 2011; Merrilees, Miller, & Herington, 2009), which provided a source of potential features to be included in the functional congruity measurement. Initially, a multi-attribute model based on Fishbein (1967), was used to capture both evaluative beliefs about the city's functional attributes, as well as the importance weights of pertaining them.

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} Bi * Wi$$

The formula is in line with Katz's (1960) reasoning on the utilitarian attitude functions, arguing: *'the closer these objects are to actual need satisfaction and the more they are clearly perceived as relevant to need satisfaction, the greater are the probabilities of positive attitude formation'.* Beliefs where measured on a 5 point Likert scale ranging from 1=worst to 5=ideal level for a city. The weight of each believe was measured using a similar 5 point Likert scale ranging from 1= not important at all, to 5=very important. Any functional attribute commonly regarded to be unimportant could be eliminated from the list. However, as can be seen in in the table 1 of appendix D, both residents and non-residents ranked all items relatively similar and none of them really qualified for dismissal (the lowest average importance weight was still above value 3).

When using the weighted belief model, the main issue is that combinations of weights and believes could end up in similar scores, while having completely different meanings. Ranking an attribute on the worst possible situation (1) while being highly important (5), would end up with a similar score as an attribute having the ideal score (5), while being not important at all (1) to a particular respondent. However, when comparing the weighted belief scale, the rescaled weighted belief scale, and the ordinary sum of all beliefs, it turned out, they all shared a Pearson correlation above 0.98 (at p=0,01; 2-tailed significance level), and accordingly the weighted scales did not provide additional explanatory power in the model. Therefore, functional congruence will be measured simply using:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} Bi$$

As a functional congruity is a formative indicator, an average composite was used. Although a more detailed specification of different factors may be more interesting for managerial purposes, it is not the scope of this research. This information can be provided upon request.

4.2.4. Control variables

Finally, the length of stay at one's current place of residence (Kasadra & Janowitz, 1974), gender (Berg, 2011) and the environment in which one grew up (Twigger-Ross & Uzzell, 1996), are included as covariates for the full model. Theoretically these variables will be relevant in explaining the evaluation of Rotterdam, while they behave stable over the different sample groups. Length of stay will probably make common sense, as identification with a place and favorable attitudes may grow over time. Gender is an interesting covariate to consider, as Rotterdam is known to have a masculine image. Indeed, Rotterdam once had a branding campaign named 'La city', in which they aimed to create a feminine image around the city, including multiple events, in order to appeal more to women and the gay community (Berg, 2011). This was an attempt of 'genderfication' rather than gentrification of the neighborhood. Whether showing a feminine side of the city was effective remains ambiguous (Berg, 2011). Childhood environment is another covariate of interest as place referent continuity (place as a coherent reference of one's past), has been identified as a factor explaining one's place of reference and related bonds and attitudes by various authors (Twigger-Ross & Uzzell, 1996). From the statistical perspective, the covariates must be independent from the experimental effect. 'This is a prerequisite for control variables which is often ignored or misunderstood by *many people' (Miller & Chapman, 2001). 'When treatment groups differ on the covariate than putting the covariate into the analysis will not control for or balance out those differences'* (Field, 2013). The three control variables used, suit the model theoretically and statistically, and were therefore included when testing the full model.

5. Results

5.1 Inspecting the final data set

Except for the social identification measure for residents in the value expressive treatment group, all scales followed a normal distribution in the different samples. Whereas the Attitudes scale failed the Levene's for homogeneity of variance based on its mean, theory tells that in a skewed distribution the median will provide more reliable test results (Brown & Forsythe, 1974). As the Skewness Z-statistic of Z =2,177 indicates the data were indeed skewed to the right, the relevant test statistic measured from the median proves the hypothesis of homogeneity cannot be rejected (p = 0,069). The proposed theoretical framework is in essence a moderated two serial mediation model, or multi-step multiple mediation (Hayes, Preacher, & Myers, 2010). The related analysis was performed using the SPSS macro PROCESS (Hayes, 2012). The macro uses an ordinary least square path analysis to estimate the direct and indirect effects of the advertisements on residents- and non-residents' attitude towards Rotterdam (model: ad-group/residence combination → social identity → functional congruence → city brand attitude). Potential issues with non-normally distributed error terms were tackled by using the bootstrap method (Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

The macro also enables one to adapt for heteroscedastic consistent error terms in case the descriptive statistics indicate violation of the homoscedasticity assumption in the model. In case of violation of the homoscedasticity assumption, the estimated coefficient remains unaffected, but the estimation of the standard errors and related probability intervals are influenced. Due to this bias in a model, hypotheses risk to be accepted or rejected while not justified, or at least to be lower in power (Long & Ervin, 2000). According to Hayes (2012), *this can be particularly problematic when those standard errors are then used in subsequent computations in mediation or moderation analysis.* PROCESS allows one to use heteroscedastic consistent standard error estimations to tackle this issue. In order to make inferences about effect sizes and indirect effects, in a number of cases the bootstrapping method was implemented to obtain bias corrected 95% confidence intervals. When using bootstrap intervals the choice of standard error estimation does not affect the confidence interval, as the standard errors are not used for their computation (Hayes, 2012).

5.2 Relations between measured constructs, Hypothesis 1 till 3.

First the proposed relations between social identification, functional congruence and attitude was tested, related to the first three hypotheses. By first considering the scales in isolation, the direct and indirect effect sizes and the predicted biasing effect of social identification on functional attribute evaluation of a city can be examined. Consistent with H1 and H2, respondents with a high level of social identification with Rotterdam (i.e. a large overlap between their self-image and their perception of Rotterdam), as well as those ranking the city high on the functional attributes, had a more positive attitude towards the city. That is, the higher the level of social identification the more positive the respondent's attitude towards the city (b = 0.375, SD=0,029, t = 14,374, *p*= 0,000), all else equal. Similarly, higher functional congruency was positively related to the respondent's attitude towards a city (b = 1.101, SD= 0,094, t=12,780; *p*= 0,000), ceteris paribus.

These effects remain significant at a 0,001 level when both effects are taken together in the mediation model. In this mediation model, the effect of functional congruence on attitude towards the city was significant and positive (b = 0,619 SD=0,092, t=6,687; *p* = 0,000 and the effect of social identity on attitude towards the city was also significant and positive (b = 0,254 SD =0,04, t= 8,565; *p*=0,000), as can be seen in the right column of table 1.

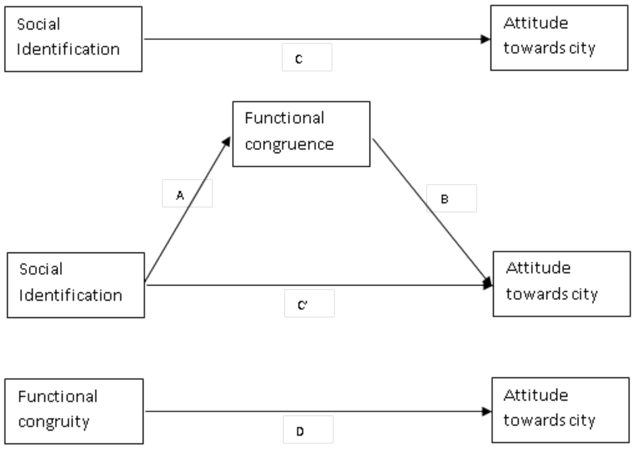


Figure 2 hypothesized relationships

	Resident	Stand. Beta	Non-Resident	Stand. Beta	Total	Stand. Beta
A: SI → FC	0,145 (0,04) ***	0,461	0,197 (0,04) ***	0,504	0,195 (0,02) ***	0,609
B: FC → Att (ID)	0,593 (0,15) ***	0,369	0,597 (0,14) ***	0,395	0,619 (0,10) ***	0,382
C`: SI → Att (FC)	0,205 (0,06) ***	0,406	0,253 (0,06) ***	0,428	0,254 (0,04) ***	0,489
C: SI → Att	0,291 (0,05) ***	0,576	0,371 (0,05) ***	0,627	0,375 (0,03) ***	0,722
D: FC → Att	0,894 (0,146) ***	0,556	0,923 (0,12) ***	0,611	1,101 (0,086) ***	0,680
R^2 A	0,216		0,254		0,371	
R^2 BC	0,439		0,509		0,613	
R^2 C'	0,332		0,393		0,521	
R^2 D	0,31		0,373		0,462	
R^2 M	0,202 (,073)		0,257 (0,057)		0,371 (0,05)	
Indirect effect	0,086 (0,036) **		0,118 (0,312) **		0,121 (0,024) **	
Stand. indirect	0,170 (0,067)		0,199 (0,050)		0,233 (0,043)	
Kappa ^{2}	0,185 (0,065)		0,221 (0,048)		0,267 (0,042)	
Sobel test	*p*=0,010		*p*=0,001		*p*=0,000	

`* = *p* < .10; ** = *p* < .05; *** = *p* <.001

Table 2: beta's and relationships of outcome variables for resident, non-residents and total

Hypothesis 3 stated that people who identify more strongly with Rotterdam have a positively biased perception of its functional attributes. The positive and significant values for relation 'a' in all samples, supported the hypothesis that functional congruity is a positive function of social identification, (b = 0,195; t= 10,594; *p*=0,000). The indirect effect social congruence has on city attitudes through perceived social congruence could further be analyzed by kappa^2, which represents quite a large effect: kappa^2 = 0,267 (Preacher & Kelley, 2011). The R^2 M value of 0,371 could be seen as a variance in attitudes shared by social identification and functional congruence, which cannot be attributed to either in isolation. Meanwhile, identification on its own remained the strongest predictive factor in the model. All parameters thus seem to confirm the hypothesis of a positive biasing effect, however, a bidirectional effect could and should certainly not be ruled out here. Individuals could also identify with a city because it serves their demands in functional attributes well. This side note will be taken into account when testing the full model later on.

5.3 Measured outcomes on attitude function

Sirgy et al. (1991) argued that the greater the utilitarian nature of a product, the greater the likelihood that multi-attribute models would capture a larger portion of the total variance in attitude towards it. In line with this reasoning, hypothesis 4 (stating cities are more utilitarian in nature for non-residents) will be evaluated. Vise-versa for value-expressive entities, which cities are hypothesized to be for residents, a greater proportion of variance should be explained by the place identification scale. In table 1, an overview of the different beta's and R^2 values is provided for the resident and non-resident sample, as well as the total sample of respondents. Clearly, hypothesis 4 has to be rejected, as both for residents and non-residents the social identity appeared to be the most influential predictor for attitudes. For non-residents, the standardized beta and R-squared for social identity as a predictor of attitude were even higher than for residents, (Beta =0,611; R^2 = 0,373 vs. Beta = 0,556; R^2 = 0,31). Even though external groups may not identify with the city of Rotterdam (witnessing the lower values on social identification), their own social identity has predictive power over attitudes for the external group as well as for residents.

No hypotheses were explicitly specified concerning the liking or disliking of the different ad types. However, in order to enlarge changes respondents would read and evaluate the advertisements, respondents were asked to rate the presented ads on likeability, credibility and representativeness for the city, measured on a 5-point bipolar scale. In the table below the mean scores are displayed. Literature tells that advertisement matching the attitude functions of the recipients, should aside of the higher persuasiveness and effectiveness, also be more positively evaluated and considered to be more credible (Johar & Sirgy, 1991). No significant differences were found for the advertisements based on the functional attributes of the city. Contrarily, the value expressive advertisements including city ambassadors were evaluated significantly more favorable by residents than non-residents, as can be seen in Table 3 below. Within the sample groups, residents ranked the ambassador-featured advertisements better on all scales, with the likability and representativeness being significantly higher. Non-residents in turn, evaluated the informative advertisements more positively on average, albeit not on a significant level.

Advertisement evaluation

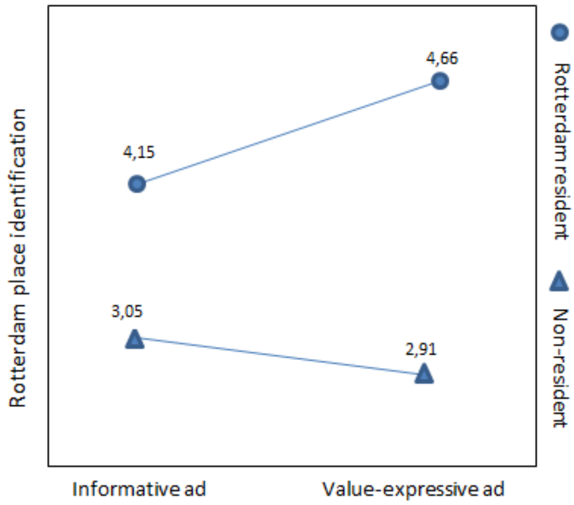
Value expressive ads									
	Residents		Non-Residents						
	M	SD	M	SD	t	df	p	Bootstrap	
Likeability	3,97	0,58	3,415	0,70	-4,07	89	0,000	-0,823	-0,283
Credibility	3,74	0,43	3,463	0,64	-2,43	84,59	0,017	-0,501	-0,05
Representative	3,96	0,41	3,531	0,61	-4,00	83,89	0,000	-0,643	-0,216
Utilitarian ads									
	Residents		Non-residents						
	M	SD	M	SD	T	df	p	Bootstrap	
Likeability	3,59	0,57	3,56	0,58	-0,30	99	0,767	-0,262	0,194
Credibility	3,67	0,51	3,65	0,59	-0,18	99	0,861	-0,237	0,199
Representative	3,69	0,56	3,58	0,45	-1,10	99	0,272	-0,309	0,088

Table 3: mean scores advertisement evaluation by residents and non-residents

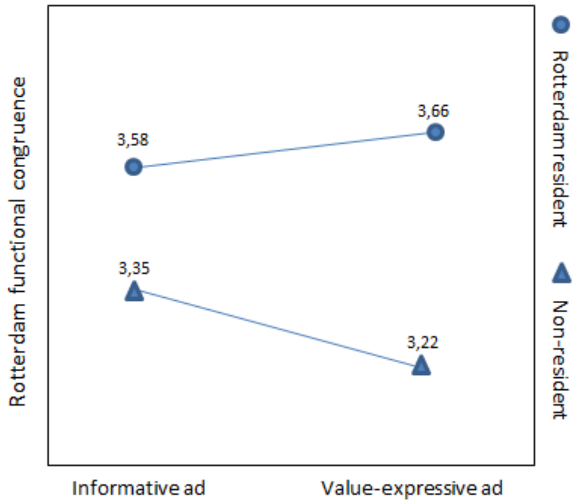
5.4 The moderating effect of advertisement types

To test hypothesis 5 we will first consider whether there is a significant interaction effect between the sample group and the stimuli material of advertisements.[4] According to the theoretical framework we expected to primarily see a change in social identification with Rotterdam in the separate treatment groups. Consistent with this expectation, a significant interaction effect was found for resident and advertisement groups (b = 0,654, SE = 0,269, t = 2,431, p = 0,016). The R-squared change of the full model due to the moderation is subtle but significant (R-squared-change = 0,019, F (1;185)= 5,99, p = 0,015). As can be seen in the graphs on the right, the differences were not exactly as hypothesized though.

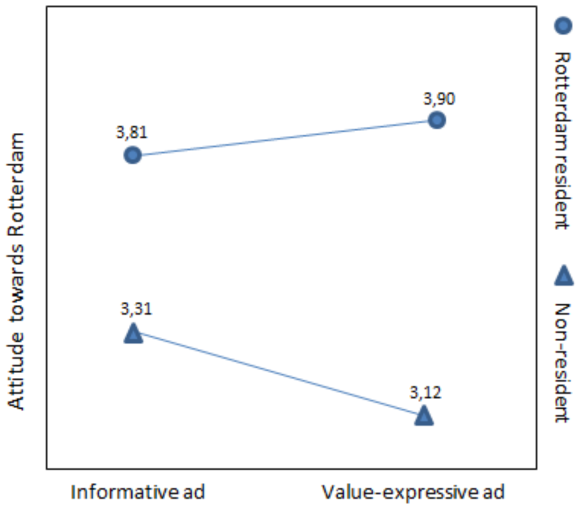
Graph 2 Interaction Residence-Ad-group



Graph 3 Interaction Residence-Ad-group



Graph 4 Interaction Residence-Ad-group



It appears that value expressive ads do not provoke counter social identities as expected, or at least, do not do so on a higher degree than the utilitarian ads. There is a significant interaction effect, but the underlying behavior is not exactly as hypothesized in hypothesis 5a. When looking for further interactions between the stimulus material and sample groups, we do find a significant interaction effect with respect to the evaluation of the functional attributes of the city, that is, the functional congruence (b = 0,208, t= 2,119, *p* = 0,035). Similar to the case of social identity, the change in exploratory power of the model due to inclusion of the moderation effect is subtle but significant (R-squared change = 0,0189, F(1;186) = 4,464, *p* =0,036). In contrast to social identification, responses of non-residents appear to be more volatile than those of residents here. In a way this difference was predicted in hypothesis 5b, albeit in combination with a possibly higher level of social identification to begin with.

Whereas we observe some variance in the residential sample, the evaluation of the functional traits of Rotterdam appears to be more stable. Indeed, we observe a difference in mean scores on a 10% significance level for non-residents whereas no significant difference was observed in the resident group. Contrarily, social identification is significantly higher for the ambassador ad treatment group for Rotterdam residents on a 5% significance level, while more or less unaffected for individuals living outside the city of Rotterdam.

[4] By looking at the interaction effects, we derive whether the effect of seeing one type of advertisement is significantly different for the two sample groups.

	Identification scale	Functional congruity	Attitude scale
(Constant)	2,853 (0,355)***	3,272 (0,103)***	3,441 (0,203)***
Rotterdam Resident	1,077 (0,185)***	0,231 (0,068)***	0,481 (0,106)***
Ad group	-0,162 (0,184)	-0,13 (0,068) *	-0,194 (0,105)*
interaction	0,654 (0,267)**	0,208 (0,099)**	0,295 (0,153)*
Environ	0,220 (0,139)	0,022 (0,051)	0,049 (0,080)
Length:	0,071 (0,047)	0,013 (0,017)	-0,020 (0,027)
Gender	-0,278 (0,144) *	--	-0,102 (0,082)
R	0,641	0,462	0,536
R^2	0,411	0,214	0,287
Adjusted R^2	0,392	0,193	0,264
R^2change interaction	0,019**	0,019**	0,014*

* = $p < .10$; ** = $p < .05$; *** = $p < .001$

Table 4: Moderation of outcome variables due to stimuli material

Finally, the attitude towards the city did not show a significant interaction effect at a 5% significance level, but it did on at a 10% significance level (b = 0,295; t = 1,944; p = 0,053). Although the effect is only slightly above the 'holy grail' of the 5% significance cut-off, we would generally not expect to see large differences in attitudes after seeing a few advertisements. Indeed the resident sample showed a fairly flat line and no significant difference in mean scores exist between the two treatment groups.

Although it has not been explicitly hypothesized advertisements will significantly influence social identification and perceived functional congruence within the sample groups, testing provided some moderately significant results as well[5]. As for non-residents, we did see a difference which just makes the 10% cut off point. It appears that changing the attitude of the out-group are more flexible than those of the residents, who typically more strongly identify with their own city and will lay stronger claims on what is Rotterdam and what not. In table 5, it is shown the significant interaction effects in attitude and functional congruence were mainly attributable to changes in the non-resident sample, whereas residents are the active component responsible for the interaction effect in social identification.

Outcome measures

Residents									
	Ambassador ads		Informative ads						
	M	SD	M	SD	t	df	p	Bootstrap	
Identification	4,66	0,85	4,15	0,94	-2,69	89	0,01	-0,88	-0,13
Functional	3,66	0,38	3,58	0,31	-1,36	89	0,18	-0,20	0,04
Attitude	3,90	0,27	3,81	0,54	-0,98	89	0,33	-0,29	0,10
Non-residents									
	Ambassador ads		Informative ads						
	M	SD	M	SD	t	df	p	Bootstrap	
Identification	2,91	1,00	3,05	0,96	0,75	99	0,46	-0,24	0,53
Functional	3,22	0,41	3,35	0,34	1,68	99	0,10	-0,02	0,28
Attitude	3,12	0,58	3,31	0,56	1,73	99	0,09	-0,03	0,42

* = $p < .10$; ** = $p < .05$; *** = $p < .001$

Table 5: mean scores resident/non-resident sample for different advertisements

[5] A moderation effect may be significant because the effects behave differently for the two sample groups, while the moderator itself may not predict significant differences within the sample group itself.

5.5 Full model testing

In order to test the complete proposed path in the model, Hayes process (Hayes, 2012) macro is utilized. The complete statistical representation of the model outlined below, in which the dashed lines are tested, which are not part of the proposed model and should therefore turn out to be insignificant. As shown in table 6, the effect size loadings and significant relations were consistent with those predicted in the theoretical framework. The corresponding bootstrap intervals confirmed the expected positive relationships between the composed scales, as well as the previously shown moderating effect of stimuli material for treatment groups' social identification. Noteworthy is also the significant negative effect of gender on the fit with the perceived identity of Rotterdam (b = -0,278, t = -0,197, p = 0,050). The value indicates that irrespective of treatment group and place of residence, on average women identify less strongly with Rotterdam.

	b	Bootstrap interval
a1	**1,077 (0,187) *****	**(0,709; 1,445)**
a2	0,042 (0,066)	(-0,090; 0,173)
a3	**0,178 (0,030)*****	**(0,119; 0,236)**
b1	**0,244 (0,040) *****	**(0,166; 0,322)**
b2	**0,591 (0,099) *****	**(0,396; 0,786)**
I1	**0,654 (0,269) ****	**(0,123; 1,185)**
I2	0,092 (0,092)	(-0,090; 0,273)
I3	0,012 (0,108)	(-0,201; 0,226)
c1	**0,481 (0,111) *****	**(0,262; 0,700)**
c1'	0,081 (0,093)	(-0,103; 0,264)
Sig Cova1	Gender -0,278 (0,141) *	
Sig Cova2,3	----	
Sig Covb	Length -0,045 (0,021)**	
Ind. effect	0,400 (0,081)	(0,250; 0,575)
R-sq a1	0,411	
R-sq a23	0,395	
R-sq b	0,634	
R-sq c	0,287	

* = p < .10; ** = p < .05; *** = p <.001

Table 6: bold values are hypothesized relationships, corresponding to continuous lines in figure 4

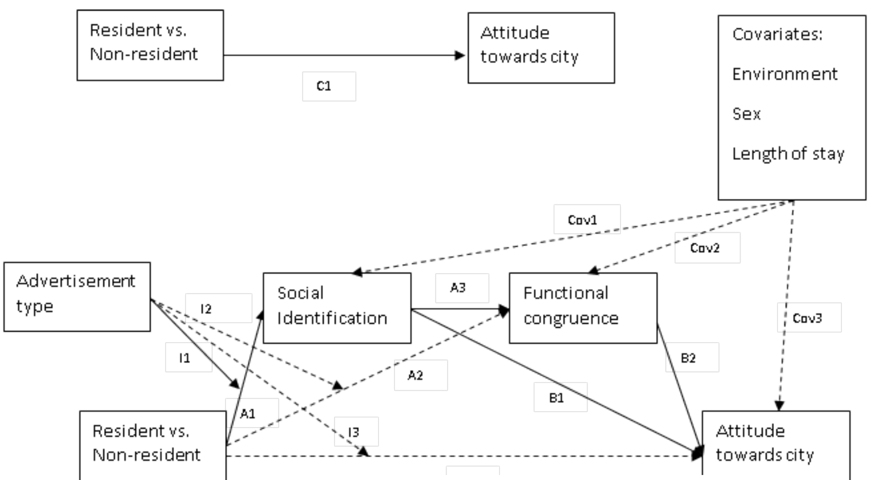


Figure 4: full tested statistical model.

5.5.1 Analysis of the full model for separate sample groups

Previous findings indicated that for the non-resident sample group, no significant alteration in social identification was observed, but instead, in the evaluation of the functional attributes associated with Rotterdam. Therefore, at last the model was run for the two sample groups separately. This allows us to test hypothesis 6a and 6b and to infer whether interchanging the social identification and functional congruence path, would result in stronger outcomes for the non-resident sample. If so, this would reason to consider another causal ordering of the mediators for residents and non-residents. The beta's and significant values shown in Table 7 should not be surprising considering the outcomes of the previous analysis. There was a positive significant effect of ambassador advertisements on residents' social identification, as compared to functional advertisements, while no significant effects were found for the external group. Contrarily, when changing the ordering of causal mediators, we found a negative beta for ambassador ads in predicting non-residents functional congruence ($b = -0,312$, $t = -1,733$, $p = 0,086$) on a 10% significance level, while no significant effects were shown for residents.

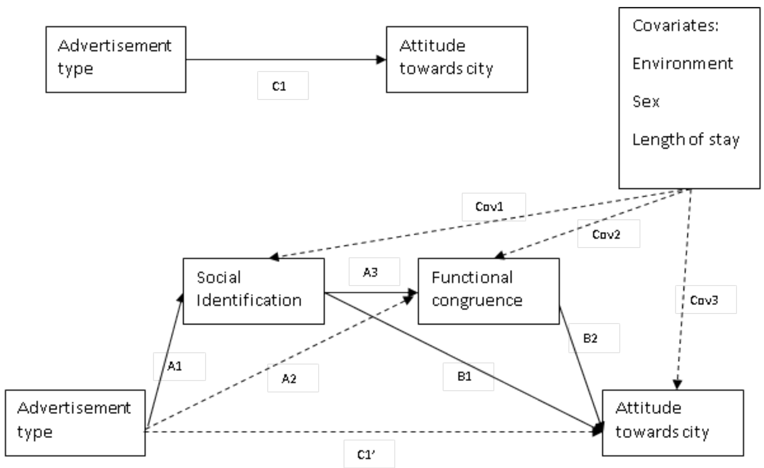


Figure 5: Effects of advertisements in different sample groups. Causal path 1 depicted.

	Ad → ID → FuncCon → Attitude		Ad → FuncCon → ID → Attitude	
	Resident b	Non-Resident b	Resident b	Non-Resident b
a1	**0,465 (0,182) ****	-0,150 (0,200)	0,086 (0,057)	**-0,132 (0,076)***
a2	0,026 (0,064)	-0,101 (0,0663)	**0,364 (0,172)****	0,0355 (0,168)
a3	**0,129 (0,050) ****	**0,207 (0,348) *****	**1,179 (0,362)****	**1,409 (0,198)*****
b1	**0,235 (0,054) *****	**0,251 (0,0590)*****	**0,597 (0,153)*****	**0,600 (0,141)*****
b2	**0,597 (0,153) *****	**0,600 (0,1410) *****	**0,235 (0,054)*****	**0,251 (0,060)*****
c1'	-0,060 (0,071)	-0,077 (0,0835)	-0,060 (0,038)	-0,077 (0,084)
c1	0,101 (0,982)	*-0,193 (0,117)*	0,101 (0,098)	*-0,193 (0,117)*

* = $p < .10$; ** = $p < .05$; *** = $p <.00$

Table 7: Beta's for separate sample groups and stimuli material

Most interesting for testing hypothesis 6 though, were the reported indirect effects. When using the initially proposed path of social-identification, the resident sample behaved consistent with our predictions. There was a significant indirect effect of advertisement type through social identification on attitudes (a1b1)(b=0,1094; SD 0,052; bootstrap (0,0262; 0,238)) and a second indirect effect of advertisement type running through social identification to functional congruence and next on the attitudes towards the city (a1a3b2)(b = 0,036; SD = 0,023; bootstrap (0,008; 0,115)). In contrast, no significant indirect effects were found for the non-resident sample, when using the causal path of model 1. As shown in Table 8 below.

	Resident		Non-Resident	
Model 1, ID → FC	Effect (SD)	Bootstrap	Effect (SD)	Boostrap 95%
Total	**0,161 (0,069)****	**(0,045; 0,318)**	*-0,117 (0,081)*	*(-0,296; 0,034)*
Indirect1	**0,109 (0,052)****	**(0,026; 0,238)**	-0,038 (0,051)	(-0,160; 0,046)
Indirect2	**0,036 (0,023)****	**(0,008; 0,115)**	-0,019 (0,024)	(-0,074; 0,023)
Indirect3	0,016 (0,036)	(-0,057; 0,089)	-0,060 (0,040)	(-0,1434; 0,013)

Indirect effect key

Indirect1 :	Ad-group	→	Identify	→	Attitude		
Indirect2 :	Ad-group	→	Identify	→	Functional	→	Attitude
Indirect3 :	Ad-group	→	Functional	→	Attitude		

* = p < .10; ** = p < .05; *** = p <.00

Table 8 indirect effects for separate sample groups and stimuli material

When changing the causal path order, however, we found a significant indirect effect of advertisement type through perceived functional congruence on attitudes towards the city. It just missed the 5% significance cut-off point, witnessing the bootstrap interval, however it will be significant on a 10% level (a1'b1')(b=-0,079; SD= -0,043; bootstrap (-0,175, 0,004)). Moreover, the indirect effect of advertisement type through functional congruence on social identification and subsequently attitudes towards the city is shown to be significant on a 95% confidence interval (a1'a3'b2')(b = -0,0465; SD = 0,030; bootstrap (-0,126, -0,003)). For the resident sample, however, the only significant indirect effect flows directly through social identification again (a2'b2') (b = 0,086, SD = 0,046, bootstrap = 0,015, 0,198), while indirect effects flowing through functional congruence first being insignificant (See Table 9). As a result of the described findings hypothesis 6b could be accepted.

The positive and significant indirect beta's indicate the ambassador advertisements do indeed positively influence city brand attitudes, first by influencing social identity, and subsequently by the perceived functional attributes and attitudes. As for the external group, Hypothesis 6a cannot be fully accepted, since the casual path of the indirect effect did only run partially as proposed in the theoretical framework. However, the data support the prediction advertisements will influence attitudes through functional congruence and social identification. Also, whereas hypothesis 4 previously had to be rejected, this outcomes show that whereas functional attributes may not be the main determinant in predicting external groups' attitude towards Rotterdam, it actually is the main component when it comes to altering those attitudes though advertisements.

	Resident		Non-Resident	
Model 2, FC→ ID	Effect (SD)	Bootstrap	Effect (SD)	Bootsrap 95%
Total:	**0,161 (0,071)****	**(0,034; 0,319)**	*-0,117 (0,079)*	*(-0,276; 0,032)*
Indirect1	0,051 (0,037)	(-0,013; 0,139)	**-0,079 (0,043)***	**(-0,175; 0,004)**
Indirect2	0,024 (0,018)	(-0,001; 0,077)	**-0,047 (0,030)****	**(-0,126; -0,003)**
Indirect3	**0,086 (0,046)****	**(0,015; 0,198)**	0,009 (0,044)	(-0,081; 0,010)

Indirect effect key

Indirect1 : Ad-group → Functional → Attitude

Indirect2 : Ad-group → Functional → Identity → Attitude

Indirect3 : Ad-group → Identity → Attitude

* = p < .10; ** = p < .05; *** = p <.00

Table 9: indirect effects for separate sample groups and stimuli material

6. Discussion

In the search for effective and actionable tailored city brand communication, the purpose of this paper was to assess and clarify differences in the perception and effects of city brand communication of different stakeholder groups. It addressed an existing gap in empirical testing of brand communication in the context of city branding. Combining theories of the functional approach to attitudes (Katz, 1960) and attitude changes (Kelman, 1961; Wood, 2000) with recent environmental psychology and city brand publications, this study hypothesized that different framing of city brand communication would result in opposite evaluations and effects for non-residents and residents. Consistent with the predictions, residents indicated a higher level of place identification and subsequently more positive attitudes towards the city after seeing the ambassador advertisements. Non-residents indicated higher levels of perceived functional congruence and a more positive attitude towards Rotterdam, after seeing the utilitarian advertisements. The data provided small but statistically significant support for the mediation model.

6.1.1 Placing numbers in perspective

Advertisements had a subtle positive indirect effect on attitudes in line with the hypotheses for both treatment groups. By expressing the findings solely in numbers and significance levels, the constructs remain at a rather abstract level though. For social identification, a translation to the visual plot is most comprehensive[6]. We see that the average non-resident respondent did not perceive any overlap between their self-image and the identity attributed to Rotterdam. Furthermore, no significant differences as result of stimuli material were found. For residents in turn, the utilitarian ad group had a majority of respondents indicating a small overlap, whereas in the ambassador ad group, a small majority indicated a moderate overlap with the identity they perceived for Rotterdam. Consistent with Van den Berg's (2011) findings, women generally identified less with Rotterdam, which suggests the image attributed to the city is indeed more masculine.

As predicted, the functional congruence scale was only influenced for non-residents, while stable for residents in both treatment groups. Similarly, as residents will more often base their attitude upon personal experiences, it was not expected advertisements could influence their attitudes right away. Whereas the significant improvement of social identification with Rotterdam among residents in the value-expressive ad-sample, appears as a very positive outcome, the results should be interpreted with some caution. The arousal of feelings and cognitions related to social identification may evoke (temporal) related civic consciousness and local pride. '*Residents may become advocates for the brand through word-of- mouth communication. Internal buy-in of a city's branding efforts from residents can promote greater synergy and pride in the city's branding strategy*' (Elyria, Childers, & Williams, 2012).

6.1.2 Determining the attitude function

The current study suggests that separating the residents and non-residents provide a reasonable and actionable distinction in attitude functions, and accordingly in the effectiveness of brand communication (Snyder & DeBono, 1985). As discussed in the results section however, the

[6] Visual representation of perceived overlap between self-identity and perceived image of Rotterdam is depicted in figure 2 on page 25.

utilized method (Sirgy et al. 1991) to determine the most dominant attitude function served, failed to support hypothesis 4[7]. Although attitudes of non-residents towards another city may indeed primarily serve a value-expressive function (this option will be discussed next), it should be noted, that testing the primary function an attitude serves is a topic surrounded by ambiguity. "*The lack of an accepted methodology for identifying or manipulating attitude functions meant that these provocative theories lay dormant for a quarter century or more."* (Shavitt & Nelson, 2002).

On the other hand, '*one of the key predictions of functional theory is that messages will be persuasive to the extent that they match the functional underpinnings of the attitude they target'* (Snyder & DeBono, 1985). In line with matching theory, it seems indeed that attitudes of non-residents are more positively influenced by utilitarian advertisements. Social identification of the non-residents sample remained stable in both treatment groups, while perceived functional congruence and attitudes were higher under the utilitarian advertisement condition. Similarly the opposite effects were observed for the case of residents. One side note should be placed in this reasoning though. That is, even though the assumption of positive effects is most viable[8], some caution in interpreting the results is required. Based upon the present results it could not be stated with certainty that the effects are indeed positive, as the research did not apply a 2 x 2 x 2 approach. We can draw comparisons between the two stimuli groups, but can only assume the advertisements have resulted in more positive evaluations in comparison to the situation in which no priming with stimuli material would have been shown.

6.1.3 **Clarifying observed functional congruence and social identification of non-residents**

As noted, one's social identity may be relevant to attitudes, responses and perception of an object, even when the object itself is not value-expressive for the self (e.g., when they refer to an out-group stereotype)(Smeesters, 2010; Deshpandé & Stayman, 1994). *'The extent and direction of influence can depend on factors such as perceived distinctiveness from the primed constructs, the salience of one's identity, and so forth'* (Smeesters, 2010). Indeed for the non-resident group, their own social self-construal could prevent them from identifying with Rotterdam. It may be especially hard to integrate new positive associations into their cognitive believes about the city, when the communicated message features a clear out-group source.

The generally low levels of social identification could indicate that people affiliate with different groups, and their attitude towards Rotterdam potentially serves ego-defensive mechanisms or to maintain self-esteem. What we would have expected to observe in this case though, was that value-expressive advertisements including out-group primes, would result in stronger disassociation from the out-group. Similar to the way Rotterdam residents reported higher levels of social identification after being primed with the value expressive messages and in-group members. It appeared as if the out-group did not to attach additional meanings to the different forms of communicating, and were in terms of social identification with the city, equally (un)effected. Possibly

[7] Hypothesis 4: Attitudes towards the city and related brand communication mainly serves a utilitarian function for non-residents whereas a value-expressive function in the case of residents.

[8] Considering the extensive empirical support across studies using a variety of functional operations and outcome measures for the matching hypothesis (DeBono, 1987; Shavitt, 1990; Shavitt, Lowrey, & Han, 1992; Snyder & DeBono, 1985; Johar & Sirgy, 1991),

the external groups did not perceive cues of out-group distinctiveness when being confronted with the Rotterdam ambassadors. Aaker et al. (2000) found that advertising directed at non-distinctive groups generally does not lead to similarity judgments or does induce dissimilarity judgments for both in-group and out-group members.

6.2 Academic relevance

Basically this study supports previous authors (most notably Braun and Zenker) who have opted for different stakeholder approaches in city brand communication, as a response to the differences in needs, claims and knowledge of the city. Authors found that cities will pertain different associations for residents and other stakeholders (e.g. Merrilees, 2012; Zenker & Beckmann, 2013), and explored different levels of effectiveness of the three sources of brand communication (Braun, Eshuis, & Klijn, 2014). This paper shows that different styles of communicating the brand message could also result in different effectiveness.

Despite the fact classical papers of Katz and Kelman were primarily concerned with in- and out-group situations, none of the previous papers on city brand communication, to the best of my knowledge, have ever linked theory to the different attitude functions which may prevail in different stakeholders groups and how those are subject to change. Moreover, the large majority of all papers written on city branding remain at a rather theoretical and hypothetical level. The current paper addresses the existing gap in empirically testing the advertisement evaluations and effects for both residents and non-residents in the context of city branding. It expands research on city brand communication by empirically testing the effects and persuasiveness of different advertisements and linking them to functional attitude theories. Although previous research has acknowledged the need to tailor communications to different stakeholder groups, no attempts have been made to also specify this until now.

Although several downfalls could be related to the empirical testing executed here, testing the ads next to each other at the same point in time is valuable. Branding campaigns often last for extended periods of time, and differences in perceptions, likability and effectiveness are hard to be isolated from an extensive list of external factors influencing the image of cities. By looking at the motivational grounds and functions the attitudes serve, one acquires deeper understanding on how related attitudes could be changed through psychological processes and mental perceptions, rather than focusing on explicit attributes and other volatile external factors present in a city. This paper provides insights on how to frame a promotional message, how attitudes function, and how this could influence the perception, response and effectiveness of the place brands and their communication. Empirically tested insights on what will and what will not work in city branding, can provide first steps in the development of this field of research.

6.3 Managerial implications

In consumer behavior literature it is well established consumers seek for brands and products, which match both their functional demands and symbolic values (Belk, 1988; Lee & Hyman, 2008; Solomon, 1983; Aaker, 1995). Similarly, attitudes towards a city are under influence of one's social identity and the perceived functional congruence. The persuasiveness of city brand communication will thereby vary with the pre-existing knowledge, social identity and attitude function served for an individual. Advertisements matching the attitude functions of its recipients elicit more favorable attitudes, cognitive responses and are more persuasive (Nelson and Shavitt 1997; Shavitt 1991). Moreover, such ads are considered to be more credible (Johar & Sirgy, 1991).

The functional congruity and related city attitudes of non-residents were most positively affected by informative content (utilitarian advertisements). This could be due to the lower levels of knowledge about actual traits of the city, and due to lower certainty and strength of those believes. The ability to alter functional congruence by providing informative content appeared to be low in the residents sample, which makes sense considering they experience the city first hand on a daily base. Value expressive ads in turn, are likely to evoke identity related responses for both residents and non-residents. The salience of in-group membership positively influenced residents' feelings of place identification. In the current study value expressive advertisements did not appear to result in increased dissimilarity judgments or social distancing by non-residents. However, value-expressive ads showed to be less effective when compared to utilitarian ads. The matching or mismatching of elements relevant to the goals of the recipient thus influences the nature of processing of a persuasive message.

Whereas attitude changes based upon utilitarian evaluations are considered to be more lasting than those resulting from social identity, the two concepts are also interrelated. Effective changes in the utilitarian or belief component result in changes of the affective or social identity component (Katz, 1960). Just as individuals socially identifying with a place tend to have a positively biased view on its utilitarian attributes. The current findings suggest that attitudes, functional evaluation and social identification could potentially be positively moderated for both groups, as these constructs are all interrelated. The ability to positively influence one of the constructs was shown to be different for the internal and external stakeholders though. The findings argue in favour of differentiated brand communication, yet show that this differentiation may in part be found in the framing of the message instead of merely the topics.

6.4 The case of Rotterdam

Obviously the amount of respondents and composed scales can only support and certainly not prove any of the hypotheses. However, the present study may provide some cues on which messages should be sent to which target groups, in what situations usage of in-group ambassadors are more and less effective. Considering the case of Rotterdam, various city brand attempts have been executed over the past decade. The main campaigns were "Rotterdam durft" and R"otterdam World Port World City"[9], which provided the inspiration for the current study. Also the used ambassadors and advertisement outlay are directly based on the guidelines provided by the city itself. Interestingly, both campaigns also differ according to the proposed dichotomy in this paper. Just as IAmsterdam, BeBerlin and I love NY have a more value-expressive character as opposed to the World City brand of Rotterdam. Clearly, city brand communication involves much more than a slogan and logo. Nevertheless, the difference in style and feel in the topline communication is evident.

On a personal note, I would opt for a similar campaign for Rotterdam, under the name '**WeR**otterdam'. Even though this could appear as a cheap copy of the Amsterdam brand to some,

[9] Advertisement examples to be found in appendix B

the contrasting of the cities could enhance the local pride and civic consciousness. Identity salience appeared to be relatively easy to stimulate for residents, while not being triggered for non-residents. Meanwhile informative advertisements appeared to work best for external groups, who actually encountered new information. Combining those would argue in favour of a more hybrid form with different elements appealing to separate groups. Rotterdam is a city built upon fellowship, hard labor, resilience and a has a dynamic character. By comparing and yet contrasting the egocentric (I) versus united character (we) of the value expressive nature, I believe a more valuable contribution can be made than with the current 'World City'. By linking multiple utilitarian sub brands to it, based on the many amenities present in the city, the brand communication could simultaneously provide the information external groups may look for. Meanwhile, a value-expressive branding campaign could suite Amsterdam better, as arguably more people identify with the freedom, innovation, success and creative class often associated with Amsterdam. The brand of '*IAmsterdam*' obviously comes closest to what a social identity or value-expressive appeal could be. The fact also non-residents would consider the city to be value-expressive for themselves, makes that the related suitable persuasive messages could differ. This, however, could only be stated at a speculative level at this point, and would require research on more cities aside of Rotterdam. This automatically brings us to the study's limitations and suggestions for further research.

6.5 Study limitations

The current study focused on the question whether city brand messages would have any effect on the perceptions and attitudes of respondents. Although this allows for singling out the effects of such communication, and accounting for their influence potential, it possibly misses effects observable in reality. The fairly high drop-our rates of the respondents taking the survey do not stem positive on an attention getting perspective. *´Wells* (1993) *noted that laboratory research on advertising, in which consistent levels of attention to stimuli are generally assured, has led to a neglect of the factors that drive attention and sometimes to erroneous conclusions´* (Shavitt & Nelson, 2002). Whereas matching persuasive messages to the relevant attitude functions of recipients could provide favourable results within a controlled environment, this will be irrelevant as long as the advertisement fails to grasp the attention of target groups in real life situations.

Moreover, the current study only uses self-reported constructs in order to measure outcome variables, whereas some real-life data would give support to the findings more body and strength. Nevertheless, as theory even lacks consensus on the antecedents of-, relations between- and definitions of the bonds which individuals form with places themselves (Kyle, Graefe, Manning, & Bacon, 2004), quantification or exact measurement of such bonds poses yet another challenge.

On the statistical side, perhaps the most obvious limitation is that the analysis has been conducted using Hayes' process macro. This by itself is not a limitation. However, using ordinary least squares or logistic regression it is officially limited to properly analyzing dependent variables which are continuous. Whereas averaged Likert scales are often considered to be able to be treated as such, strictly speaking they are no continuous variables (Field, 2013). Nevertheless, the used Likert scales closely approximate continuous variables, for which the usage of the process tool is rarely problematic and thus used accordingly by most researchers (Field, 2013; Hayes, 2012).

In addition*, 'because all estimation procedures implemented are based on observed variables, the usual problems associated with measurement error in predictors and outcomes in linear models are in force* (Hayes, 2012). Much larger samples would have been required, to properly use the structured equation modelling in AMOS, using latent variables. This was not considered to be necessary, as the main point in this paper was to simply explore differences between the two sample groups when it comes to effects and responses to persuasive appeals. Now that these first steps have been made and some light shed on the directions of the effects and functions, additional research can be set up using larger samples and more sophisticated statistical analysis, in order to obtain even more concise conclusions.

6.6 Future Research

First off, to be able to tell something about attitudes functions and persuasiveness of city brand communication, a variation of places next to Rotterdam should be assessed. Within the Netherlands, Rotterdam is quite an extraordinary case. It has a distinctive identity and look and feel, being the only city entirely rebuilt after- the Second World War. Further research could delve deeper into the different functions attitudes towards the own and other cities represent, accompanied by the evaluation of some real-life city brand campaigns. It would be interesting to see how attitude functions differ between Amsterdam, Rotterdam and other cities.

Although the concepts of place identification, utilitarian evaluation, and positive attitudes have been linked to the housing choices (Sirgy & Su, 2005), place satisfaction (Zenker, Petersen, & Anholt, 2013), city brand attitudes (Merrilees, Miller, & Herington, 2009; Merrilees, 2012), intentions to migrate (Zenker & Gollan, 2010), and the appreciation of touristic destinations (Sirgy & Su, 2000; Ahn, Ekinci, & Li, 2011), we cannot be certain on their effects in real life. Again the lack of market data limits the validity of the research domain. An important step could be made when these constructs would be linked to actual data of migration, leisure spending, resident retention and city brand attitudes. Till then, the question will remain '*whether the functionally relevant persuasive messages conveyed in the lab also significantly influence social behavior in the field'* (Lavine & Snyder, 1996).

Similarly, addressing the impact of functional matching brand appeals in the real world would be valuable. '*Although functionally matched messages have been shown to elicit greater scrutiny in the laboratory* (DeBono & Harnish, 1987; Petty & Wegener, 1998)*, the* question remains whether the messages will also catch more attention in the competitive communication environment in which they should be placed (Shavitt & Nelson, 2002). In the current study, respondents have been confronted with brand appeals they were requested to read. In the competitive communication environment, differentiation may prove to be even more valuable. Similarly, testing the ability to grasp the attention of various audiences and the degree to which respondents remember the stated promotional messages over an extended period of time, form a research direction that requires more elaboration in the future.

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Appendix A:

Text box 1: Additional information on the history and development of city branding:

In a way, the observed rise of branding activities could also be understood in the light of the post-industrial society. Places previously known to be industrial often struggled to make a successful transformation into a service based economy and to alter their stereotypes (Berg, 2011). The centrality of the topic of re-imaging a place for place marketing practices was determining in the move from city promotion towards city branding (Kavaratzis, 2004). For most commercial goods and services, the advantage of branding is widely recognized and accepted. Here, it helps to differentiate a product in the market, while the product's physics may be similar to that of competitors. By creating associations around the product in the mind of the consumer, not only the generic product is being purchased but also various intangible symbolic merits. This differentiation could allow for higher price setting and aids the formation of cognitive and affective bonds with consumers (Simoes & Dibb, 2001; Hankinson & Cocking, 1993; Elliot & Wattanasuwan, 1998). 'Value can be added to a product without changing the physical characteristics of the product itself' (Ashworth, 2009) . This observation could be especially interesting in the context of cities, considering the place's physical characteristics will be probably be especially hard to change. Meanwhile, people will experience places differently than commercial products.

According to Kavaratzis (2008) three main sources of communication contribute to the formation of the place brand image. Primary communication mainly relates to the place's physics. It comprises the communicative effects of a city's actions while the communication is not the main purpose of such actions. Secondary communication is the intended communication send by the city. This is most commonly understood as the city marketing and branding component, as it includes more familiar marketing practices such as advertising, PR, logo's or other clear promotional measures (Ashworth & Voogd, 1990). Tertiary communication is aimed to be evoked and reinforced positively by the controlled primary and secondary communication, but cannot be controlled by the city council. It refers to the word-of-mouth, or other media and competitors communication. Whether the tertiary communication has positive or negative contributions to the brand image will largely depend on the perception of primary and secondary communication. Most attention in this paper will be dedicated to the secondary form of place brand communication. This form is closest to conventional marketing practices and also most suitable to be manipulated in an experiment**.**

In the early developments of city brand literature, Kotler stated that "one of the major aims for place marketing is to promote a place's values and image so that potential users are fully aware of its distinctive advantages" (Zenker, Petersen, & Anholt, 2013). While being aware of the distinctive advantages and activities provided by a place will be important to all stakeholders, the statement tends to apply especially to external audiences. A place brands has been defined by Zenker and Braun (2010) as "the network of associations in the consumer's mind based on the visual, verbal, and behavioral expression of a place, which is embodied through aims, communication, values and the general culture of the place's stakeholders and overall place design". What is vital here is that we should thus not consider the brand merely as the expressed brand communication or as the actual place physics.

As large cities grow beyond a scale which can be encompassed by an individual, understanding of such a place can be mediated by the communication of images as with branding. Individuals seek for attachment and meanings in a place in order to interact with it on a functional level (Walmsley, 1988). The practices of communicating the place brand in this way, can serve to shape and influence those mental maps in a way deemed to be favorable for future interactions and the creation of personal bonds with it (Erickson & Roberts, 1997) (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005). Marketers or city councils may try to add associations or enhance cognitive and affective bonds, by stressing certain symbolic, experiential, social or emotional values to create the preferred identity. By shaping the perception of a place, the branding and marketing practices should ultimately lead to place brand effects as identification (Azevedo, 2009) (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003) (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000) (Zenker & Peterson, 2010) satisfaction (Fleury-Bahi, 2008) (Zenker, Petersen, & Anholt, 2013) (Zenker, Eggers, & Farksy, 2009) (Bruhn & Grund, 2000), or place attachment (Rollero & piccoli, 2010) (Zenker & Gollan, 2010).

Appendix B

Created advertisements:

ROTTERDAM
WORLDPORT
WORLDCITY

Rotterdam biedt een rijk aanbod aan culturele, culinaire en muzikale activiteiten. Niet voor niets is de stad al drie keer op rij verkozen tot festival- en evenementenstad van het jaar. In 2010 werd de stad zelfs uitgeroepen tot IFEA World Festival & Event City. Bezoekers van over de hele wereld komen naar de stad voor de culturele festivals en het aantal evenementen in de stad neemt alleen maar toe.

Met voorbeelden als het North-Sea-Jazz, het International Filmfestival, De Marathon, de wereldhaven dagen en het Zomercarnaval komt de variatie van de stad naar voren. Rotterdam is een kleurrijke metropool met een aanbod en mogelijkheden voor iedereen.

LTUREWORLDCITYWORLDCULTUREWORLDCITYWORLDC

Port of Rotterdam north sea Jazz NORTHSEAJAZZ.COM

INTERNATIONAL FILM FESTIVAL ROTTERDAM

rotterdam festivals

City of Rotterdam

ROTTERDAM DURF!

"Je moet een uitgaanscultuur creëren die bij een stad past. Rotterdam is het Detroit van Nederland. Rauw. Kaal. Experimenteel. Techno past er goed bij. Klinkt hier beter dan elders." Ted Langenbach: bekend als aanjager van het Rotterdamse nachtleven en man achter de legendarische club Now&Wow.

"Er is een grote jongerencultuur, plus veel ondernemerschap en creativieiteit. Je moet de mensen hier dus de ruimte geven, dan komt het goed. We hadden even een mindere periode, maar met weinig middelen worden er nu weer allerlei mooie initiatieven opgezet. Dat moeten we koesteren, zodat Rotterdam innovatief blijft en internationaal zijn rol behoudt binnen de kunst en cultuur."

NGEBACHTEDLANGEBACHTEDLANGEBACHTEDLANGEBA

Port of Rotterdam north sea Jazz NORTHSEAJAZZ.COM

INTERNATIONAL FILM FESTIVAL ROTTERDAM

rotterdam festivals

City of Rotterdam

ARCHITECTUREWORLDCITYWORLDARCHITECTUREWORLDC

ROTTERDAM WORLDPORT WORLDCITY

Rotterdam is een stad die altijd in beweging is. Deze dynamiek is terug te zien in de unieke skyline. Met zijn vele architectonische highlights is het met recht de architectuur hoofdstad van het land. De recente opleveringen van verticale stad De Rotterdam, het nieuwe centraal station en de eerste markthal van Nederland, zijn tekenend voor de constante ontwikkeling.

Niet voor niks riepen The New York Times en Roughroads Rotterdam uit als must-see voor 2014. Rotterdam groeit, transformeert, vernieuwt en innoveert voortdurend. De stad vergijst niet, maar verjongt. Het is de enige stad die van binnenuit kan groeien, en dat ook waarmaakt.

de ROTTERDAMSE AANPAK

City of Rotterdam

ROTTERDAM DURF!

"Als ik vier weken op vakantie ben geweest, zijn er bij wijze van spreken vier torens bijgebouwd. Ik hou van die dynamiek. Op het geluid van heimachines wordt ik het liefste wakker." Martin van Waardenberg: acteur, cabaratier en ras-rotterdammer: "Er is maar een echte stad en dat is Rotterdam".

"De dynamiek, de chemie, de werklust, het chagrijnige. Ja heerlijk. Lekker kankeren op Feyenoord, het leukste wat er is. En apetrots zijn als het wel een keertje lukt. Als alles goed gaat, is het ook niet leuk. We moeten roeien met de riemen die we hebben, dat heb je als je platgebombardeerd bent. De volgende dag moet je puin gaan ruimen en opbouwen. Daar komt onze mentaliteit vandaan. Geen kapsones: Rotterdammers doen wat ze moeten doen en dat doen ze hard."

ARTiNVANWAARDENBERGMARTiNVANWAARDENBERGMART

de ROTTERDAMSE AANPAK

City of Rotterdam

ROTTERDAM
WORLDPORT
WORLDCITY

Rotterdam is sinds jaar en dag een dynamische talentvolle havenstad, die over zijn grenzen heen kijkt. Als thuisbasis van vele multinationals en een wereldhaven, gelegen op een kruispunt van internationale water- en vluchtwegen, biedt Rotterdam toegang tot vele internationale markten. Instellingen als de Erasmus Universiteit, Willem de Kooning academie en het Nationale Architectuur Instituut leveren daarbij talent van wereldniveau in uiteenlopende disciplines.

De unieke samenwerking tussen bedrijven, de haven en kennisinstellingen zorgt voor een krachtige mix van talent en carrièremogelijkheden. Hiermee is Rotterdam dé plaats waar ambitie, talent, ondernemerschap en creativiteit een kans krijgen.

ENTWORLDCITYWORLDTALENTWORLDCITYWORLDTALEN

RSM Erasmus ERASMUS UNIVERSITY

Rotterdam Carrièrestad

City of Rotterdam

ROTTERDAM DURFT!

“Ik reis de hele wereld over en toch is mijn huis in Rotterdam West, eigenlijk de enige plek waar ik me echt thuis voel.” Marlies Dekkers is een van de vele succesvolle onderneemsters die de stad rijk is. “De goede vibe in de stad stimuleert en motiveert veel mensen: jongeren durven initiatieven te nemen en mensen ontwikkelen hun eigen stijl. ”

“De stad heeft ook mij veel kansen geboden en ik heb me vaak laten inspireren door de culturen, architectuur en mentaliteit van de stad. De Rotterdamse mentaliteit en ambitie passen bij mij: niet lullen maar poetsen, ergens volledig voor gaan en over grenzen heen kijken.”

MARLIESDEKKERSMARLIESDEKKERSMARLIESDEKKERSMA

RSM Erasmus University

Rotterdam Carrièrestad

City of Rotterdam

Appendix C

Survey:

Thesis City brand ads

Q26 Beste respondent, Hartelijk dank voor het deelnemen aan deze questionnaire. Het onderzoek richt zich op de marketing van steden en de ervaring hiervan door verschillende groepen consumenten. In de questionnaire zal gevraagd worden een drietal advertenties over de stad Rotterdam te beoordelen. Hierna volgt een vijftal vragen over jouw algemene perceptie van de stad. Na deze pagina zal de vraagstelling in het Engels verder gaan.   Bedankt voor je tijd!

Q1,2,3 (Questions asked for each of the three informative or value-expressive advertisements shown)

Below, three Rotterdam city brand advertisements will be shown.   Please read the advertisements carefully and rank them on the corresponding scales:

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)
Dislike:Like (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Incredible:Credible (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Misrepresentation:Represenative for the city (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Q4 Please take a moment to consider what attributes and values you associate with the city of Rotterdam. Next, please list three to five attributes or values you associate with Rotterdam. There is no correct or incorrect answer. If you prefer you may file your answer in Dutch.

Q5 Imagine that the circles on the left in each row represent your own self-definition or identity, and the other circle at the right represents the identity of Rotterdam. Please indicate which case (A,B,C,D,E,F,G) best describes your sense of overlap between the two identities

- ❍ **A (1)**
- ❍ **B (2)**
- ❍ **C (3)**
- ❍ **D (4)**
- ❍ **E (5)**
- ❍ **F (6)**
- ❍ **G (7)**

Q6 Please indicate to what extend you agree with the statements listed below, concerning the city of Rotterdam.

	Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Not sure (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
I recognize myself in the city brand identity communicated by Rotterdam (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
If Rotterdam would have been a person he/she would to a large extend be similar to me. (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I think Rotterdam and I are perceived as similar in terms of personality by the people around me. (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I would like to be perceived by others as similar to the personality of Rotterdam (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Q7 The following are some city features. There is no correct or incorrect answer. Please check the box which indicates your feelings about each city feature. How do you perceive and rank the following city attributes in Rotterdam, as compared to your ideal city situation?

	Worst (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	Ideal (5)
Access to outdoor recreational areas (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Tranquility of the place (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Environmental quality and Cleanness of the city (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Innovative and creative business environment (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Good job and promotion opportunities (5)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Housing market/cost of hiring (6)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
General Price level in city/costs of living (7)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Universities and offerings for extension studies (8)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Crime rate/ safety (9)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Good for families (10)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Easy to make friends (11)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Family and friends enjoy visiting (12)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Young population (13)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
A wide range of cultural activities (14)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Vibrant nightlife (15)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Energy and atmosphere of city (16)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Many different cultures and subcultures (17)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
International character (18)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Architecture and design (19)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Q9 Please indicate to what extend you agree with the statements listed below, concerning the city of Rotterdam.

	Fully disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Not sure (3)	Agree (4)	Fully agree (5)
Rotterdam is a nice city to live in (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
The Rotterdam city brand has an attractive identity (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
The city has a good reputation among residents (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I recommend to other people to visit Rotterdam. (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I talk directly to other people about my experiences with Rotterdam. (5)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Rotterdam stands out from other cities in the Netherlands (6)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
The overall lifestyle in the city is good (7)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Rotterdam has unique characteristics compared to other popular cities. (8)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I like what the Rotterdam city brand stands for (9)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Q10 In which city were you born

Q44 In what kind of environment have you spent most of your life?

- Rural (1)
- Urban (2)

Q11 Place of Residence:

Q12 Highest level of completed education:

- Secondary school (1)
- MBO (2)
- HBO (3)
- University Bachelor (4)
- University Masters (5)

Q13 Age

Q14 Gender

- Male (1)
- Female (2)

Q15 Ever visited the city of Rotterdam?

- Never (1)
- A few times (2)
- Multiple times (3)
- Quite often (4)
- (live there) (5)

Q16 Length of stay in current place of residence:

- one year or less (1)
- 1-3 years (2)
- 3-5 years (3)
- 5-7 years (4)
- 7+ years (5)

Q17 Approximately what percentage of your friends live within the Rotterdam wider area?

- 0-10% (1)
- 10-30% (2)
- 30-50% (3)
- 50+% (4)

Q18 How important are the following city attributes for your place satisfaction and your choice of a place to live at?

	Not important at all (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	Very Important (5)
Access to outdoor recreational areas (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Tranquility of the place (5)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Environmental quality and Cleanness of the city (6)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Innovative and creative business environment (7)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Good job and promotion opportunities (8)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Housing market / cost of hiring (9)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Costs of living (10)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Universities and offerings for extension studies (11)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Crime rate / Safety (12)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Good for families (13)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Easy to make friends (14)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Family and friends enjoy visiting (15)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Young population (16)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
A wide range of cultural activities (17)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Many cultures and subcultures (18)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Vibrant nightlife (19)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Energy and atmosphere of city (20)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
International character (21)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Architecture and design (22)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Appendix D
Former advertisments originating from the Rotterdam Durft campaign:

Advertisement of World City Word Brand campaign as propsed by Rotterdam city council

Appendix E:

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics, importance weights functional congruence items

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Energy and atmosphere of city	4,24	0,729
Good job and promotion opportunities	4,05	0,804
Young population	3,94	0,714
Easy to make friends	3,92	0,704
Vibrant nightlife	3,91	0,896
Universities and offerings for extension studies	3,86	0,956
Crime rate / Safety	3,84	0,797
Family and friends enjoy visiting	3,82	0,772
Access to outdoor recreational areas	3,8	0,732
Housing market / cost of hiring	3,8	0,783
Environmental quality and Cleanness of the city	3,78	0,684
Costs of living	3,77	0,747
A wide range of cultural activities	3,67	0,888
International character	3,66	0,953
Innovative and creative business environment	3,6	0,875
Architecture and design	3,54	0,891
Tranquility of the place	3,35	0,805
Many cultures and subcultures	3,22	0,93
Good for families	3,09	1,062
Valid N (listwise)		