<u>Master's Thesis</u>

The impact of perceived place brand complexity and residents' trust in the place brand on their loyalty to and alienation from it

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Synopsis

This thesis is dedicated to the area of public sector marketing in general and place branding in particular. It examines these fields in the context of local inhabitants and their involvement, touching upon such feelings as trust, loyalty, and alienation. Additionally, perceived complexity is discussed as a characteristic of a place brand itself. Overall, this thesis investigated whether perceived place brand complexity and residents' trust in the place brand impacted their loyalty to and alienation from it. The research was conducted in Lviv, the cultural capital of Ukraine, through a survey among its inhabitants. The factor analysis revealed that the meaninglessness and powerlessness dimensions that were meant to measure alienation did not in fact measure the same construct. Therefore both dimensions were treated as separate variables in the course of the examination. The investigation demonstrated that perceived place brand complexity substantially predicted place brand loyalty, while place brand trust was especially important for predicting residents' attitude towards the place brand in terms of its meaningfulness, and their feeling of powerfulness in regard to the place branding process.

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1. Research Design

1.1. Problem statement

According to the Statute of its territorial community, Lviv is a city located in the Western part of Ukraine whose first mention in the Galician–Volhynian Chronicle dates back to 1256 (Appendix № 2 of the Statute, 2017). It is a regional centre with historical parts, labelled as "The Ensemble of the Historic Centre," that have been protected by the UNESCO World Heritage List since 1998 (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2019). The city was also recognized as a historic settlement of Ukraine by the Decree of the Cabinet of Ministers in 2001.

Accordingly, it is not surprising that the "Strategy for competitiveness increase of Lviv by 2015" recognized the economic clusters of tourism and business services as "locomotives" of the city's economic growth (The Strategy, 2010: 17). The document proclaimed the mission of realizing Lviv's potential as one of the main tourist destinations of East-Central Europe (The Strategy, 2010: 31). Building on this ambitious plan, the "Complex strategy for the development of Lviv 2012-2025," envisions the city as a cultural and tourist capital of Eastern Europe with the highest growth rates of inbound tourism in the region (The Strategy, 2012: 77). The vision specifies the number of 3 million visitors per year who assign at least a 4.5 out of 5 grade to tourism-related services as the city's 2025 goal (The Strategy, 2012: 77).

The Strategy also identifies as one of the three priorities, the consolidation and development of Lviv as a city of traditions, knowledge, culture, tourism, and sport. The city should guide Ukraine towards European values, preserving its national identity at the same time. The spirit of Lviv should be protected in order to highlight the city's unique features in the contemporary globalized world (The Strategy, 2012: 80). Another priority, identified by the strategy is Lviv as a city comfortable for life, work, and studies. It was formulated based on the residents' specific mentality and strong attachment to the city, their aspiration for constant economic growth and personal as well as city's enrichment. The realization of the priority should be assessed based on such indicators as the levels of comfort, safety, social security, and sustainability as perceived by the residents. Overall, the number of local inhabitants should increase to 804.2 thousand by 2025, while their perception of safety should raise to a 4.5 grade (The Strategy, 2012: 79).

It should be mentioned that the number of visitors coming to the city is constantly increasing indeed: from 1.7 million in 2015, to 2.5 million in 2016, and 2.7 million in 2017 (The panel of the city: Strategy). Their satisfaction with tourist services does not show similarly rapid growth but still remains at a high level: 4.29 (out of 5) in 2015, 4.27 in 2016, and 4.3 in 2017 (The panel of the city: Strategy). Although, the former visitor-centred priority goals have almost been realized already, long before the set deadline, the realization of the latter resident-centred priority goals has not achieved comparatively successful results. For instance, the perceived level of safety was awarded a 4.14 grade in 2010, which subsequently dropped sharply to 3.26 in 2013, moderately raised to 3.63 in 2015, and then dropped again to 3.59 in 2017 (The panel of the city: Strategy). Moreover, the number of residents living in Lviv has not changed much between 2010 and 2018, modestly decreasing from 760.02 to 755.81 thousand (The panel of the city: Statistic). The number of permanent residents also decreased from 752.18 to 747.98 thousand (The panel of the city: Statistic). The rate of natural increase of the population has been negative since 2012, while migration accounts for minor changes, adding only 931 residents in 2014, 277 in 2015, 1027 in 2017, and 772 in 2017 (The panel of the city: Statistic). Such tendencies will not allow the city to reach its strategic goals in regard to both population preservation and growth. Moreover, the

quality of life, measured based on a number of criteria, increased from 3.20 in 2013 to only 3.31 in 2016 and remained the same in 2017 (The panel of the city: The quality of life).

As can be seen from the aforementioned plans and achievements, Lviv is a city with a tourism-based economy that attempts to accommodate and satisfy the interests of both temporary visitors and permanent inhabitants. The residents appear to be especially important in such strategic configuration since they not only promote the realization of the visitor-centred goals, but also constitute a vital element of the city indispensable for its sustainable functioning. At first glance, it may seem like the city is doing quite well in terms of its strategic ambitions. However, this is the case only in regard to the visitor-centred objectives. In fact, the city appears to be struggling with finding a right balance between focusing on tourism and caring about general liveability. Unless the negative demographic tendencies do not change, and the quality of life as well as perceived level of safety do not increase, there is a real chance that Lviv will become an artificial city dependent on occasional visitors with lost authenticity and blurred identity. By rethinking its current approaches towards the strategies' implementation, the city council could prevent such scenario. This research presumes that place branding could become an effective solution to the above-mentioned balancing problem provided it is carried out transparently and responsibly (e.g., Anholt & Van Gelder, 2005; Braun et al., 2013; Zenker & Erfgen, 2014). Participatory place branding seems to be able "to maximise the efficient social [resident-oriented] and economic [tourism-oriented] functioning of the area concerned, in accordance with whatever wider goals [overall strategy] have been established" (Ashworth & Voogd, 1990: 11). It could make residents feel respected, enhancing their satisfaction with and commitment to the place of living, as well as trust for the local authorities (e.g., Anholt & Van Gelder, 2005; Zenker & Seigis, 2012). At the same time, it could stimulate the place's economic development and unfold its tourism potential (e.g., Allen, 2007; Van Ham, 2008). The case of Bogotá, for instance, depicts the successful application of integrated participatory place branding for such double-ended, both social and economic purposes (Kalandides, 2011). It is therefore believed that place branding could promote tourism, simultaneously making the city appealing to its current and potential new inhabitants. The research is accordingly directed at validating this suggestion and exploring its real potential.

Geographical marketing in general and place branding in particular are often directed at making residents - place brand "champions" (Elliott & Percy, 2007 in Braun et al., 2013: 5) and "authentic ambassadors" (Burmann & Zeplin, 2005 in Braun et al., 2013: 1; Kavaratzis, 2012 in Zenker & Rütter, 2014: 11). Moreover, such practices also attempt to reach various social goals by targeting and improving residents' experience with the place of living (Ashworth & Voogd, 1990; and Zenker & Martin, 2011 in Zenker & Rütter, 2014: 11). These outcomes appear to be particularly important in the context of Ukraine, considering the aforementioned strategic goals of Lviv (The Strategy, 2012; The Strategy, 2019). Such place brand loyalty does not appear automatically though, but requires both time and effort to develop and solidify. The "I AMsterdamned" and "We are Up and Going" "counter-branding" campaigns led by residents in Amsterdam and Manchester respectively clearly demonstrate this point (Braun et al., 2013: 7). When local inhabitants perceive a gap between their place of living and its brand, they become somewhat alienated and therefore capable of demonstrating adverse citizen behaviour (e.g., Ouseley, 2001 in Trueman et al., 2004: 323). Taking into account that cities in Ukraine possess only limited resources that could be directed at public sector marketing, it is important for local authorities to ensure that place branding is effective and efficient in case it is applied and publicly financed (Melnykova, 2015). Consequently, Lviv is interested in involving residents as an additional free source of promotion by strengthening their connection to the city and preventing their alienation from its brand. This is not an easy task, considering that an effective place brand should be not only widely inclusive but also narrowly focused (Braun et al., 2013). It is suggested,

however, that such endeavour could be successfully completed by building residents' trust in the place brand (e.g., Kemp et al., 2012b and Choo et al., 2011 in Insch & Stuart, 2015: 173; Fournier, 1998; Albert et al., 2010; and Thomson et al., 2005 in Sta & Abbassi, 2018: 302) and making it more complex (e.g., Zenker & Petersen, 2014). The suggestion is based on both theoretical developments and empirical finding elaborated below. Consequently, the idea that place branding could simultaneously promote both social and economic interests of cities and their inhabitants, underlies this thesis and bonds all of its parts. The idea is investigated by studying the following variables: perceived place brand complexity, place brand trust, place brand alienation, and place brand loyalty. It is expected that residents who trust a place brand will feel less alienated from and more loyal to the brand, promoting it and remaining attached to the place itself. It is also expected that complex place brands will equally make residents less alienated and more loyal.

Since most of the aforementioned variables remain, to a large extent, underdeveloped, the research is aimed at their clear formulation, conceptualization, and extension. It is also aimed at constructing a new conceptual framework(s) based on the above-mentioned variables, tailored specifically for the interests and purposes of this particular research. Accordingly, the research is directed at investigating a possible direct link between, on the one hand, two independent variables, "perceived place brand complexity" as well as "residents' trust in the place brand," and, on the other hand, two dependent variables, "residents' loyalty to the place brand" as well as "residents' alienation from the place brand." It will be conducted with a focus on residents and their specific perspective. It should be mentioned that the dependent variables will be considered independently, resulting in two separate conceptual frameworks and variable configurations. Each conceptual framework will therefore consist of one dependent and two independent variables. The research is also aimed at comparing those frameworks in terms of goodness-of fit, the coefficient of multiple determination. This will allow to identify the dependent variable with larger proportion of variance explained by the independent variables. Overall, the core objective of this thesis is to contribute to the sustainable and comprehensive realization of the "Complex strategy for the development of Lviv 2012-2025" through a quantitative research conducted by means of a survey among local inhabitants. The research will explore the potential of place branding for reconciling the city's somewhat contradictory visitor-centred and resident-centred goals. More specifically, it will attempt to identify whether residents' trust in the place brand, as well as place brand's complexity matter for residents' loyalty to and alienation from the brand. In other words, whether they could promote both residents' well-being and tourism industry. All of the aforementioned research objectives and their particularities are reflected in the research questions specified below.

Research question

What is the impact of perceived place brand complexity and residents' trust in the place brand on their loyalty to and alienation from the brand?

Sub-questions

1) What is the impact of perceived place brand complexity and residents' trust in the place brand on residents' alienation from the place brand?
2) What is the impact of perceived place brand complexity and residents' trust in the place brand on residents' loyalty to the place brand?
3) The variability of which dependent variable, residents' alienation from the place brand or residents' loyalty to the place brand, is better explained by the independent variables?

<center>1.2. **Scientific relevance**</center>

In 2010, city branding was said to be an emerging, internationally acknowledged however, research domain, with weak empirical background mostly based on single case studies (Lucarelli and Berg, 2011). The observation of Skinner (2008 in Lucarelli & Berg, 2011: 10) made more than ten years ago, that there was no consensus about which instruments of marketing and branding were applicable to places, seems to have retained its relevance up until now. McCann's (2009 in Lucarelli & Berg, 2011: 10) suggestion that more scientific research should be directed at investigating the effect of marketing techniques in the context of geographies, has not lost its up-to-date quality as well.

The comprehensive literature review has shown that the concepts applied in this research lack clear conceptualization and standard operationalization. Although brand trust has been broadly investigated in the context of goods and services (e.g., Moorman et al., 1992; Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2002; Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2005), it has not been consistently applied to places and geographical brands. Most research considers the general concept of trust and its importance for citizen participation, city brands' local ownership and embeddedness (Holman, 2008; and Morton et al., 2008 in Insch, 2011: 12; Van Gelder, 2011: 40), their trustworthiness (Szondi, 2011), and consequent impact on residents' attitudes towards local authorities (Tschirhart, 2008). Thus, the concept of place brand trust is viewed as a fresh phenomenon requiring further expansion.

Unlike trust which does nevertheless pop up in the context of place branding, the concepts of complexity and alienation infrequently appear in the geographical marketing literature. Not only the study of complexity in regard to place brands remains scarce, its relation to brands as such is rarely considered. The literature review revealed only a few instances when the complexity of brands (e.g., Scammon, 1977 in Zenker et al., 2017: 17), their distinct elements (e.g., Janiszewski & Meyvis, 2001; Van Grinsven & Das, 2014), and advertisements (e.g., Cox & Cox, 1988; and Janiszewski & Meyvis, 2001 in Zenker et al., 2017: 17) was investigated. Place brand complexity itself is rarely mentioned and often discussed by means of diverse terminology and imprecise definitions, relying on such concepts as place identities and prototypes (e.g., Zenker & Petersen, 2014). Therefore, the concept of (perceived) place brand complexity is viewed as a recent development in need of additional insight.

Place brand alienation also seems to have been overshadowed by other concepts, such as place identification (e.g., Simpson & Siguaw, 2008; Zenker et al., 2017), place brand identification (e.g., Choo et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2014), place attachment (Baloglu, 2001; Kyle et al., 2004; Lee et al., 2007; Yuksel et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2012; Lewicka, 2011), and place brand attitude (Merrilees et al., 2009; Zenker & Rütter, 2014). No conceptualization of place brand alienation as such has been identified in the existing literature. Accordingly, its relation to other phenomena appears to be equally ambiguous. Additionally, the conceptualization and operationalization of place brand loyalty remains unsettled. Positive word-of-mouth and place attachment, considered as its dimensions in the course of this research, have mostly been investigated separately from each other, as integral and independent concepts (e.g., Jeuring & Haartsen, 2017; Andersson & Ekman, 2009; Simpson & Siguaw, 2008; Zenker & Rütter, 2014; Prayag & Ryan, 2012). Their integration into a single construct, place brand loyalty, is seen as a theoretically grounded, valuable addition to the existing literature.

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It should be stressed that most research conducted in the field so far, has focused on tourism and temporary visitors instead of residency and permanent inhabitants. The majority of literature on destination loyalty, for example, concentrates predominantly on tourists (e.g., Baloglu, 2001; Kyle et al., 2004), with a few exceptions that consider both visitors and citizens (e.g., Simpson & Siguaw, 2008). Indeed, the role of residents in the process of place branding is said to be poorly understood and therefore should be investigated more (Braun et al., 2013: 1; Bennett & Savani, 2003; and Merrilees et al., 2009 in Braun et al., 2013: 3). Consequently, citizen participation in the context of geographical marketing remains, to a large extent, a grey area with uncharted landscape and hidden potential. It is suggested, for instance, that internal place branding is crucial for acceptance and adoption of a place brand by local inhabitants (Ind, 2001 in Rehmet & Dinnie, 2013: 31). The practice, however, has not been thoroughly explored and developed yet (King, 2010 in Jeuring & Haartsen, 2017: 242). Accordingly, the focus on local inhabitants adopted by this research, is seen as relevant from both practical and scientific perspectives. The research is expected to complement the academic field of place branding in terms of its application in regard to residents.

In addition, the research will be conducted based on a new conceptual framework constructed on the basis of the research of Louis and Lombart (2010), Zenker and Petersen (2014), as well as Tummers (2012). Since the framework constitutes an integration of a few models, it depicts several relationships that have not been examined yet (place brand trust - place brand alienation/loyalty, perceived place brand complexity - place brand alienation/loyalty). The research is therefore supposed to enrich the fields of public administration in general and place branding in particular by expanding existing and developing original concepts, suggesting and testing novel relationships between them, considering the fields in new contexts and consequently strengthening their empirical bases.

1.3. **Societal relevance**

In the contemporary globalized world, the practices of place branding in general and city branding in particular have become important as never before. Countries, regions, cities, and other administrative geographies must compete with each other for a share of attention and respective opportunities, be that tourists, investments, trade, or human capital (Anholt, 2005). The process of Euro-integration that is currently unfolding in Ukraine, makes such potential benefits, and therefore geographical marketing, especially relevant for the country (Melnykova, 2015). Indeed, city branding is claimed to be an important activity in which many cities are involved. European cities spend millions of euros on self-branding each year, trying to grasp the full potential of this endeavour (Lucarelli & Berg, 2011).

In the context of Ukraine, effectively conducted city branding, along with the improvement of the quality of life, could make citizens realize the worth of the region, increase their self-esteem, as well as strengthen the belief in the potential and the future of their cities (Milashovska, 2013). Place branding, however, is still a comparatively novel practice in the country due to its ambiguous effectiveness, lack of practical experience, and considerable financial restrictions (Melnykova, 2015). Taking into account the currently underdeveloped practice of place branding in Ukraine, as well as its particular importance for the country, the research conducted in one of its cities is considered to be socially relevant. It could reveal the particularities of city branding in Ukraine by clarifying how city brands operate and are perceived by local inhabitants. This would make the practice more understandable, strengthening its overall effectiveness and efficiency.

It should be mentioned that a few Ukrainian cities, including Lviv, can already show some interesting advancements in the field of public sector marketing, including actively operating brands (Melnykova, 2015). In the course of the research, it was found out that the city council is currently developing a new touristic strategy. Its working draft was provided for the purposes of this research by Anna-Mariia Samson, leading specialist at the Lviv Tourism Office of the City Development Department. The council intends to set the following targets for the city to reach by 2021: yearly 20 percent increase of income generated from tourism, yearly 10 percent increase of the number of foreign visitors, and at least 100 international conferences organized in the city every year. This should be achieved based on respect to local inhabitants, aiming at their prosperity and enrichment. Interestingly, the preliminary SWOT-analysis indicates hospitable residents as one of the city's strengths, and their dissatisfaction with possible inflation caused by tourism as one of its threats (The Strategy, 2019). The strategy (2019) attempts to make the city benefit from tourism and promote its residents' well-being simultaneously. This is not an easy task since the former may impede the realization of the latter. The research could contribute to solving possible tensions between the two objectives by developing knowledge on factors that influence residents' perception of the Lviv place brand. It might provide the city council with a workable solution and additional instruments, which consequently could be incorporated into the final version of the new touristic strategy. Such instruments would include city branding itself, citizen participation in this process to secure residents' trust in the city brand, and complexification of a city brand. In fact, drawing on existing knowledge on governance (e.g., Edelenbos & Klijn, 2007; Klijn, 2010; Klijn et al., 2010; Klijn & Koppenjan, 2012), as well as place branding (e.g., Klijn et al., 2012; Eshuis & Edwards, 2013; Eshuis et al., 2013; Braun et al., 2014; Eshuis et al., 2014), this research assumes that residents' trust in the city brand implies their participation in the city branding process. The identified strategies could appear to be more effective alternatives to direct promotion of tourism to local inhabitants. The latter is already mentioned by the Strategy (2019) as a way to promote residents' loyalty to the city brand of Lviv and tackle their alienation from it.

2. **Theoretical Framework**

After discussing the relevance and importance of residents in place branding, the chapter will discuss theoretical developments in regard to the core concepts applied in this thesis: place brand trust, perceived complexity, alienation, and loyalty. Each concept will be presented in the context of its origins, extension, and consequent translation in the public, in general, and geographical, in particular, domains. Such approach will allow to trace their developmental path and current position within the field of public administration. Moreover, different stances on the concepts' operationalization will be explored in order to derive an optimal approach that could be used in the course of this research. At first, the independent variables, namely place brand trust and place brand perceived complexity, will be presented. This will be followed by the presentation of the dependent variables, namely place brand alienation and place brand loyalty. After the general overview, in line with the conceptual framework, predicted links between the concepts will be justified based on theoretical developments and empirical findings. This will allow to formulate a well-grounded research trajectory that subsequently could be tested by means of quantitative research instruments. It should be mentioned that such labels as resident-inhabitant-citizen, visitor-tourist, place-city, will be used interchangeably. This is expected to make the text less repetitive, providing the opportunity to integrate more literature streams that, in essence, consider similar topics by means of slightly different terms. These streams will mostly stem from the fields of marketing, branding, tourism, and public administration. Their combination is expected to result in a symbiotic relationship that will not only validate the concepts used in this thesis, but also reveal their richness and multidimensionality.

2.1. **Residents in the place branding process**

Building on a network perspective, Zenker and Braun (2010: 5 in Sevin, 2014: 48) define a place brand as a "network of associations in the consumer's mind based on the visual, verbal, and behavio[u]ral expression of a place, which is embodied through the aims, communication, values, and the general culture of the place's stakeholders and the overall place design." Thus, a place brand is a social construct, built and shaped by its target audiences' perceptions (Sevin, 2014). In the similar vein, Hankinson (2004b: 116 in Sevin, 2014: 50) mentions that stakeholders "extend(s) and reinforce(s) the reality of the core brand."

Residents, along with companies and visitors, constitute one of the main target groups of place marketing and branding (Ashworth & Voogd, 1990; and Van den Berg & Braun, 1999; and Kotler et al., 1993 in Braun et al., 2013: 1; Insch & Florek, 2008 in Sevin, 2014: 48). This observation should not degrade them to merely passive place customers, since residents can play a vital part in co-producing public goods, services, and policies (Freire, 2009; and Hospers, 2010; Olsson & Berglund, 2009; and in Braun et al., 2013: 1). Residents' behaviour constitutes an integral part of any city brand's "actual identity," which "reflects the reality of the city" and is based on the city's perceivable attributes (Trueman et al., 2004: 324). In the similar vein, Braun and others (2013: 3) argue that residents form "an integrated part of a place brand." Residents are often used as "an indicator for the evaluation of place brands, as a justifier for place brand consumption and as a differentiating factor between place brands" (Freire 2009 in Braun et al., 2013: 4). They construct the social milieu of a place, which along with its physical attributes, shape the way it is experienced by various stakeholders (Warnaby, 2009b in Braun et al., 2013: 3). Therefore, inhabitants should be considered as an indispensable part of any place and its brand.

At the same time, residents also contribute to the formation of the city's unofficial "conceived identity," its image and reputation (Trueman et al., 2004). According to Kavaratzis (2004), perceptions about a place are formed through different types of brand communication. The tertiary communication is one of those types, which signifies word-of-mouth produced by the city's inhabitants. Its perceived "authenticity and trustworthiness" underscores the importance of residents in the process of place branding (Braun, 2011 in Braun et al., 2013: 4). In the lexicon of marketing, it could be argued that they can transfer from being mere customers to co-creators of value (Achrol & Kotler, 1999 in Braun et al., 2013: 5) or even of the entire place product (Warnaby, 2009a in Braun et al., 2013: 5). In the similar vein, another concept from general marketing, "living the brand," can be recalled (Braun et al., 2013: 5). Stemming from the internal branding field, it emphasizes the need to make every resident, a place brand champion (Elliott & Percy, 2007 in Braun et al., 2013: 5). Accordingly, internal branding strategies are directed at activating internal stakeholders, transferring them to the position of brand ambassadors (Burmann & Zeplin, 2005 in Braun et al., 2013: 1). Moreover, place marketing as such is generally directed at transforming residents into "authentic place ambassadors" (Kavaratzis, 2012 in Zenker & Rütter, 2014: 11) and enhancing their experience with the place (Ashworth & Voogd, 1990; and Zenker & Martin, 2011 in Zenker & Rütter, 2014: 11). Therefore, inhabitants do not only form a crucial part of any place brand; they could also hold an incredible potential for its formulation, positioning, and promotion.

In line with Braun and others (2013), residents could equally influence the place branding process through their citizenship status. If considered as a political process, place branding gains legitimacy from citizen participation and approval. Inclusive participation and consideration of a wide range of viewpoints may become a challenge since branding requires a specific and narrow focus in order to differentiate a particular place from other locales (Keller, 1993 in Braun et al., 2013: 6). Consequently, place branding is a complicated endeavour whose success is determined by the possibility to create a focused brand while being inclusive (Braun et al., 2013: 6). Involved residents can identify with a place brand more easily, subsequently becoming brand ambassadors and promoting it by means of positive word-of-mouth (Braun et al., 2013). Thus, inhabitants validate a place brand and authorities' activity in this regard.

It appears that civic pride and a sense of belonging could become rather powerful instruments in relation to place brand communication. At the same time, it should be remembered that residents perceive place brands as a representation of cities' built environment (Killingbeck & Trueman, 2002 in Trueman et al., 2004: 327). If they feel that there is a gap between how the city is conceived by its leaders, how its identity is communicated (branding), and what its actual identity is, they can resort to adverse behaviour, for instance, in the form of criticizing the quality of service provision (Ouseley, 2001 in Trueman et al., 2004: 323). Furthermore, residents may launch powerful and influential "non-official" or "counter-branding" campaigns," such as "I AMsterdamned" in Amsterdam or "'We are Up and Going" in Manchester (Braun et al., 2013: 7). Their importance for effective place branding is, therefore, grounded not only on the opportunity to support, but also on the possibility to impede.

As can be seen from the above, residents' potential for contributing to city promotion should not be underestimated (Bennet & Savani, 2003; and Braun, 2011; and Kavaratzis, 2012 in Braun et al., 2013: 1). The participatory approaches to branding, based on stakeholder involvement, explicitly recognize the importance of internal audiences for building an effective brand (Ind & Bjerke, 2007 in Braun et al., 2013: 1). Overall, the existing literature on place branding indicates

that place marketers should establish strong relationships with all relevant stakeholders, including "residents within the area, in order to develop what mainstream marketing theory would call brand loyalty" (Warnaby et al., 2011: 258 in Braun et al., 2013: 11). Brand loyalty and its magnitude are often considered as a valid indicator of successful marketing campaigns (Flavian et al., 2001 in Yoon & Uysal, 2005: 48). Up until now, however, the role of residents in the process of place branding is said to be poorly understood and therefore should be investigated more (Braun et al., 2013: 1; Bennett & Savani, 2003; and Merrilees et al., 2009 in Braun et al., 2013: 3). Accordingly, the focus on local inhabitants adopted by this research, is seen as relevant from both practical and scientific perspectives.

2.2. Independent variables

2.2.1. Place brand trust

The concept of trust has received attention from a variety of disciplines, including psychology, sociology, economics, management, and marketing (Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2005). Research on trust is said to be deeply rooted in the field of social psychology and, more specifically, in the area of personal relationships. The concept is often viewed as "an inherent characteristic of any valuable social interaction" (Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2001: 1241). A classical definition of trust was formulated by Deutsch (1973 in Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2005: 188), who stated that it should be seen as "the confidence that one will find what is desired from another, rather than what is feared." In other words, it is one's confidence that his or her vulnerability will not be exploited. In the branding context, this means a customer's expectation that the brand will bring about only positive outcomes (Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2005: 188), despite its ability to act negatively (Worchel, 1979 in Lau & Lee, 1999: 343).

With the psychological, relational approach getting prominence within the marketing discipline, the concept of trust has recently gained value and interest in this business field (Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2001). Relationship marketing, which focuses on relationships developed between consumers and companies, considers trust to be a determinant of stable preferences and commitment, "intention to maintain a durable relationship with the brand" (Berry, 1995; and Beatty et al., 1988; and Kennedy et al., 2000 in Gurviez & Korchia, 2003: 2). It clearly differentiates between discrete transactions with "distinct beginning, short duration, and sharp ending by performance" and relational exchange that "traces to previous agreements [and] ... is longer in duration, reflecting an ongoing process" (Dwyer et al., 1987: 13 in Morgan & Hunt, 1994: 21). The latter reminds resident-place brand relationships most closely and, therefore, will be implied when discussing such relationships.

Trust has also gained its momentum in the area of branding as an extension of the more general marketing field. Moorman and others (1992 in Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2002: 37), working in the field of inter-organizational relations and relational theory, define brand trust highlighting the importance of reliance: "the willingness of the average consumer to rely on the ability of the brand to perform its stated function." This approach combines the two one-sided stances according to which trust is viewed either as a belief (e.g., Blau, 1964; and Pruitt, 1981; and Rotter, 1967 in Moorman et al., 1992: 315; Andaleeb, 1992; and Doney & Cannon, 1997; and Larzelere & Huston, 1980 in Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2005: 188) or as a behavioural intention as well as behaviour itself (Coleman, 1990; and Deutsch, 1962; and Giffin, 1967; and Schlenker et al., 1973; and Zand, 1972 in Moorman et al., 1992: 315). Lau and Lee (1999: 344), for instance, stress the behavioural elements of brand trust, defining it "as a consumer's willingness to rely on

the brand in the face of risk because of expectations that the brand will cause positive outcomes." They argue that, in the context of branding, the trusted entity is not a person or an organization, but a symbol (Lau & Lee, 1999). Delgado-Ballester (2003 in Li et al., 2008: 1), on the other hand, stress the motivational elements, defining brand trust as "the confident expectations of the brand's reliability and intentions in situations entailing risk to the consumer."

Unlike Moorman and others (1992), Morgan and Hunt (1994: 23) do not incorporate the behavioural intention of "willingness" in their definition, arguing that a party who genuinely believes in its partner's trustworthiness, will implicitly intend to rely on that partner. Moorman and others (1992: 315), on the other hand, state that such belief, when not complemented by the willingness to rely, leads to limited trust. As can be seen from the above, some conceptual confusion regarding the definition of trust, its operationalization, and implementation is evident in the brand trust literature (Gurviez & Korchia, 2003: 2). Overall, the relational definition adopted by Gurviez and Korchia (2002 in Sta & Abbassi, 2018: 302) seems to be the most appropriate one for the investigation of place brands. They (2002 in Sta & Abbassi, 2018: 302) define consumer trust "as the assumption by this one that the brand as personified entity makes a commitment to have a predictable action and in compliance with its expectations, and to maintain this long-term orientation."

In the context of place branding, trust interestingly appears to be highly relevant already on the stages of brand development and formulation, which is not necessarily the case in the corporate sector. Its presence is essential for citizen participation, which subsequently leads to locally-embedded and locally-owned city brands (Holman, 2008; and Morton et al., 2008 in Insch, 2011: 12; Van Gelder, 2011: 40). Such brands are perceived as being more trustworthy and credible compared to those built on detached formal messages (Szondi, 2011: 128). This is important since "good brand symbols" must evoke familiarity and trust (Haig & Harper, 1997 in Tschirhart, 2008: 38). Trust also seems to be significant after a place brand has been developed since it could result in inhabitants' positive attitudes towards local governments, as well as their actions and policies (Tschirhart, 2008).

Overall, place brand trust is defined "the willingness of the average resident to rely on the ability of the place brand to perform its stated function," (Moorman et al., 1992 in Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2002: 37), "involving the credibility, integrity, and benevolence that the resident attributes to the place brand" (Gurviez & Korchia, 2003: 3). Based on this definition, the concept has been operationalised as a three-dimensional construct, which will be elaborated in the methodology section below (4.1).

2.2.2. **Perceived place brand complexity**

Complexity as such does not appear to have been comprehensively investigated by the marketing literature yet. While some research has been conducted on the complexity of certain brand elements, such as logos (e.g., Janiszewski & Meyvis, 2001; Van Grinsven & Das, 2014), the complexity of brands as integral, higher-order, general constructs has only received scarce attention so far. This is the case for both marketing in general and place marketing in particular.

Complexity could generally be defined as "a set of elements involving relationships among them" (Rapoport & Hawkes, 1970: 108). In the context of branding, it is often perceived as a negative factor that can result in a brand's obscurity, vagueness, and a lack of originality. Moreover, it can lead to information overload, making it hard for consumers to spot, comprehend, and memorize a brand. For instance, Swaminathan (2003 in Zenker et al., 2017: 17) interestingly showed that

consumers rely on recommendations (word-of-mouth) more when the level of complexity is high. Subsequently, Scammon (1977 in Zenker et al., 2017: 17) mentions that it is easier for consumers to identify simple brands. On the other hand, they tend to be dissatisfied with such brands more often, requiring additional context and background information. Moreover, it was also shown that complex advertisements receive a higher level of exposure and, in general, are evaluated more positively compared to their simpler analogues (Cox & Cox, 1988; and Janiszewski & Meyvis, 2001 in Zenker et al., 2017: 17).

Overall, there is no overarching agreement about the impacts of brand complexity in academia. At the same time, academics tend to agree that place brands as such are multidimensional, and thus complex, in nature (Kaplan et al., 2010; and Zenker, 2011 in Zenker et al., 2017: 17). This is the case because they consist of both physical features of a particular place as well as evaluative characteristics attributed to that place. These variables are stored as associations in consumers' minds. Following this line of reasoning, the definition of place brands developed by Zenker and Braun (2010 in Zenker et al., 2017: 17) appears to be the most appropriate one in the context of this research. A place brand is "a network of associations in the place consumers' mind based on the visual, verbal, and behavioural expression of a place, which is embodied through the aims, communication, values, and the general culture of the place's stakeholders and the overall place design" (Zenker & Braun, 2010: 4 in Zenker et al., 2017: 17).

In the context of public administration, it should be mentioned that while competing for human resources, cities attempt to develop strong and favourable identities (brands) (Tölle, 2010 in Zenker & Petersen, 2014: 715). This is not an easy task since not only place brands are inherently complex (Kaplan et al., 2010; and Zenker, 2011 in Zenker et al., 2017: 17), but so are their target audiences and stakeholders (Tölle, 2010 in Zenker & Petersen, 2014: 715). People of different nations, cultures, and socio-economic classes co-exist within the boundaries of a particular place. They may share a national identity while not sharing the same identity of citizenship (Ehrkamp, 2006; and Leiter & Ehrkamp, 2006 in Zenker & Petersen, 2014: 715). Consequently, it is very difficult for any place to build an identity that would be convincing for most of its inhabitants (Tölle, 2010 in Zenker & Petersen, 2014: 715).

Still, the concept of place brand complexity as such rarely appears in the academic literature. The topic is often investigated through different terminological lexicons, which makes it difficult to assess the degree of its development. Zenker and Petersen (2014), for instance, consider complexity in regard to place identities and prototypes. The concepts seem to be very similar to the notion of a place brand. They define identity of the place (place identity) "as a substructure of the personal identity, including all dimensions of an individual's personal identity related to the physical place environment (implicit and explicit meanings, feelings, preferences, etc.)" (Proshansky et al., 1983 in Zenker & Petersen, 2014: 716). On a macro level, it can be viewed as "a shared mental representation of a place" (Zenker & Petersen, 2014: 716). Identically to place brands, it is said to be heavily shaped by the three forms of communication: primary (behaviour of the city itself, its residents and representatives), secondary (official messages through formal channels, including marketing and advertising), and tertiary (word-of-mouth) (Kavaratzis, 2004 in Zenker & Petersen, 2014: 716-717). Identity of the place could be seen as a basis for the consequent development of the place brand.

As has been mentioned before, Zenker and Petersen (2014) also apply the concept of prototypes, defined as "mental representations that specify the core attributes distinguishing one category from another," "the sum of core attributes such as "cosmopolitan" (Hogg, 2000 in Zenker & Petersen, 2014: 717). A city (place) prototype is, in turn, defined "as a set of attributes that are

central to the mental representation of a city and differentiate it from other cities" (Zenker & Petersen, 2014: 717). Along with core attributes and labels, city prototypes include particular norms and beliefs commonly shared within their respective cities (Zenker & Petersen, 2014). While identity of the place is regarded as a more general phenomenon, city (place) prototype is considered to be similar, or even identical, to the concept of a place brand. Such consideration is based on the concepts' functional correspondence: both represent a particular place through its special features, and by doing so, differentiate it from other geographical areas.

When elaborating on place prototype complexity, Zenker and Petersen (2014: 718) mention that complexity is both a "quantitative measure and a construct with different qualities." The quantitative component of complexity is represented through multidimensionality: a number of elements included. Such quantitative complexity of a place is said to be reflected by the content of its prototype. In line with what has been argued above, place prototypes are believed to be multidimensional by nature since they are shaped by a number of factors, such as urbanity, diversity, and recreation (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; and Merrilees et al., 2009; and Zenker, 2011; and Zenker et al., 2013a; and 2013b in Zenker & Petersen, 2014: 719). Moreover, each of these factors further consists of multiple concrete as well as abstract variables, such as demographic characteristics, infrastructure, history, "tolerant/intolerant," "rich/poor" (Zenker & Petersen, 2014: 719).

The qualitative component of complexity is said to be reflected by its qualities, including ambiguity, entropy, and variability. These qualities constitute an inherent part of any place prototype. In the context of geographical areas, ambiguity of a place is represented by its perceived structured or unstructured character (e.g., whether there is a clear distinction between rich and poor inhabitants, whether they live in separate, clearly defined areas). Entropy of a place shows how organized or chaotic its complexity is according to the stakeholders. As suggested by Mummendey and Wenzel (1999 in Zenker & Petersen, 2014: 719), variability, "distribution on multiple dimensions," is also important for the perception of complexity. Complexity of a place is variable when attributes (e.g., "liberal"/"conservative") of its several dimensions (e.g., "liberalism") are unequally distributed among its different areas or neighbourhoods. Consequently, some parts of the place will be perceived as liberal, while others will be viewed as conservative. Overall, Zenker and Petersen (2014) argue that multidimensionality as quantity, and ambiguity, entropy, and variability as qualities, must be taken into account when investigating the impact of (perceived) prototype complexity on other variables.

Unlike multidimensionality, which seems to be a concrete, material construct that could be measured objectively, ambiguity, entropy, and variability are abstract, immaterial concepts. Their measurement is possible only based on one's attitudes and perceptions. Accordingly, it appears that place brand complexity is composed of both objective, possibly but not necessarily independent from stakeholders' judgement, and subjective, based on stakeholders' judgement, components. Due to the concept's subjectivity, the level of place brand complexity may be assessed differently by different people. Following this line of reasoning, the concept is not treated as an objective value with a static weight, but as a fluid quality that depends on one's partial evaluation. Taking this into account, it would be more accurate to apply the term "perceived place brand complexity" in the context of the present research. Such emphasis on perceptions better represents the concept in question, as well as its characteristics.

Overall, throughout this thesis, place brand is regarded as "a network of associations in the place consumers' mind based on the visual, verbal, and behavioural expression of a place, which is embodied through the aims, communication, values, and the general culture of the place's

stakeholders and the overall place design" (Zenker & Braun, 2010: 4 in Zenker et al., 2017: 17). Accordingly, perceived place brand complexity is defined as a resident's perception of the number and interrelatedness of dimensions as well as their qualities (attributes) "that are central to the mental representation of a place and differentiate it from other places" (Zenker & Petersen, 2014: 717; Rapoport & Hawkes, 1970). The concept has been operationalised as a three-item unitary construct based on Zenker and others (2017), which will be elaborated in the methodology section below (4.2).

2.3. **Dependent variables**

2.3.1. **Place brand alienation**

The marketing literature has borrowed the concept of alienation from Seeman (1959) in order to depict "how consumers tend, in general, to feel alienated by companies in their marketplace" (Allison, 1978; and Lambert, 1980 in Krishnan, 2008: 18). Such alienation is said to be of a general character, not triggered by an external alienating entity (company) through its negative actions (Krishnan, 2008). It could lead to various unwanted outcomes, including consumer dissatisfaction and mistrust. Accordingly, it could result in different degrees of disengagement behaviour such as inertia, brand betrayal, and active complaining (Lambert, 1980).

It should be mentioned that the concept of brand alienation seems to be, to a large extent, underdeveloped and infrequently used. In most general terms, building on a classical literature on alienation, brand alienation could be defined as a "deviation from an "optimal" functioning of man [consumer/resident] as an information processing system," caused by some external disturbances (Geyer, 1976: 191). Unlike general consumer alienation from the marketplace mentioned above, brand alienation (alienation by a brand) is said to be triggered by the brand itself through its negative strategies (Krishnan, 2008). A closure of the brand shop, termination of some goods' production, and sale of the sub-brand exemplify such actions (Fournier, 1998). Alienation, therefore, arises as a consumer's response to the brand's unfavourable stimuli (Krishnan, 2008). This line of reasoning corresponds to Seeman's (1959) classical conceptualization of alienation based on the systems theory of information processing (Geyer, 1976). Accordingly, consumers are viewed as systems that react to the relevant information coming from their environment. Relevant information is considered as anything representing any relevant for the system (consumer) change in its environment (Geyer, 1976).

In more technical and concrete terms, brand alienation could be regarded as "a state of extreme, generalized dissatisfaction that goes beyond the spurning of a single product [place service] to encompass family brands and product line extensions [overall place offering]." It is said to be a more powerful state compared to brand spurning, defined as "a permanent, consumer-initiated dissolution of the relationship with no intent to repurchase the brand." In the higher-order brand-consumer relationships, which seem to resemble strong place-resident tights, brand spurning may happen due to moderately harmful mechanical failures of the brand (place) as well as radical changes in consumers' (residents') roles and preferences. Brand alienation, on the other hand, may appear in such relationships only in case of serious mechanical failures, leading to consumers' (residents') strong reaction expressed in the form of anger, disappointment, or revenge intentions (e.g., negative word-of-mouth). Brand alienation could be considered the apogee of these feelings' combination (Fajer & Schouten, 1995).

Fournier (1998), contributing to the development of the consumer-brand relationship theory, mentions the notions of the consumer-brand relationship deterioration and dissolution. They

seem to be related to brand alienation when considered in the context of relational theory. While the former concepts focus on both partners of the relationship (consumers and brands), the latter specifically highlights only consumers perspective. Deterioration and consequent dissolution of the consumer-brand or resident-place relationships are said to be caused by either poor maintenance (the entropy model) or the negative influence of certain factors (the stress model). Causal consumer-brand relationships with low emotional attachment, unstable engagement, and low expectations for reciprocity, deteriorate and fall apart (dissolution) mostly according to the entropy model. Committed consumer-brand partnerships, on the other hand, tend to deteriorate mostly according to the stress model. Such partnerships could be characterized as "long-term, voluntarily imposed, socially supported union high in love, intimacy, trust, and a commitment to stay together despite adverse circumstances" (Fournier, 1998: 362). Such deep consumer-brand connections remind resident-place relationships most closely.

In the context of the public sector in general and public administration in particular, the notion of complexity appears rather rarely as well. Tummers (2012), for instance, developed a policy alienation measurement scale, based on the concept's two dimensions: powerlessness and meaninglessness. It focused on public officials and their attitude towards public policies as well as these policies' effects. Since Tummers' scale is one of a few known measurements of alienation within the public sector that has already been probed and verified, it will be used as a basis for the consequent operationalisation of place brand alienation. It is acknowledged however, that compared to place brand alienation, policy alienation as a concept, appears to be a more straightforward and easily measurable phenomenon.

Overall, it seems that place brand alienation, according to the stress model applied by analogy to the place branding context, may arise from environmental, partner oriented, and dyadic/relational stresses. Environmental stresses can be subdivided into situationally imposed stressors (e.g., when a resident has to move to a different city); and intrusion of alternatives (e.g., when a city entices residents from other cities). Partner-oriented stresses can be subdivided into personally-induced stressors (e.g., when a resident's "personality, roles, needs, or values" change and he or she does not consider the city as a satisfactory place of living anymore) (Fournier, 1998: 363); and managerially imposed stressors (e.g., when a governing authority makes a decision that is deemed to be unacceptable by residents). Dyadic/relational stresses materialize as a "trespass of unwritten relationship rules, breach of trust, failure to keep a promise, or perception of neglect on part of relationship partner" (Fournier, 1998: 363). Fournier's (1998) theorising may be helpful later on for grounding the conceptual framework used in the research. In particular, it will be applied to justify potential links between trust and loyalty, trust and alienation, as well as complexity and loyalty.

Generally, it appears that place brand alienation has been to a large extent overshadowed by other more commonly used terms. Most research focuses only on those concepts whose negative value could potentially be compared to the notion of place brand alienation, including place identification (e.g., Simpson & Siguaw, 2008; Zenker et al., 2017), place brand identification (e.g., Choo et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2014), place attachment (Baloglu, 2001; Kyle et al., 2004; Lee et al., 2007; Yuksel et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2012; Lewicka, 2011), and place brand attitude (Merrilees et al., 2009; Zenker & Rütter, 2014). Identification with a place, for instance, could be defined as "a meaningful link between the self-concept and the identification target—in other words, the place prototype" (Zenker & Petersen, 2014: 717). It makes citizens connect aspects of the self and a place brand (Turner, 1985; and Turner et al., 1987 in Zenker & Petersen, 2014: 717). Since brand alienation is regarded as "[a relationship] of separation" (Geyer, 1976: 190) "where a consumer [resident] feels like an alien or stranger to the brand [place]" (Krishnan,

2008: 19), expressing "generalized dissatisfaction" (Fajer & Schouten, 1995), it is assumed that a citizen alienated from the place brand would not want to maintain "a meaningful link" (Zenker & Petersen, 2014: 717) with it, or to "connect aspects of the self" to it (Turner, 1985; and Turner et al., 1987 in Zenker & Petersen, 2014: 717). Accordingly, a low level or a negative value of place identification could be considered to be analogous to the concept of place brand alienation. Similar conclusions can be derived in regard to place brand identification, place attachment, and place brand attitude. Such reasoning allows to conclude that although there is not much research explicitly investigating place brand alienation, the phenomenon has been examined implicitly through other concepts and their negative values.

It should be mentioned that the concept of citizen disengagement, often used in the place marketing literature, is not similar to alienation as it is understood in this research. For instance, when investigating citizen disengagement in the context of place branding process, Insch and Stuart (2015) consider disengagement as an opposite concept to participation. They make it explicit by mentioning different degrees of citizen involvement based on Arnstein's (1969) ladder of participation (Insch & Stuart, 2015: 175). While disengagement refers to a lack of physical activity, alienation stands for a state of psychological and emotional detachment.

Although a clear conceptualization of place brand alienation is still missing, especially in the context of residents, existing literature has actually produced some findings in regard to the concept. For instance, it was shown that place branding efforts directed exclusively at potential new inhabitants, may face resistance on behalf of the permanent residents, leading to a feeling of alienation between them and the communicated place brand (Bennett & Savani, 2003 in Braun et al., 2013: 7). If residents' role as citizens is not recognized and taken into account, this may lead to the same outcome: alienation from the meaning of the place brand. Moreover, this may result in their inability or unwillingness to perform the other roles of communicators and ambassadors (Braun et al., 2013; Freire, 2009; and Insch & Florek, 2008 in Insch & Stuart, 2015: 172-173). Citizen brand disengagement (in the meaning of alienation) can be reflected in a poor place brand awareness, weak place brand identification, disapproval of the place brand itself, and even adverse behaviour including counter-branding (Insch & Walters, 2018) and negative word-of-mouth (Insch & Florek, 2008 in Insch & Stuart, 2015: 173).

Overall, place brand alienation is defined as "a subjective individualized phenomenon where a [resident] feels like an alien or stranger to and excluded by the [place] brand" (Krishnan, 2008: 19). The concept has been operationalised as a two-dimensional construct based on Tummers (2012) and his policy alienation scale. The operationalisation will be elaborated in the methodology section below (4.3).

2.3.2. **Place brand loyalty**

A shift from mere transactions to customer-provider long-term relationships that has occurred in marketing, makes this field particularly applicable for the public domain (Gronroos, 1997; and McIlroy & Barnett, 2000 in Morais et al., 2004: 235). This is the case because, as has been mentioned before, citizens and cities, as customers and providers, often establish durable connections reflected in time that citizens spend in their places of living (Morais et al., 2004). This line of reasoning corresponds to the relational approach adopted as a guiding point for the research. Although the concept of place brand loyalty from a citizen perspective is still largely underdeveloped, some insights about it could be obtained by examining the general concept of brand loyalty as it is applied in the context of closely related marketing fields.

Since locales as administrative units provide their inhabitants with a set of different services, a city as such could be considered a service provider. A city could be considered as a composite of different activities and services that can be chosen and enjoyed by its customers be that residents or tourists (Middleton, 1988 in Van Limburg, 1998: 475). It should be mentioned that transferring to another service provider while retaining the exact same service is much more difficult compared to changing product brands (Searle, 1991 in Gahwiler & Havitz, 1998: 8). "The changing of service providers involves quality and value considerations as well as decisions about the appropriateness of the fit between the individual and the particular service provider and about the fit between the activity selected and the needs of the individual" (Searle, 1991: 280 in Gahwiler & Havitz, 1998: 8). While not much is known about how people choose between different cities, it could be argued that the process of selection is based on the "supply of (city) assets." Indeed, Van Limburg (1998) managed to show that some attributes of the city are more important to its potential customers than others. Consequently, the service sector related to tourism and recreation, viewed through a relational lens, seems to be an appropriate basis for theoretical investigation of place brand loyalty in regard to residents.

More generally, brand loyalty could be defined as "a deeply held commitment to rebuy or repatronize a preferred product/service consistently in the future, thereby causing repetitive same-brand or same brand-set purchasing, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behaviour" (Oliver, 1999: 34 in Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001: 82). Much literature has already been dedicated to translating the concept into the tourism context and incorporating it into "tourism products, destinations, or leisure/recreation" (Backman & Crompton, 1991; and Baloglu, 2001; and Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998; and Lee et al., 1997; and Mazanec, 2000; and Pritchard & Howard, 1997; and Selin et al., 1988 in Yoon & Uysal, 2005: 48). These efforts have been facilitated by the fact that travel and tourism literature commonly recognizes the value of relational approaches and importance of durable connections between customers and providers (Mattila, 2001; and McIlroy & Barnett, 2000 in Morais et al., 2004: 235). In the context of services and relationship marketing, the concept of customer (brand) loyalty is often used to express "a customer's consistent and devoted relationship with a provider" (Day, 1969; and Jacoby & Kyner, 1973 in Morais et al., 2004: 235). It is said to lead to various positive outcomes, including larger market share (Assael, 1998 in Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001: 81), increased usage of the brand (Upshaw, 1995 in Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001: 81), lower marketing costs, greater number of new customers, higher trade leverage (Aaker, 1991 in Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001: 81), positive word-of-mouth, as well as enhanced ability of consumers to resist the influence of competitors (Dick & Basu, 1994 in Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001: 81).

Overall, place brand loyalty is defined as "a [resident's] consistent and devoted relationship with" a place brand reflected in his or her strong attachment to the place as well as deep commitment to protect, defend, improve, and promote the place through positive citizen behaviour" (Day, 1969; and Jacoby & Kyner, 1973 in Morais et al., 2004: 235; Oliver, 1999: 34 in Chaudhuri & Holbrook 2001: 82). It should be mentioned in advance that in the context of this particular research, place brand loyalty is viewed as a multidimensional construct composed of two equally weighted dimensions.

It is suggested that the concept's behavioural dimension could be represented by positive word-of-mouth, following multiple authors specified above (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Morais et al., 2004), and acknowledging the importance of this activity for place branding, especially when carried out directly by residents (Braun et al., 2013; Kavaratzis, 2004 in Zenker & Petersen, 2014). Positive word-of-mouth seems to be closely related to the concept of loyalty

indeed. Wangenheim and Bayón (2004 in Simpson & Siguaw, 2008: 169) argue that word-of-mouth is a behavioural outcome of such attitudinal concepts as satisfaction and loyalty. In the similar vein and in the context of tourism, Petrick (2004 in Simpson & Siguaw, 2008: 169) states that affective loyalty leads to positive word-of-mouth. At the same time, many businesses use WOM as an indication and measurement of general customer loyalty by means of different metrics, including Net Promoter (Keiningham et al., 2007). Reichheld (2003 in Simpson & Siguaw, 2008: 169) argues that such approach is the most appropriate and accurate one for predicting future customer behaviour. These observations support the aforementioned rationale for using WOM as a behavioural component (indicator) of place brand loyalty in regard to local inhabitants.

The attitudinal dimension could be represented by the concept of place attachment. Choosing place attachment instead of place brand attachment seems to be appropriate taking into account the inherent interconnectedness of places and their brands. Indeed, physical environment not only constitutes an integral part of any place brand (Kaplan et al., 2010; and Zenker, 2011 in Zenker et al., 2017: 17) but also influences the way in which different stakeholders experience the place (Warnaby, 2009b in Braun et al., 2013: 3). In fact, marketing literature often views place attachment as an indication of loyalty (Wang & Chen, 2015: 18). Kyle and others (2004), for instance, explicitly mention that the concept of attitudinal loyalty is "somewhat similar to the concept of place attachment" (Kyle et al., 2004: 102). This position is grounded on the observation that geographic areas themselves, not their brands, constitute attitude objects in the context of public land recreation (Kyle et al., 2004). In addition, considering the research of Zenker and others (2017) who used place complexity to measure place brand complexity, it seems possible and reasonable to investigate a place brand based on the place itself. As has been mentioned above, places and their brands are inherently connected and hardly distinguishable. While only a few researchers used place attachment to measure psychological commitment or attitudinal loyalty, such approach seems to have particular benefits. Firstly, it allows to overcome certain difficulties with respect to the measurement of destination loyalty. Secondly, it allows to develop novel models with potential relationships between previously unconsidered concepts (Kyle, et al., 2004 in Lee et al., 2007: 467). Overall, it seems that the concepts of place attachment and place brand attachment intersect and, to a large extent, overlap. It is believed however, that the former phenomenon could be explained more clearly and measured more easily. This suggestion is based on the fact that it has been investigated more deeply and extensively within academia. Consequently, place attachment was chosen as a point of departure and thus, place brand loyalty's attitudinal dimension.

The following two passages will introduce the concepts of place attachment and positive word-of-mouth from a theoretical perspective, supplementing the overall theoretical framework of the research as well as the above-mentioned justification.

2.3.3. **Place attachment**

The concept of place attachment has been comprehensively explored within the field of environmental psychology (e.g., Hernández et al., 2007; and Low & Altman, 1992; and Scannell & Gifford, 2010 in Zenker & Rütter, 2014: 12). At the same time, quite often it is not adequately differentiated from other similar phenomena (Stedman, 2003 in Prayag & Ryan, 2012: 343). Along with place attachment, emotional relationships between people and spatial settings are commonly labelled with other terms, including sense of place (Stedman 2003; and Tuan 1980 in Prayag & Ryan, 2012: 343) and place bonding (Hammitt et al., 2006 in Prayag & Ryan, 2012: 343). For instance, some argue that sense of place is a form of place attachment (Williams et al.,

1992; and Williams & Vaske, 2003; and Yuksel et al., 2010 in Prayag & Ryan, 2012: 343), while others consider it as an umbrella term that actually encompasses place attachment (Jorgensen & Stedman, 2001; and Kyle et al., 2004; and Stedman 2003 in Prayag & Ryan, 2012: 343).

Generally, place attachment stands for affective, emotional connection between a person and a place (Hernández et al., 2007; and Hidalgo & Hernández, 2001 in Zenker & Rütter, 2014: 12; Williams et al., 1992 in Prayag & Ryan, 2012: 343). This connection is said to be "elementary" for an individual because it forms part of the individual's identity, commonly called place identity (Proshansky et al., 1983 in Zenker & Rütter, 2014: 12). It develops and strengthens based on one's place of birth, duration of residence, positivity of previous experiences, satisfaction with a place, and the length of association with it (Zenker & Rütter, 2014: 12).

Overall, place attachment could also be seen as "an effect of people's and places' characteristics, thus influencing attitudes and behaviours towards a place" (Shumaker & Taylor, 1983 in Wang & Chen, 2015: 18). Indeed, strong place attachment could lead to various positive outcomes for a place, including people's willingness to stay close to it and exhibit beneficial behaviour (Hidalgo & Hernández, 2001; and Florek, 2011; and Stedman, 2002 in Zenker & Rütter, 2014: 12). Attached residents, for example, tend to be more positive towards the development of tourism in their locales (McCool & Martin, 1994 in Wang & Chen, 2015: 17). Consequently, residents' place attachment can guarantee a harmonious coexistence between permanent inhabitants and temporary visitors (McCool & Martin, 1994; and Kitnuntaviwat & Tang, 2008 in Wang & Chen, 2015: 19).

Despite that fact that place attachment was chosen as a reflection of the attitudinal dimension of place brand loyalty, it is still useful to consider the alternative concept of brand attachment in order to further justify this choice. In most general terms, brand attachment represents an emotional link between the brand and its consumers (Bozzo et al., 2003 in Louis & Lombart, 2010: 118). More precise definition was offered by Lacoeuilhe (2000 in Louis & Lombart, 2010: 118), who described attachment to the brand as "a psychological variable that reveals a lasting and inalterable affective relationship (separation is painful) to the brand and expresses a relation of psychological closeness to it." These definitions allow to conclude that the concepts of brand attachment and place attachment are closely related. They depict similar psychological links directed either at a brand or a place. As has been argued before, choosing a place over a place brand as an object of attachment in the context of place-resident relationships is not only justifiable from a theoretical perspective but actually preferable from a practical viewpoint.

2.3.4. **Positive word-of-mouth**

Although the application of marketing instruments in the context of places is a comparatively recent development (Weible, 2006; and Bornhorst et al., 2010; and Garcia et al., 2012 in Rehmet & Dinnie, 2013: 31), the promotion of place images has already become a well-established activity (Gold & Ward, 1994 in Rehmet & Dinnie, 2013: 31). Overall, destination marketing in general and place branding is particular, are directed at creating positive images of places by communicating a specific set of their attributes (Klijn et al., 2012 in Jeuring & Haartsen, 2017: 243). It is generally acknowledged that consumers, and therefore tourists as well as other potential target audiences of place branding, believe in recommendations of their friends and acquaintances much more than in advertising or public relations messages (Andersson & Ekman, 2009; Gremler et al., 2001; and Herr et al., 1991 in Simpson & Siguaw, 2008: 167). Such recommendations can be reflected through the concept of word-of-mouth (WOM), defined as "independent, face-to-face communication about products, services or companies [or places]

between consumers [including residents, businesses, and tourists]" (Chen et al., 2014 in Jeuring & Haartsen, 2017: 243). Its importance for the success of tourism destinations is evidenced by the fact that word-of-mouth is a powerful stimulus that incites the circulation of "evaluations of intangible tourism offerings" (Jeuring & Haartsen, 2017: 243).

As has been mentioned before, residents are seen as an authentic and trustworthy source of information about the place. They can provide credible, and therefore effective, testimonies by means of positive word-of-mouth (Andersson & Ekman, 2009; Ahearne et al., 2005; and Gremler et al., 2001 in Simpson & Siguaw, 2008: 169). Furthermore, internal stakeholders, including residents, have the capacity of determining whether place brand promises align with brand reality (Simpson & Siguaw, 2008 in Papadimitriou et al., 2018: 504; Klijn et al., 2012 in Jeuring & Haartsen, 2017: 242). This is partly the case because they constitute a "distinctive image component" of the place themselves (Agapito et al., 2010; and Freire, 2009 in Papadimitriou et al., 2018: 508). Therefore, internal place branding is crucial in order to facilitate acceptance and adoption of the place brand by local inhabitants (Ind, 2001 in Rehmet & Dinnie, 2013: 31). The practice, however, has not been thoroughly explored and developed yet (King, 2010 in Jeuring & Haartsen, 2017: 242).

Local inhabitants have been recognized to be particularly important for delivering brand-consistent messages and promises since they directly interact with visitors and other external stakeholders (Choo & Park, 2009 in Rehmet & Dinnie, 2013: 32). Subsequently, residents can influence the experience of tourists and enhance their intention to revisit the place (O'Leary & Deegan, 2003 in Papadimitriou et al., 2018: 504). Often, residents are able to reach target groups that remain unreachable for cities' public relations departments through their unique social and occupational roles (Andersson & Ekman, 2009). Local inhabitants can also encourage friends and relatives to visit their hometowns (Simpson & Siguaw, 2008 in Papadimitriou et al., 2018: 508). It was observed that those visitors who had used family members and acquaintances as the main source of information about a destination tended to travel in large groups, earn more, and show a high frequency of repeat visitation. Those who relied on information from both friends and relatives as well as other travellers tended to spend more time in a destination (Murphy et al., 2007). Therefore, it seems that residents are capable of attracting highly valuable tourists who are able to stay for a long time and willing to spend a lot.

Stakeholders' involvement in the branding process was traditionally explored in the context of organizational behaviour and product marketing, focusing on employees and consumers as brand ambassadors (Xiong et al., 2013 in Jeuring & Haartsen, 2017: 242). Indeed, residents are often involved as a cost-efficient way of city promotion that is realised via ambassador networks grounded in word-of-mouth (Andersson & Ekman, 2009; Ahearne et al., 2005; and Gremler et al., 2001 in Simpson & Siguaw, 2008: 169). Ambassador networks are seen as an effective and trustworthy mean of communication, and their mere presence could lead to a place's increased competitiveness. This is the case since networks can become a powerful developmental resource, as well as a "resource for meeting and adapting to changes" (Andersson & Ekman, 2009: 43). Moreover, residents as ambassadors are considered to be knowledgeable and creative experts capable of introducing new ideas and providing constructive feedback to local authorities' initiatives. Additionally, ambassador networks are said to be able to enhance their participants' local pride, commitment, and self-confidence by familiarizing them with values and achievements of their hometowns. As a result, residents are expected to understand and support place branding efforts much better, avoiding counter-branding strategies (Andersson & Ekman, 2009).

Taking the aforementioned observations and findings into account, citizen support in the course of place branding appears to be crucial (Bramwell & Rawding, 1996 in Papadimitriou et al., 2018: 504). Although the involvement of local people in the branding process is still considered to be a novel practice, quite a few initiatives have already experimented with such possibility, including the "Share Your Washington," "Talk for Ireland," and "I Amsterdam" campaigns (Rehmet & Dinnie, 2013: 32). It has been recently observed that local people are being increasingly included in the processes of destination marketing in general, and place branding in particular (Klijn et al., 2012; and Sartori et al., 2012 in Jeuring & Haartsen, 2017: 240). Nevertheless, this phenomenon has crystalized as a distinct topic in the field of tourism research not so long ago (Rehmet & Dinnie, 2013 in Jeuring & Haartsen, 2017: 242).

There are many reasons for residents to engage in word-of-mouth, including social comparison, social bonding, intentions to help others, as well as a need for self-enhancement and self-affirmation (Alexandrov et al., 2013 in Jeuring & Haartsen, 2017: 243). Such engagement can materialize in a variety of forms, including traditional face-to-face communication or electronic WOM (Chu & Kim, 2011 in Jeuring & Haartsen, 2017: 243). Word-of-mouth can also differ in regard to the number of senders and receivers, resulting in one-to-one, one-to-many, or many-to-many configurations (Chen et al. 2014 in Jeuring & Haartsen, 2017: 243).

Building on Naylor and Kleiser (2000) as well as Alexandrov and others (2013), Jeuring and Haartsen (2017: 243) interestingly discuss not only positive but also negative word-of-mouth. It is understandable that residents are genuinely interested in the place they live in and, therefore, are more likely, compared to temporary visitors, to be concerned with the issues of traffic, alcoholism, and criminal activity (Milman and Pizam 1988 in Simpson & Siguaw, 2008: 171). Consequently, they are expected to be dissatisfied with their place of residence more in comparison to occasional tourists. This was indirectly proved by the research of Richins and Bloch (1991 in Simpson & Siguaw, 2008: 171). Similarly, Soderlund (2002 in Simpson & Siguaw, 2008: 171) argues that those familiar with a place (residents) tend to be more satisfied with it when the place is performing well. When performance is low, however, familiarity leads to a higher degree of dissatisfaction and negative word-of-mouth. Thus, it can be concluded that despite their potential for effective place promotion, residents are quite likely to provide negative WOM. This is the case due to their high sensitivity to unfavourable developments in the place of living. According to Anderson (1998 in Simpson & Siguaw, 2008: 167), loyal and satisfied customers will deliver positive WOM. By analogy, it is assumed that only loyal and satisfied residents will supply beneficial recommendations. In order to make it clear that the word-of-mouth concept, used throughout this thesis, implies exclusively positive activity and publicity, it is repeatedly called "positive word-of-mouth" as opposed to its negative alternative.

3. **Conceptual Framework**

The conceptual framework used in the research builds to the works of Louis and Lombart (2010), Tummers (2012), and Zenker and Petersen (2014) (see Figure № 1).
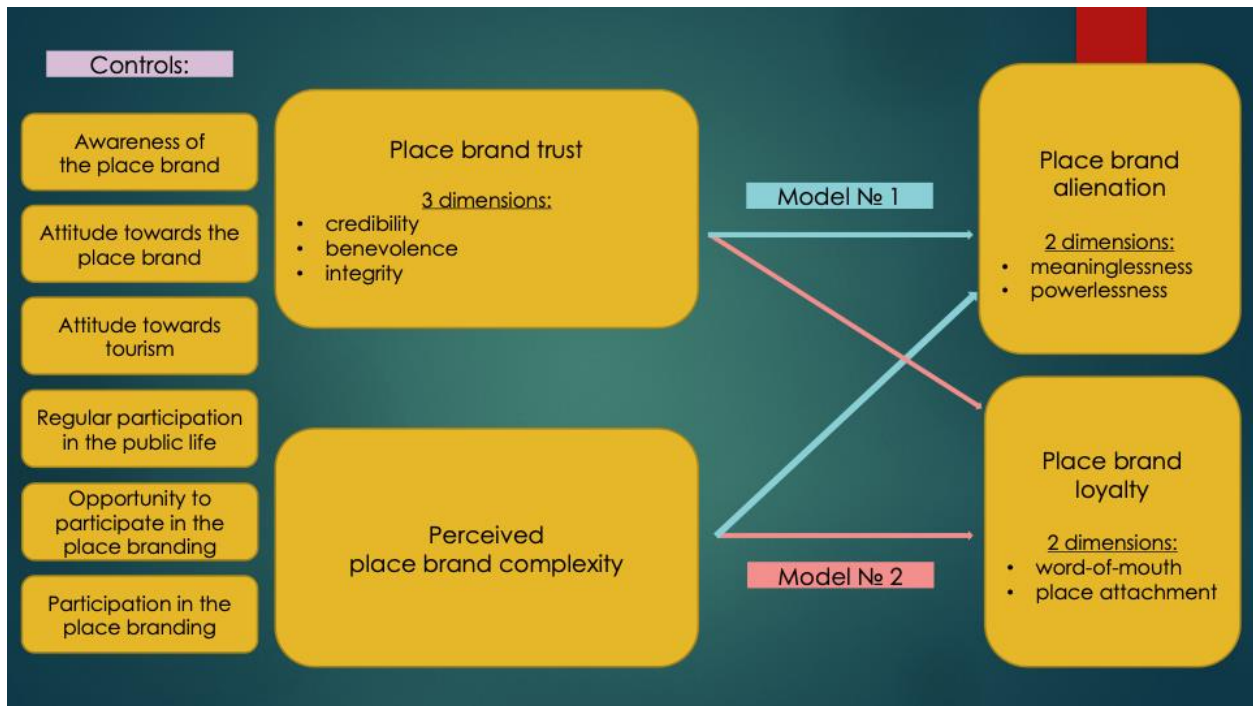
Figure № 1
The initial hypotheses were formulated accordingly (see Table № 1).

№	Variables	Expected relation	Initial hypotheses
		Table № 1	
H1:	Trust/Loyalty	+	*Place brand trust is positively related to place brand loyalty*
H2:	Trust/Alienation	−	*Place brand trust is negatively related to place brand alienation*
H3:	Complexity/Loyalty	+	*Perceived place brand complexity is positively related to place brand loyalty*
H4:	Complexity/Alienation	−	*Perceived place brand complexity is negatively related to place brand alienation*

Abbreviations

The main independent and dependent variables:

"Trust" (TR) - *residents' trust in the place brand;*
"Complexity" (C) - *perceived complexity of the place brand;*
"Loyalty" (L) - *residents' loyalty to the place brand;*
"Meaning" (M) - *residents' attitude towards the place brand in terms of its meaninglessness;*
"Power" (POW) - *residents' feeling of powerlessness in regard to the place branding process.*
Control variables:

"Awareness" (AW) - *knowledge of the place brand (how it presents the place);*
"Attitude" (AT) - *positive attitude towards the place brand's representations (logo & slogan);*
"Tourism" (TOUR) - *negative attitude towards tourism in the place;*
"Public" (PUB) - *active participation in the public life of the place;*
"Opportunity" (O) - *opportunity to participate in the place branding process;*
"Participation" (PAR) - *participation in the place branding process.*

3.1. **Linking trust with loyalty**

It is suggested that brand trust is related to both sub-dimensions of brand loyalty: the behavioural and attitudinal ones. This suggestion was distilled from the relationship marketing theory of brand commitment (Fournier, 1998; and Gundlach et al., 1995; and Moorman et al., 1992; Morgan & Hunt, 1994; and Webster, 1992 in Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001: 83). According to the theory, trust leads to the development of highly valued exchange relationships (Morgan & Hunt, 1994 in Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001: 83). Consequently, it results in brand commitment ["brand loyalty" in the context of this research] that could be defined as "an enduring desire to maintain a valued relationship" (Moorman et al., 1992: 316 in Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001: 83; Gurviez & Korchia, 2003), or alternatively "an average consumer's long term, behavioural and attitudinal disposition toward a relational brand" (Gundlach et al., 1995 in Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2002: 38). In other words, trust is essential for the development of a consumer-brand relationship, while brand commitment is crucial for its maintenance. Overall, trust and commitment are considered to be key relational variables (Morgan & Hunt, 1994: 22) that make participants of a relationship try to preserve it (Boon & Holmes, 1991 in Lau & Lee, 1999: 343). Since both concepts are said to be connected to relational exchanges, they are, therefore, expected to be related.

Based on the aforementioned definitions of brand commitment, it is reasonable to consider this concept and brand loyalty as analogous, or at least highly similar, phenomena. Additionally, both of them are commonly conceptualized as two-dimensional constructs, composed of behavioural and attitudinal sub-dimensions (Aaker, 1991; and Assael, 1992; and Beatty & Kahle, 1988; and Jacoby & Chestnut, 1978; and Gundlach et al., 1995 in Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2002: 38). Therefore, it is assumed that they are similarly related to other concepts: what is true for brand commitment is expected to be true for brand loyalty. Following the line of reasoning outlined above, brand trust is predicted to have a connection with both dimensions of brand loyalty, by analogy with brand commitment.

In fact, brand trust is often viewed as an antecedent of brand loyalty (Bruwer et al., 2013). In the corporate sector, for example, it is commonly acknowledged that the former influences the latter (Dehdashti et al., 2012; O'Shaughnessy, 1992; and Sahin et al., 2011 in Dehdashti et al., 2012: 1428; Singh & Sirdeshmukh, 2000; and Ball et al., 2004 in Li et al., 2008: 1; Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2005). Brand loyalty, in turn, is said to lead to greater sales of the brand as well as various marketing advantages, including lower marketing expenditure, greater number of

new customers, larger trade leverage, positive word-of-mouth, and stronger resistance among consumers to competitive influences (Howard & Sheth, 1969; and Aaker, 1991; and Dick & Basu, 1994 in Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2002: 43). Thus, it appears that brand trust influences both word-of-mouth and brand attachment, expressed as a higher level of resistance to competitors' strategies.

Indeed, Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001), Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alemán (2005), Ercis and others (2012) confirmed that brand trust was directly related to both behavioural (intention to continue purchases) and attitudinal (commitment and willingness to pay a higher price) brand loyalty. Bruwer and others (2013), showed that positive brand attitudes, including trust, increase repurchase intentions. Gremler and others (2001) demonstrated that trust in employees leads to positive word-of-mouth. Additionally, it was illustrated that brand trust positively influences emotional constructs, including brand love (Albert et al., 2010; and Thomson et al., 2005 in Sta & Abbassi, 2018: 302) and brand affect (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001; and Halim, 2006; and Fatih & Hayrettin, 2013; and Albert et al., 2013 in Sta & Abbassi, 2018: 302).

In the geographical context, brand trust is commonly considered as an antecedent of residents' positive place brand attitudes (e.g., self–brand connection) and behaviours (e.g., beneficial word-of-mouth) (Kemp et al., 2012b in Insch & Stuart, 2015: 173). Some elements of what is considered here as place brand trust were found to be connected to place loyalty (DeChernatony & McDonald, 1998 in Trueman et al., 2004: 323). For instance, residents' attitude towards a place brand is said to shape and define their behaviour (Zenker, 2011 in Zenker & Rütter, 2014: 12). Similarly, Zenker and Rütter (2014) connect positive place brand attitudes to positive citizenship activity represented by a lower intention to leave and beneficial word-of mouth intention. It is reasonable to expect the concepts of place brand trust and place brand attitude to be closely related, leading to comparable outcomes.

Keeping in mind that this particular research centres upon residents, it is important to mention that most literature on destination loyalty focuses predominantly on tourists (e.g., Baloglu, 2001; Kyle et al., 2004), with a few exceptions that consider both temporary visitors and local inhabitants (e.g., Simpson & Siguaw, 2008). Moreover, destination loyalty has been mostly investigated in regard to such concepts as motivation (e.g., Yoon & Uysal, 2005), satisfaction (e.g., Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Simpson & Siguaw, 2008), past visitation behaviour (e.g., Oppermann, 2000), and identity salience (e.g., Simpson & Siguaw, 2008). Therefore, it appears that the relationship between place brand trust and place brand loyalty, especially in the context of residents, has not been investigated yet. Due to this presumed gap, the theoretical justification of the relationship outlined above is based primarily on the marketing literature on goods and services which contains a solid base of research on brand trust and brand loyalty. The literature was translated in the public and spatial domains, and applied to the investigated concepts by analogy.

> *H1: Place brand trust is positively related to place brand loyalty*

3.2. Linking trust with alienation

Building on the theorizing of Fournier (1998), it is assumed that managerially imposed stressors as well as dyadic/relational stresses lead to residents' place brand alienation. The former could be reflected in governing authorities' decisions in regard to the place brand that are considered as unacceptable from residents' point of view. This could happen when the place is branded in a way

that does not correspond to the reality encountered by its inhabitants, decreasing their trust in the place brand particularly through the benevolence dimension. The benevolence aspect of trust is predicted to be influenced the most because it directly reflects a degree of brand's consumer orientation (Gurviez & Korchia, 2003). In the context of geographical settings, it represents place brand's citizen orientation: residents' inclusion in the place branding process and consideration of their preferences. Consequently, lower levels of trust resulting from managerially imposed stressors are expected to escalate the level of citizens' place brand alienation. Indeed, excessively positive place branding strategies directed solely at prospective inhabitants, may lead to a feeling of alienation between the permanent residents and the officially communicated place brand (Bennett & Savani, 2003 in Braun et al., 2013: 7).

Dyadic/relational stresses, reflected in a "trespass of unwritten relationship rules, breach of trust, failure to keep a promise, or perception of neglect on part of relationship partner" (Fournier, 1998: 363), may also lead to place brand alienation. For instance, a failure of governing authorities to include residents in the place branding process can be seen as a breach of established norms or an act of negligence in regard local inhabitants. Such actions are expected to result in citizens' low trust in the place brand, particularly through the integrity dimension, due to citizens' disapproval and weak brand identification (Insch & Walters, 2018; Braun et al., 2013; Szondi, 2011). The integrity aspect of trust is predicted to be influenced the most because it directly reflects a degree of brand's loyal motivations, consistency, and honesty (Gurviez & Korchia, 2003). In the context of geographical settings, it represents place brand's representativeness, accuracy, and authenticity. Consequently, lower levels of trust resulting from dyadic/relational stresses are expected to deteriorate the level of residents' place brand alienation. Indeed, if internal stakeholders are not involved in the place branding activities, they may feel alienated from the meaning of the place brand (Braun et al., 2013; Freire, 2009; and Insch & Florek, 2008 in Insch & Stuart, 2015: 172-173). Such disengagement could also lead to a low level of citizen place brand identification, and thus, by analogy, to strong place brand alienation (Insch & Stuart, 2015).

As has been mentioned above, the concepts of brand alienation in general, and place brand or place alienation in particular, remain largely underdeveloped. They seem to lack both thorough conceptualization and empirical grounding. At the same time, low levels and negative values of such concepts as place identification, brand identification, place attachment, and place brand attitude could be considered as close reminders of place brand alienation. Accordingly, place brand alienation is expected to be related to other phenomena in the same way as the aforementioned similar concepts. In other words, these concepts' connections could be applied to place brand alienation by analogy in order to theoretically justify its potential relations.

It has been argued already that brand trust affects the attitudinal dimension of brand loyalty (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001; Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2005; Ercis et al., 2012). Considering that brand identification as well as brand attachment are commonly used as indicators of the attitudinal dimension of brand loyalty, and that their negative values are deemed to be analogous to the concept of brand alienation, it is reasonable to assume that brand trust is related to brand alienation. Accordingly, place brand trust is expected to be related to place brand alienation.

It was also shown that brand trust impacts such emotional constructs as brand love (Albert et al., 2010; and Thomson et al., 2005 in Sta & Abbassi, 2018: 302) and brand affect (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001; and Halim, 2006; and Fatih & Hayrettin, 2013; and Albert et al., 2013 in Sta & Abbassi, 2018: 302). Considering that brand alienation is a psychological and emotional concept

which is deemed to be analogous to negative values of brand love and brand affect, it is reasonable to assume that brand trust is related to brand alienation. Accordingly, place brand trust is expected to be related to place brand alienation.

> *H2: Place brand trust is negatively related to place brand alienation*

3.3. **Linking complexity with loyalty**

It should be stressed that the complexity of a modern "glocalized" world has blurred the lines between classical tourism categories such as host-guest or resident-tourist (Ritzer, 2003 in Jeuring & Haartsen, 2017: 243). Local inhabitants legitimize a place brand by means of their citizen rights, promote it through positive word-of-mouth, and enjoy its beneficial effects (Braun et al., 2013). Zenker and Petersen (2014), in their conceptual model, assume that a high level of positive perceived place brand complexity is related to stronger place attachment and positive citizen behaviour: both dimensions of brand loyalty. However, it is suggested that the link is not direct. More specifically, perceived place brand complexity is expected to influence resident-place identification that in turn should impact place attachment, which eventually is predicted to define citizenship behaviour (Zenker & Petersen, 2014). This particular research, however, is aimed at investigating a possible direct connection between perceived place brand complexity and place brand loyalty. Such connection could be theoretically grounded on the literature regarding place identification. This is the case because this concept seems to either moderate, or even mediate, the relationship between place brand complexity and place brand loyalty.

Positive perceived place brand complexity is expected to be related to both dimensions of place brand loyalty: the attitudinal and behavioural ones. This expectation is based on the findings in regard to place identification, which is believed to be predetermined by place brand complexity (Zenker & Petersen, 2014). Place identification is commonly seen as an antecedent of residents' positive place brand attitudes and behaviours, including self–brand connection and beneficial word-of-mouth (Choo et al., 2011 in Insch & Stuart, 2015: 173). Zenker and others (2017) argue that a high degree of residents' identification with the place strengthens their attachment to it (the attitudinal dimension of place brand loyalty). This finding is indirectly supported by the research of Insch and Walters (2018). Consequently, Zenker and others (2017) argue that both place identification and place attachment influence citizenship behaviour, including word-of-mouth (the behavioural dimension of place brand loyalty). Place attachment was also linked to place-protective behaviour that could be realized as positive WOM (Stedman, 2002; and Rollero & De Piccoli, 2010 in Zenker & Petersen, 2014: 716). A link between place brand identification and word-of-mouth is indirectly supported by the research of Insch and Florek (2008 in Insch & Stuart, 2015: 173) as well as Insch and Stuart (2015).

Overall, according to the aforementioned theorizing and evidence, perceived place brand complexity is supposed to influence place identification which subsequently should impact both word-of-mouth and place attachment. This line of causation allows to theoretically justify a direct link between perceived place brand complexity and both dimensions of place brand loyalty which is going to be investigated in the course of the present research.

> *H3: Perceived place brand complexity is positively related to place brand loyalty*

3.4. **Linking complexity with alienation**

Places of residence seem to be highly important for local inhabitants who are, therefore, expected to be willing to invest time and intellectual resources in researching and comprehending their place brands (Zenker et al., 2017). Perceived place brand complexity is said to be capable of influencing residents' evaluation of the city as a social category, and thus, their connectedness to as well as detachment from it (Mummendey & Wenzel, 1999; and Park et al., 1991 in Zenker & Petersen, 2014: 719). Therefore, place brand's structure, depicted as a level of its complexity, is argued to be as important as its content (Zenker & Petersen, 2014).

As has been mentioned before, place identification depicts "a meaningful link between the self-concept and... the place prototype [brand]" (Zenker & Petersen, 2014: 717). It incites residents to make connections between self-aspects and the place brand (Turner, 1985; and Turner et al., 1987 in Zenker & Petersen, 2014: 717). Consequently, these connections can enrich their self-concept with core attributes of a particular place. Identification with a place has three main determinants: identity attractiveness, identity fit, and optimal distinctiveness. A higher degree of positive perceived place brand complexity is expected to result in a higher level of each of the aforementioned determinants, and thus, increase place identification. Accordingly, place brand complexity could mitigate the influence of places' negative attributes by providing residents with a wide range of positive features from which they can choose to identify with. In other words, complexity could enhance cities' allure by helping cities' strong sides overshadow their weak sides. Consequently, identity attractiveness of a city could be increased. Place brand complexity could also make it easier for residents to establish a strong identity fit with their place of living by offering them a rich choice of attributes to identify with. The larger the choice, the higher the chance that any particular resident will find at least some features of the city to be appealing and relatable. Finally, "a complex place prototype [brand] offers leeway for finding an optimal equilibrium between assimilation to the prototype [brand] and distinction of the self," allowing citizens to establish and maintain optimal distinctiveness (Zenker & Petersen, 2014: 721).

Following the line of reasoning about alienation's similarity to the concept of identification, it could be suggested that a low degree of positive or high degree of negative perceived place brand complexity should result in a high level of place brand alienation. Weak place brand identification demotivates residents to retain "a meaningful link" (Zenker & Petersen, 2014: 717) with the place brand, and to "connect aspects of the self" to it (Turner, 1985; and Turner et al., 1987 in Zenker & Petersen, 2014: 717). Accordingly, it is expected to be reflected or result in "[a relationship] of separation" (Geyer, 1976: 190) where residents feel like aliens or strangers to the place brand (Krishnan, 2008: 19), expressing "generalized dissatisfaction" (Fajer & Schouten, 1995). In other words, weak place brand identification is assumed to correlate with strong place brand alienation. The phenomena are believed to be appearing simultaneously and developing in a parallel manner.

It is also assumed, based on the reasoning specified above, that positive perceived place brand complexity could mitigate the impact of personally-induced stressors which may result in poor resident-place relationships, and thus, place brand alienation. These stressors include residents' constantly changing "personalities, roles, needs, [and] values" that have to be met by any city interested in retaining human capital and preventing its relocation (Fournier, 1998: 363). Positively complex place brands, low in ambiguity, entropy, and variability, are expected to be more likely to satisfy residents' changing demands (Fournier, 1998). This seems to be the case since they offer a wider range of images, qualities, and norms, which increases the chance of meeting one's diverse as well as dynamic requirements and expectations.

4. **Methodology**

Building on the theoretical framework presented above, this section will elaborate on the choices made regarding the concepts, their definitions and operationalization (see Table № 2; and Appendix A). As has been mentioned before, the main investigated concepts are place brand trust, perceived place brand complexity, place brand alienation, and place brand loyalty. Since the research specifically focuses on residents, the concepts are considered from a citizen perspective and understood as: residents' trust in the place brand, residents' perception of the place brand complexity, residents' alienation from the place brand, and residents' loyalty to the place brand. The former two concepts constitute independent variables, while the latter two constitute dependent variables.

It should be mentioned that the research has adopted a relational approach, which appears to be the most appropriate one considering the nature of the investigated concepts. Residents and place brands are, therefore, seen as parties of a relationship. Such position corresponds to the postulates of relational marketing, which has become the main point of reference for the research (Berry, 1995; and Beatty et al., 1988; and Kennedy et al., 2000 in Gurviez & Korchia, 2003: 2). This field differentiates between discrete transactions and relational exchanges occurring between companies and consumers (Morgan & Hunt, 1994). Relational exchanges characterized by stronger ties and longer duration are believed to represent resident-place brand relationships much better compared to abrupt, unstable, and substantively weak discrete transactions (Dwyer et al., 1987 in Morgan & Hunt, 1994: 21). Therefore, they will be implied every time when resident-place brand relationships are discussed.

Table № 2					
Operationalization					
Concept	**Sub-dimension**	**Original items**	**Adapted items (formulated to resemble the translation in the Ukrainian language)**	**Value**	**Source**
Perceived place brand complexity		- The city you live in is complex; - The city you live in is multi-faceted; - The city you live in has different sides.	- Lviv is a complex city; - Lviv is a multi-faceted city; - Lviv has different sides.	7-point Likert scale	Zenker et al., 2017.

				7-point Likert scale	
Place brand trust	Credibility (Li et al., 2008)	This brand does a good job; I expect the brand to deliver on its promise; I am confident in the brand's ability to perform well; The quality of this brand has been very consistent.	- The brand of Lviv is effective; - I expect the brand of Lviv to improve the city according to the created image; - I am confident in the ability of the brand of Lviv to benefit the city; - The brand of Lviv is constantly improving.	7-point Likert scale	Gurviez & Korchia, 2003; Li et al., 2008.
	Integrity (Gurviez & Korchia, 2003)	This brand is sincere with consumers; This brand is honest with its customers; This brand expresses an interest in its customers.	- The brand of Lviv honestly represents features of the city; - The brand of Lviv honestly represents the character of the residents; - The brand of Lviv expresses an interest in the residents of the city.		
	Benevolence (Gurviez & Korchia, 2003)	I think this brand renews its products to take into account advances in research; I think this brand is always looking to improve its response to consumer needs.	- The brand of Lviv evolves along with the city; - The brand of Lviv is being constantly updated according to the residents' new preferences.		
Place brand loyalty	Place attachment (the attitudinal component)	- The place feels like home; - There are a lot of things that keep me in the place; - There is no other place I would rather live in.	- I feel at home in Lviv; - A lot of things tie me to Lviv; - There is no other city I would like to move to.	7-point Likert scale	Zenker & Rütter, 2014; Zenker et al., 2017.
	Positive word-of-mouth (the behavioural component)	- I have recommended this place to lots of people; - I 'talk up' this place to my friends; - I spread the good-word about this place; - I give this place positive word-of-mouth advertising.	- I have recommended lots of people to visit Lviv; - I say positive things about Lviv to my friends or relatives; - I spread positive feedback about Lviv; - I popularize Lviv as a comfortable city through positive testimonials.	7-point Likert scale	Zenker & Rütter, 2014 with Jeuring & Haartsen, 2017 and Papadimitri ou et al., 2018.
	Powerlessness (strategic)	- Professionals cannot influence the development of policies at the national level (Minister and Ministry of X, National Government);	*One additional item for powerlessness was included to make sure that 2 dimensions (powerlessness and meaninglessness) have equal number of items and therefore equal weight.* - Residents had too few opportunities to influence the content of the brand of Lviv; *(powerlessness)* - Residents should have been involved far more in the creation of the brand of Lviv; *(powerlessness)*	7-point Likert scale	Van Engen, 2017.
	Powerlessness (operational)	- Generally, I have freedom to decide how to use government policies (R);	- Residents' opinion was not adequately taken into account over the development of the brand of Lviv; *(powerlessness)*		
	Meaninglessne ss (societal)	- Overall, I think that government policy leads to socially relevant goal A (R);	- Overall, I think that the brand of Lviv does not improve the image of the city; *(societal meaninglessness)*		
	Meaninglessne ss (societal)	- In general, I think that government policy in the long term will lead to socially relevant goal A (R);	- Overall, I think that the brand of Lviv does not promote the improvement of the city's welfare; *(societal meaninglessness)* - The brand of Lviv does not influence my attitude towards the city in either positive or negative way. *(client meaninglessness)*		
	Meaninglessne ss (client)	- In general, government policy enables me to better solve the problems of my clients (R).			
Marker variable (blue attitude)		- I prefer blue to other colours; - I like the colour blue; - I like blue clothes; - I hope my next car is blue.	- Blue is my favourite colour; - I like the colour blue; - I like blue clothes; - I hope my next jacket is blue.	7-point Likert scale	Miller & Chiodo, 2008 in Simmering et al., 2015.

4.1. **Place brand trust**

Taking into account that the concept of trust is deeply rooted in the field of social psychology and area of personal relationships, it appears to be appropriate to consider the concept of place brand trust from a relational perspective (Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2001). Since no definition of the concept has been identified in the existing literature, it was formulated based on the relational definition of general brand trust developed by Moorman and others (1992). Accordingly, the following definition of residents' trust in the place brand was adopted: "the willingness of the average resident to rely on the ability of the place brand to perform its stated function" (Moorman et al., 1992 in Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2002: 37). Building on the theorizing of Gurviez and Korchia (2003: 3) devoted to general branding, place brand trust as such is viewed as a "a psychological variable mirroring a set of accumulated presumptions involving the credibility, integrity, and benevolence that a resident attributes to the place brand" (Gurviez & Korchia, 2003: 3).

Operationalization

Different approaches to the operationalization of trust can be found in the academic literature from different domains. A one-dimensional approach was adopted, for instance, by Fournier (1994 in Gurviez & Korchia, 2003: 2) who formulated a multifaceted construct for assessing the quality of one's relationship with a brand where trust was seen as one of the six facets. Morgan and Hunt (1994 in Gurviez & Korchia, 2003: 2) followed the one-dimensional operationalization of Larzelere and Huston (1980: 596 in Gurviez & Korchia, 2003: 2) highlighting that trust's dimensions of honesty and benevolence could not be separated operationally.

Jarvis and others (2003 in Li et al., 2008: 2), alternatively, argue that trust should be operationalized as a second-order factor composed of various lower-level dimensions. This allows for the comprehensive measurement of brand trust, as well as the concept's integration into different theories trying to grasp the complexity of the consumer-brand relationship. Such approach is also said to contribute to a better understanding of consumer behaviour in the context of reciprocal relationships with brands (Gurviez & Korchia, 2003: 7). Indeed, in the context of inter-corporate and brand relations, trust has been operationalized as a two-dimensional construct, often composed of credibility and benevolence (Ganesan, 1994; and Doney & Cannon, 1997; and Ganesan & Hess, 1997; and Fletcher & Peters, 1997; and Sirieix & Dubois, 1999 in Gurviez & Korchia, 2003: 2). This approach is most commonly applied in management and marketing (e.g., Doney & Cannon, 1997; and Ganesan, 1994; in Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2005: 188).

Following the idea of trust's multidimensionality, the concept is often seen as a combination of rational and irrational elements. While trust's affective dimension stems from the social sciences with such indicators as altruism (Frost et al., 1978), benevolence and honesty (Larzelere & Huston, 1980), dependability and responsibility (Rempel et al., 1985), its cognitive dimension is more closely related to the business fields with such indicators as ability (Andaleeb, 1992; Mayer et al., 1995), credibility (Ganesan, 1994) and reliability (Hess, 1995) (Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2001: 1241-1242). Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alemán (2005), for instance, consider brand trust as consisting of reliability (technical competence) and intentions (goodwill and customer orientation). In the similar vein, Erdem and Swait (1998 in Sta & Abbassi, 2018: 302) approach brand trust as a construct composed of both cognitive and emotional components. While the latter is represented by benevolence, the former is depicted through credibility further subdivided into honesty and expertise (Erdem & Swait, 1998 in Sta & Abbassi, 2018: 302). Interestingly, Li and others (2008) believe that it is crucial to differentiate

between overall, general trust and its constitutive components. Having developed a two-dimensional measurement scale of brand trust based on competence and benevolence, they argue that brand trust can be measured both directly (with no division into formative components) and indirectly (as an aggregate of its constitutive elements) (Li et al., 2008).

Some authors go even further by separating three dimensions: the presumptions of capability, honesty, and good motivations (Hess, 1995; and Gurviez, 1999; and Frisou, 2000 in Gurviez & Korchia, 2003: 2). As has been mentioned before, Gurviez and Korchia (2003) indeed depict brand trust as a three-dimensional concept, consisting of such elements as credibility, integrity, and benevolence (Gurviez & Korchia, 2003: 7). Since their relational definition was adopted as a basis for the research, it is important to investigate this conceptualization more closely. The credibility component is related to the assessment of a brand's ability to fulfil the terms of the exchange and to deliver what has been promised. It reflects a technical and functional dimension connected to the satisfaction of customers' needs. In the context of citizen trust in the city brand, credibility could be depicted as a (perceived) quality of life in the city, or the brand's ability to bring about positive outcomes, including a higher number of tourists or improved city image. The integrity component is related to a brand's loyal motivations in line with the terms of the exchange. In other words, this dimension reflects how honest a brand is. In the context of citizen trust in the city brand, integrity could be depicted as the brand's representativeness, accuracy, or authenticity. Differentiating these two components is crucial since it allows to distinguish between the two sources of trust: technical skills and ethical proficiency (Landowski, 1989 in Gurviez & Korchia, 2003: 2). The benevolence component is related to a brand's consumer orientation, its willingness to take consumers' interests into account and prioritize them over own short-term considerations. This dimension reflects the durability level of the terms of the exchange. In the context of citizen trust in the city brand, benevolence could be depicted as the brand's citizen orientation. By clearly differentiating integrity and benevolence, Gurviez and Korchia (2003) avoid any confusion associated with these two concepts that had been present in earlier research. The three dimensions are considered to have a causal or formative relation to the concept of brand trust, which accordingly is seen as an index composed of multiple indicators. The dimensions do not necessarily influence each other, having a definite impact on the overall trust construct only (Gurviez & Korchia, 2003).

Overall, such approach builds on the work of Hess (1995), Gurviez (1999), and Frisou (2000) who distilled the honesty, altruism, and reliability dimensions of brand trust (Gurviez & Korchia, 2003: 2). It also follows the recommendations of Rempel and others (1985 in Gurviez & Korchia, 2003: 2) who argued that a three-dimensional operationalization is crucial for reflecting trust's theoretically distinct components. Moreover, the position on the dimensions' causal or formative effect corresponds to the observations and suggestions of Bollen and Lennox (1991), Chin (1998), and Edwards (2001) (Gurviez & Korchia, 2003: 3). Accordingly, it can be concluded that the method of Gurviez and Korchia (2003) in regard to the conceptualization and operationalization of trust is thoroughly grounded and theoretically justified. It has already been adopted and probed by many researchers, including Simoes (2005), Elliott and Yannopoulou (2007), Walsh and others (2009), as well as Sta and Abbassi (2018) (Dehdashti et al., 2012: 1428). This is a strong indication of the fact that the method had been widely accepted and recognized by the academic community, which consequently verified its coherence, validity, and appropriateness. Taking this into account, the operationalization of trust in the present research will follow the three-dimensional approach of Gurviez and Korchia (2003), which has proved to be both theoretically consistent and empirically viable. Moreover, it corresponds to the formulated definition of place brand trust elaborated above.

Since no scale for measuring resident trust in the place brand has been identified in the existing literature, the scale of Gurviez and Korchia (2003) aimed at measuring consumer trust in product- and service- brands had to be adjusted and translated in the appropriate context. The adjustment itself is presented in the table below, placed in the end of the methodology section. It should be stressed that consumer-brand relations, on the one hand, and resident-place brand relations, on the other hand, are very different, each having its own particularities. Therefore, any translation of the former field into the latter context would inevitably result in some inaccuracies and tensions. Accordingly, it is believed that this has happened, to a certain extent, to the operationalisation of place brand trust. It is possible that the resulting scale, similarly grounded on the credibility, benevolence, and integrity dimensions, did not end up measuring the same type of trust that is depicted by the original template measurement.

4.2. **Perceived place brand complexity**

Since no clear definition of brand complexity in general and place brand complexity in particular could be identified in the existing academic literature, a distinct definition of perceived place brand complexity was formulated for the purposes of the research. It was developed building on the works of Zenker and Petersen (2004) and Zenker and others (2017) who were first to present and elaborate the concept of perceived place prototype complexity. Following their contributions as a substantive point of reference and the above-mentioned relational approach, a place brand is defined as "a network of associations in the place consumers' mind based on the visual, verbal, and behavioural expression of a place, which is embodied through the aims, communication, values, and the general culture of the place's stakeholders and the overall place design" (Zenker & Braun, 2010: 4 in Zenker et al., 2017: 17).

Accordingly, place brand complexity is defined as a number and interrelatedness of dimensions as well as their qualities (attributes) "that are central to the mental representation of a place and differentiate it from other places (Zenker & Petersen, 2014: 717; Rapoport & Hawkes, 1970). This definition was formulated based on the separate definitions of complexity suggested by Rapoport and Hawkes (1970: 108) as well as Zenker and Petersen (2014: 718), and the definition of a place prototype outlined by Zenker and Petersen (2014: 717). As has been mentioned before, the concepts of a place prototype and a place brand are seen as analogous due to their functional correspondence. In turn, perceived place brand complexity is defined as a resident's perception of the number and interrelatedness of dimensions as well as their qualities (attributes) "that are central to the mental representation of a place and differentiate it from other places" (Zenker & Petersen, 2014: 717; Rapoport & Hawkes, 1970).

A great number of dimensions as well as their qualities (attributes), and strong interconnectedness among them as perceived by residents, signify a high level of perceived place brand complexity (Linville, 1987). The concept varies in terms of both magnitude and quality. Place brand complexity is said to be positive when its ambiguity, entropy, and variability levels are perceived as low. In other words, place brand complexity is positive when it is structured, organised, and consistent (Zenker & Petersen, 2014).

Operationalization

As it has already been mentioned, the concept of a place prototype can be viewed as analogous to the concept of a place brand. Both of them highlight places' specific features and allow for their consequent differentiation. The validity of this observation was proved by the following research

of Zenker and others (2017) where they used perceived place brand complexity as an indication of perceived place prototype complexity in order to verify the previously developed conceptual model (Zenker & Petersen, 2014). Moreover, the measurement of perceived place brand complexity was based on the perceived complexity of the place itself. Such operationalization builds on the suggestions of Cox and Cox (1988 in Zenker et al., 2017: 25). Overall, perceived place brand complexity was measured based on such items as, "The city you live in is complex," "The city you live in is multi-faceted," and "The city you live in has different sides" (Zenker et al., 2017: 25).

Initially, Zenker and Petersen (2014) provided multiple suggestions on how to measure the concept of (perceived) place brand complexity. The approach adopted by them, based on Likert scales and the research of Cox and Cox (1988) that investigates the relationship between advertisements' complexity and their evaluation, is only one of many possibilities. Another one is the methodology of Brown and Rafaeli (2007) who researched the concept of self-complexity measuring the number of self-aspects and their distinctiveness (or overlap between them). In the place branding context, such approach could be used to measure (perceived) place brand complexity by means of an overlap index between the characteristics attributed to different dimensions of the place. For instance, how similarly city's resident groups or neighbourhoods would be described.

Yet another possibility stems from the research of Linville (1987) on self-complexity and the research of Showers (1992) on compartmentalization of self-knowledge. In order to measure these concepts, they asked participants to define important aspects of their lives (groups) and assign a mix of traits (features) to each aspect. Traits could be repetitively used to describe multiple aspects. Consequently, each participant was formulating a certain number of groups, each with a certain number and combination of features. According to Linville (1987: 666), "the greater the number of self-aspects created and the less redundant the features used in creating these self-aspects, the greater the SC (self-complexity) score." This technique could be applied in the place branding context, with participants defining dimensions of the city and assigning different characteristics to them.

It should be stressed that despite the existence of many alternatives for measuring (perceived) place brand complexity, only the approach based on Cox and Cox (1988) has been probed and validated so far (Zenker et al., 2017). Therefore, due to practical considerations, it seems to be reasonable for the research to apply this particular method. At the same time, it is acknowledged that other untested approaches could, in fact, be more effective and accurate. The operationalization of the concept is clarified in the table below, placed in the end of the methodology section.

4.3. **Place brand alienation**

In order to logically integrate the concept of alienation into this particular research conducted from a relational perspective, the following definition of alienation was adopted: "[a relationship] of separation; a separation that generally must be considered undesirable from some point of view" (Geyer, 1976: 190). Accordingly, place brand alienation was defined as "a subjective individualized phenomenon where a [resident] feels like an alien or stranger to and excluded by the [place] brand" (Krishnan, 2008: 19). This definition builds on the theorizing of Krishnan (2008) whose work centres upon consumers and goods, as well as customers and services.

Operationalization

According to Seeman, there are many usages or versions of alienation including powerlessness, meaninglessness, normlessness, isolation, and self-estrangement (Seeman, 1959). Subsequently he also included social isolation and cultural estrangement (Seeman, 1975). Consequent research on alienation, stemming from different fields, used these usages and versions as indicators to measure general alienation as a higher-order, multidimensional concept. While it was shown that consumer alienation from the marketplace could be measured as a unidimensional construct (Allison, 1978 in Krishnan, 2008: 19), many academics argue for alienation's multidimensionality (e.g., Acevedo, 2005 in Krishnan, 2008: 19; Seeman, 1959). The interconnectedness and divisibility of alienation's different dimensions, including powerlessness and normlessness, has already been verified (e.g., Neal & Rettig, 1967 in Krishnan, 2008: 19). For instance, Tummers (2012), when developing a policy alienation measurement scale, considered alienation as a two-dimensional construct composed of the powerlessness and meaninglessness dimensions. Moreover, he further divided these dimensions into five sub-dimensions, including strategic, tactical, operational powerlessness, as well as societal and client meaninglessness. The validity and reliability of such measurement was eventually confirmed (Tummers, 2012). Accordingly, a multidimensional approach to the measurement of residents' place brand alienation seems to be not only suitable but, in fact, appropriate.

Since no scale for measuring specifically place brand alienation has been identified in the existing literature, a distinct measure had to be developed. It builds on the policy alienation scale of Tummers (2012) as well as its shortened version distilled by Van Engen (2017). These scales were taken as a point of reference due to their strong validity and reliability. They were adjusted and translated in the appropriate context, resulting in the place brand alienation measurement scale presented in the table below.

4.4. **Place brand loyalty**

Adhering to a relational approach and, therefore, building on the postulates of relational marketing, place brand loyalty is defined as "a [resident's] consistent and devoted relationship with" a place brand reflected in his or her strong attachment to the place as well as deep commitment to protect, defend, improve, and promote the place through positive citizen behaviour" (Day, 1969; and Jacoby & Kyner, 1973 in Morais et al., 2004: 235; Oliver, 1999: 34 in Chaudhuri & Holbrook 2001: 82). It should be clarified that positive citizen behaviour could take on many forms, including low intention to leave and beneficial word-of mouth (Zenker & Rütter, 2014). The definition implies the concept's multidimensionality and specifies such dimensions as place attachment and positive word-of-mouth. The multidimensionality as well as the selection of these particular dimensions will be elaborated and justified below.

Operationalization

Brand loyalty in the context of goods and services

Brand loyalty is often operationalized based on one of the three approaches: behavioural, attitudinal, or composite (Jacoby & Chestnut, 1978 in Yoon & Uysal, 2005: 48). The latter was first offered by Day and developed due to the shortcomings of the other two. More specifically, measuring loyalty as a behaviour only, does not explain such behaviour and does not reveal motivations behind it (Baloglu, 2001; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). A customer may keep buying certain

product or using certain service simply because of practical reasons, missing any real commitment to the brand (Oppermann, 2000). At the same time, considering loyalty as an attitude does not provide much insight into "competitive effects (multi-brand or shared loyalty), familiarity, and situational factors" (Baloglu, 2001: 42). Operationalizing brand loyalty as a two-dimensional construct (Backman & Crompton, 1991 in Yoon & Uysal, 2005: 48), however, allows for grasping its richness and differentiating among its different types. Moreover, the predictive power of such approach is said to be much higher (Baloglu, 2001). It should be mentioned that it also has some potential shortcomings, mostly in terms of measurement: "not all the weighting or quantified scores may apply to both the behavioural and attitudinal factors, and they may have differing measurements" (Yoon & Uysal, 2005: 48; Oppermann, 2000). Moreover, such comprehensive approaches are not the most practical ones since their implementation often requires unjustifiably long surveys (Oppermann, 2000).

Oliver's (1999: 34 in Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001: 82) definition of brand loyalty mentioned above, explicitly highlights the two components of brand loyalty: its behavioural and attitudinal dimensions. Overall, these dimensions have been widely recognized within academia (Aaker, 1991; and Assael, 1998; and Day, 1969; and Jacoby & Chestnut 1978; and Jacoby & Kyner 1973; and Oliver 1999; and Tucker 1964 in Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001: 82). The former dimension represents continuous repurchases of the brand, while the latter denotes "a degree of dispositional commitment in terms of some unique value associated with it" (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001: 82).

Brand loyalty in the context of leisure and tourism services

Acknowledging the possibility of its integrity and inseparability, Kyle and others (2004), in their research conducted in the leisure context, considered tourists' loyalty only in behavioural terms. At the same time, they included psychological and behavioural commitment as antecedents of behavioural loyalty. Interestingly, psychological commitment was regarded not only as an antecedent but also as an attitudinal component of loyalty (Backman, 1991; and Backman & Crompton, 1991 in Kyle et al., 2004: 102; Gahwiler & Havitz, 1998). Such approach based on commitment was also followed by Gahwiler and Havitz (1998) who nevertheless acknowledged that loyalty, in the leisure context, is a multidimensional construct consisting of both behavioural and affective dimensions (Backman & Crompton, 1991a; and Howard et al., 1988 in Gahwiler & Havitz, 1998: 7). It was stated that the latter is not easily deducible, and that "the multifaceted construct of commitment better represented the attitudinal component of loyalty than did previously used measures" (Gahwiler & Havitz, 1998: 7). Therefore, similarly to Kyle and others (2004), Gahwiler and Havitz (1998) measured psychological commitment and behavioural loyalty separately, presuming that they constitute two dimensions of the general concept of loyalty, where the former dimension leads to the latter one. Psychological commitment was defined as "the tendency to resist change in preference in response to conflicting information or experience" (Gahwiler & Havitz, 1998: 7); and was said to be related to the concept of internal commitment: "a motivational state or a motivational disposition to continue a line of activity, a role performance, or a relationship and to invest in them regardless of the balance of external costs and their immediate gratifying properties" (Shamir, 1988: 244 in Gahwiler & Havitz, 1998: 7).

Unlike Kyle and others (2004), but comparably to Gahwiler and Havitz (1998), Baker and Crompton (2000) argued that a behavioural sub-scale alone could not measure loyalty in an adequate manner (Backman & Crompton, 1991 in Baker & Crompton, 2000: 793). While researching the services sector, Baker and Crompton (2000) applied the concept of behavioural intentions, which closely corresponds to customer or tourist loyalty. They defined it as an

indication "of whether a visitor to a program or facility will return" (Baker & Crompton, 2000: 789). The concept was operationalized through the sub-scales of loyalty and willingness to pay more. Loyalty was described as a "committed behaviour," "the biased use of a selected program or resource" (Backman & Shinew, 1994 in Baker & Crompton, 2000: 793). Its sub-dimensions included 4 items from the two domains: behaviour (tendency to revisit) and attitude (the level of affection). More precisely, two items were connected to the probability of coming back, while another two related to positive word-of-mouth (Baker & Crompton, 2000: 793). Yoon and Uysal (2005) similarly applied two indicators related to recurring visitation (one's intention to revisit and feelings about the last visit), and one indicator related to positive word-of-mouth (one's intention to recommend), in order to jointly measure tourist destination loyalty.

As can be observed from the aforementioned operationalizations, researchers often use intentions as a valid indication of brand loyalty and corresponding actions. Indeed, following the theory of reasoned action, Baker and Crompton (2000) argued that behaviour could be predicted from and measured based on intentions (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980 in Baker & Crompton, 2000: 790). As Fishbein and Manfredo (1992: 33 in Baker & Crompton, 2000: 790) state, "when properly measured, correspondent intentions are very accurate predictors of most social behaviours." Yoon and Uysal (2005) share the same viewpoint. Contrary to this position, Oppermann (2000), when investigating the impact of previous destination experience on future destination choices, argues that there is a difference between one's intention to repurchase and actual repurchasing. Therefore, while recognizing that previous research had frequently used intent to return as an indication of loyalty, he measured the concept based on its behavioural dimension only: actual frequency of repeated visitation (Oppermann, 2000).

Place brand loyalty

Overall, it can be concluded that in the context of services in general, and recreation in particular, place brand or customer loyalty is traditionally operationalized on the basis of its predicted outcomes (Fournier, 1998; and Pritchard et al., 1999 in Morais et al., 2004: 238). Attitudes towards the provider (psychological attachment), word-of-mouth communications, and resistance to counter-persuasion are often used as indicators to measure loyalty as a multidimensional, higher-order construct. Morais and others (2004), for instance, integrated all three of them, depicting customer loyalty as a three-dimensional phenomenon. Taking into account the concept's acknowledged behavioural and attitudinal components, and building on the existing literature from closely related fields, it seems reasonable to operationalize place brand loyalty from a citizen perspective as a two-dimensional construct. Since no scale for measuring specifically place brand loyalty has been identified in the existing literature, a distinct measure had to be developed. It was eventually constructed based two concepts: positive word-of-mouth and place attachment. The choice of these specific dimensions and their unification under the label of place brand loyalty, has already been justified in the theoretical section above (2.3.2).

Overall, considering a resident-centred approach adopted by this research and following the theoretical justification outlined above, the inclusion of residents' positive WOM and place attachment as the behavioural and attitudinal components of place brand loyalty seems to be reasonable and appropriate. Therefore, place brand loyalty will be measured as a two-dimensional construct based on the equally weighted dimensions of positive word-of-mouth and place attachment. The dimensions' operationalization is elaborated below. The concept's overall measurement scale is presented in the table located at the end of the methodology section.

4.5. **Place attachment and positive word-of-mouth**

In regard to places, people tend to develop both cognitive, based on substantive information, and affective, based on emotions, responses and attachments (Proshonsky et al., 1983 in Yilmaz et al., 2009: 463). Accordingly, place attachment consists of two distinct dimensions: the physical one, related to environmental and infrastructural characteristics of a place, and the social one, related to personal relationships somehow connected to a place (Hidalgo & Hernández, 2001; and Low & Altman, 1992 in Zenker & Rütter, 2014: 12). Place attachment develops and consolidates when both dimensions have been fulfilled, based on residents' specific needs and preferences (Shumaker & Taylor, 1983 in Wang & Chen, 2015: 18). Prayag and Ryan (2012) consider these dimensions as both sub-dimensions of place attachment and separate, independent concepts. Place dependence, defined as "how well a setting serves goal achievement given an existing range of alternatives," represents the functional (physical) dimension (Jorgensen & Stedman, 2001: 234 in Prayag & Ryan, 2012: 344). In turn, place identity, defined as "an individual's strong emotional attachment to particular places or settings," represents the affective (social) dimension (Proshansky et al., 1983: 61 in Prayag & Ryan, 2012: 344).

Since this particular research considers place attachment as an attitudinal component of place brand loyalty, it is reasonable to operationalize the concept as a one-dimensional construct. Equally, since positive word-of-mouth is considered to be a behavioural component of place brand loyalty, it is reasonable to assume its one-dimensionality. Consequently, the concepts are expected to supplement each other, composing a reliable and comprehensive indication of place brand loyalty. The operationalization of each dimension will be presented in the table below.

4.6. **Control variables**

The control variables were chosen based on theoretical grounds and empirical evidence developed by previous research. Those phenomena that could potentially impact the dependent variables were chosen in order to assess their relative impact compared to the main independent variables. They were expected to absorb some of the independent variables' effect, producing a clearer and more reliable result.

4.6.1. **Awareness of and attitude towards the place brand:** Awareness and Attitude

Awareness of a brand (how the place brand presents the place) was chosen based on the findings from general marketing: brand awareness significantly determines brand equity (Aaker, 2009; Severi & Ling, 2013) among young consumers, being the main predictor of their purchase decisions (Cobb-Walgren et al., 1995; Sasmita & Suki, 2015; Malik et al., 2013). Thus, brand awareness is expected to be related to brand loyalty. Moreover, according to Konecnik and Gartner (2007), quality, loyalty, awareness, and image are essential dimensions of every destination brand. Therefore, they should express some connectivity. In this research, quality and loyalty constitute an independent and a dependent variables respectively and are depicted as trust (credibility) and place brand loyalty. Awareness and image were selected as control variables, materializing as knowledge about place brand's depiction of the place and attitude towards place brand's physical representations such as logo and slogan. According to Chigora and Zvavahera (2015), in the context of products and services, awareness of a destination brand is important for the development of brand loyalty, with brand image having a greater and perceived brand quality having a smaller effect. While Anggraeni (2015) managed to establish a

direct link between brand image and loyalty, Rageh and Spinelli (2012) argue that brand image initially impacts brand love, which consequently leads to word-of-mouth (Rageh & Spinelli, 2012). Reversely, Reza and Samiei (2012) found that electronic word-of-mouth influences purchase intentions and strongly impacts brand image, which consequently determines the decision to buy a particular brand. In the geographical context, awareness and image seem to be especially important when tourists consider going to a particular place for the first time (Gartner & Konecnik-Ruzzier, 2011). Attitude was found to be important for choosing a final travel destination among many familiar or known places (Um & Crompton, 1990). Overall, destination image influences tourists' selection of a travel destination, its consequent evaluation, and revisitation intentions (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989; Chon, 1990; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Chon, 1992; Milman & Pizam, 1995; Court & Lupton, 1997; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Castro et al., 2007). Destination image was found to influence tourists' attribute and overall satisfaction directly, and destination loyalty indirectly (Chi & Qu, 2008; Zhang et al., 2014). From the aforementioned observations, it could be expected that brand awareness and attitude should impact both behavioural and attitudinal dimensions of brand loyalty (word-of-mouth and brand attachment). This should be fair for products and services, as well as tourism and recreation. Their potential impact on brand alienation can be predicted based on the same observations since loyal customers or tourisms are expected to consider their favourite brands as useful (meaningfulness) and responsive (powerfulness). Moreover, brand trust is expected to imply both awareness of the brand and positive attitude towards it. These three phenomena, with trust considered as its credibility dimension, are said to constitute dimensions of any destination brand (Konecnik & Gartner, 2007). Awareness and attitude are also believed to be related to perceived place brand complexity. Firstly, one's perception of a place brand's complexity naturally implies awareness of this brand. Secondly, perceived place brand complexity indirectly influences identification with the place through identity fit, attractiveness of identification and optimal distinctiveness (Zenker et al., 2017). Since identification with a place or its brand implies positive attitude towards this place or its brand, perceived place brand complexity is believed to be related to place brand attitude. Some of the arguments presented above relate to brand awareness and attitude in the context of products and services. Since this investigation is interested particularly in place brands, brand awareness and attitude were translated in the required context and appear throughout the research as city brand awareness (awareness of how the city brand presents the city) and city brand attitude (one's attitude towards the city brand's representations such as logo and slogan).

4.6.2. **Attitude towards tourism:** Tourism

Another control variable, residents' attitude towards tourism, can influence community sentiment and attachment and thus place brand loyalty (McCool & Martin, 1994). Additionally, Boley and others (2014) investigated the link between different types of empowerment and resident attitudes towards tourism. Their psychological/social empowerment is considered to be similar to the loyalty and meaningfulness variables investigated in this research, while political empowerment is seen as analogous to powerfulness. The study concluded that all types of empowerment were negatively and significantly correlated with residents' perception of tourism's negative impacts. It also demonstrated a positive and significant relation between empowerment from tourism and its favourable perception (Boley et al., 2014). Subsequently, residents' attitude towards tourism is expected to be related to both place brand loyalty and alienation (meaninglessness and powerlessness). Since place brand trust includes the benevolence (resident-orientation) and integrity (representativeness) dimensions, it could also be related to residents' attitude towards tourism. If residents believe that the place brand is

benevolent and representative, their perception of temporary visitors could be more favourable: tourists would not be perceived as competitors who steal the brand's attention.

4.6.3. **Socio-demographic indicators:** birthplace, length of stay, age

Attitude towards tourism is often examined in relation to birthplace and length of stay in the city (e.g., Williams et al., 1995). Some researchers found that those born in the city or those who had lived there for a longer period reflected less positive attitudes towards tourism (Brougham & Butler, 1981; Lankford & Howard, 1994; Um & Crompton, 1987). Other scholars, however, could not confirm such conclusions, finding opposite results or no significant relation whatsoever (Davis et al., 1988; Gursoy et al., 2002; McCool & Martin, 1994; Andereck et al., 2005; Liu & Var, 1986). Birthplace and length of stay are frequently examined in relation to integration, and thus place identification, in the context of migration and internal displacement (e.g., Van Hear, 1994). A link between birthplace as well as length of residence and place attachment was established by many investigators, including Hummon (1992), Kasarda and Janowitz (1974), Sheldon and Var (1984), Gursoy and others (2002), McCool and Martin (1994). Williams and others (1995) also found that length of stay was correlated with both regional and community attachment. At the same time, the research of Cakir and Guneri (2011) demonstrated no significant relation between length of residence on the one hand, and empowerment, assimilation, and integration on the other. Consequently, length of stay appeared to be insignificant in predicting empowerment. The investigation was conducted in the context of Turkish migrant women in the UK. Despite its eventual empirical insignificance, the links were grounded theoretically. Overall, birthplace and length of stay are expected to be related to place brand loyalty, especially place attachment, and the feeling of powerlessness as a dimension of alienation. Subsequently, they could also be directly related to place brand trust through its benevolence and integrity dimensions, and indirectly via loyalty and alienation variables. Another demographic variable of interest was age. Pretty and others (2003) found that older residents tended to identify with the place of living more, have a stronger sense of community, be more attached to the place in terms of friendship ties, and be mode dependent on the place. The research of Speer and others (2001) indicated that compared to middle-aged residents (45-54), younger inhabitants (18-24) were more likely to appear in the low participation group formulated based on general civic involvement and participation in community groups. Consequently, age is expected to be related to place brand loyalty via its attitudinal dimension, and place brand alienation. This expectation is based on the assumption that citizen participation decreases citizen alienation.

4.6.4. **Citizen participation:** "Public," "Opportunity," "Participation"

The final three control variables are related to public participation and citizen involvement in public affairs. A sense of community is said to be related to social capital, including citizen participation and informal social control, place attachment, community confidence and satisfaction (Long & Perkins, 2007). Citizen participation could lead to various collective outcomes including strengthening of democracy, social cohesion, and meaningful policy changes (Denters, 2016). Reversely, Lewicka (2005) argues that place attachment influences civic activity indirectly via neighbourhood ties. A similar argument comes from Payton and others (2005) who established that place attachment influences civic activity indirectly through individual trust. Overall, participation in public affairs is expected to be related to place brand loyalty via its place attachment dimension. According to Irvin and Stansbury (2004) active citizens receive control over policy making, contribute and lead to more effective and efficient policy decisions. Consequently, civic involvement leads to psychological empowerment (a feeling of personal competence and willingness to participate in public affairs) (Zimmerman & Rappaport, 1988).

Moreover, from the deliberative perspective on democracy, integrative government could result in more meaningful problem definitions and solutions (Klijn and Koppenjan, 2016), as well as increased democratic character of the process (Dryzek, 2002; Young, 2002; Held, 2006; Klijn, 2016; Edelenbos & Van Meerkerk, 2016). The fact that authorities tend to involve citizens for self-promotion and marketing purposes indicates that such practice could indeed lead to strengthened public support of political actors and their policy decisions (Howard et al., 1994; Thomas, 1995; Edelenbos & Van Meerkerk, 2016). Thus, public participation and citizen involvement are expected to be related to both place brand loyalty through its attitudinal component, and place brand alienation through both meaninglessness and powerlessness dimensions. While loyalty is predicted to be influenced by civic activism in general, place brand alienation is expected to be impacted specifically by participation in the place branding process. Involvement in place branding is also believed to be related to place brand trust, especially through its benevolence dimension. In order to account for both civic activity in general and participation in place branding in particular, respondents were asked whether they took part in the public life of the city on a regular basis (the "Public" variable), and whether they had the opportunity to participate or participated in the development of the city brand (the "Opportunity" and "Participation" variables). "Public" appeared at the end of the questionnaire next to the Awareness, Attitude, and Tourism variables. These four controls were measured with a 7-point Likert scale, similarly to all other constructs in the survey. "Opportunity" and "Participation" were placed at the end of the socio-demographic section, which in turn was located after the main questionnaire. Respondents could reflect on these control variables with either "yes" or "no."

5. Method

5.1. Survey

A survey method was selected as a mean to carry out the research due to its advantages that fit the purposes and particularities of this particular thesis. It allows for fast and inexpensive data gathering, measurement of attitudes, values, and beliefs, possibility to cover a large sample and thus obtain accurate results (Evans & Mathur, 2005). Accounting for these advantages, it is also realized that surveys may result in low internal validity, low construct validity due to self-report problems, and low external validity due to unsatisfactory sampling or participation bias (Mathiyazhagan & Nandan, 2010). After the precise description of the method applied, the reliability of the concepts, as well as the internal and external validity of the research will be discussed. This will be followed by the section on reflexivity and positionality.

5.2. Questionnaire (see Appendix B)

At first, the questionnaire was formulated following the "need to know" approach, including only relevant questions directly linked to the research questions and objectives (Jones et al., 2006: 248). Since the concepts considered in the research are believed to be new, already validated instruments could not be directly included in the questionnaire. The broadly tested, properly calibrated, and therefore accurate instruments were modified to match the investigated concepts (Alderman & Salem, 2010). The theoretical grounding of the formulated definitions, conceptualizations, and operationalizations has already been presented above. The justification of the suggested relationships between the concepts presented in the conceptual frameworks has been elaborated as well. The modification was revised three times by the supervisor, Dr. Jasper

Eshuis, and adjusted according to his feedback. Consequently, the English-version questionnaire was formulated, finalized, and translated into the Ukrainian language.

5.3. **Translation** (see Appendix C)

The translation was made following the recommendations of Harkness and Schoua-Glusberg (1998), Banville and others (2000), Jowell and others (editors, 2007), Barbin (2014), Dorer and others (2016). The parallel translation method was applied with the second translator being a PhD student from the Faculty of Foreign Languages (English language and literature) of Ivan Franko National University of Lviv (Harkness & Schoua-Glusberg, 1998: 101). The Ukrainian-version questionnaire was pre-tested by means of a pilot study in order to reveal confusing and unclear parts that could impede its proper completion. The pilot was carried out in the form of two subsequent questionnaire trials, each followed by a group interview involving all participants (Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001). The trial groups were separated in time and different in composition (Dorer et al., 2016: 347). The first group consisted of 5 second year students from the Law Faculty of the National University of Lviv, while the second group consisted of 5 third year students from the Faculty of International Relations of the same university. The adjustments that had been made after the first session with the first group were approved during the second session with the second group and retained in the final version of the translated questionnaire. No adjustments were required and thus made after the second session. After the adequacy of the research instruments had been proved and feasibility of the survey had been established, the Ukrainian-version questionnaire was finalized (Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001).

5.4. **Sampling and distribution** (see Appendix D)

Since it was not feasible to survey the entire population of the research, residents of Lviv, a sample had to be taken. The sampling process is described below, along with the distribution methods applied.

The survey was conducted in the form of an online questionnaire due to the following advantages of such method: speed, convenience, ease of data entry and analysis, low administration cost, controlled sampling, opportunity to obtain a large sample (Evans & Mathur, 2005: 197; Jones et al., 2013). The data was collected by distributing a web link to the Ukrainian-version questionnaire in five Facebook groups dedicated to the local affairs of the city of Lviv. Two of these groups are administered by the city council, while the other three are run by local inhabitants themselves. The groups were selected due to their content relevance, high activity, and substantial membership. The posts with the links included short information about the researcher and the research itself, a kind request to fill in the questionnaire, and a clear remark that only residents of Lviv were expected to participate. In order to maximise the response rate of the electronic survey: the questionnaire was made as concise as possible, a statement that many people had already responded was included, respondents were promised to be provided with the study results as a non-monetary incentive, the logo of Lviv was included at the beginning of the questionnaire as a visual appeal, and white colour was used as a general background (Edwards et al., 2009).

The under-representativeness of internet population, "volunteers'" (respondents') self-selection (Evans & Mathur, 2005: 201; Stanton, 1998; Thompson et al., 2003; Wittmer et al., 1999 in

Write, 2005), and possible multiple submissions (Schmidt, 1997: 277) were considered the most critical potential weaknesses. The respective dangers were prevented by means of a few questions that consequently allowed to exclude those respondents that did not represent the investigated population. The data screening and response comparison confirmed that there was no "multiple submissions" problem. Moreover, the simultaneous paper-based survey questionnaire was carried out among students of the International Relations faculty of the local Ivan Franko National University of Lviv. The administration of the university kindly agreed to assist.

Firstly, this is justified based on the following data. In the beginning of the academic year 2016/2017, there were 78.3 thousand school students and 102.2 thousand university students in Lviv. The peak years with the largest numbers for both groups were 2000/2001 with 99.1 thousand and 2008/2009 with 130.6 thousand respectively (Students, MSOLR). In 2017 there were 135 university students for every 1000 residents of the city, which is the third highest number among all regional centres in Ukraine (Report 1, 2017). Thus, students are considered to be critical for the future success of the Lviv region, constituting an important part of its general population. The final sample, eventually, included 387 students.

Secondly, this was done to ensure a large enough sample and compare the electronically gathered and manually collected data: whether the respondents' answers differed systematically depending on a data-collection mode. The comparison was made by means of two-tailed two-sample t-tests run using SPSS. A t-test was performed for each of the main variables - 5 factor scores. Every time the null hypothesis (Ho: $\mu 1 = \mu 2$; there is no difference between the population means) could not be rejected, while the alternative hypothesis (Ha: $\mu 1 \neq \mu 2$; there is some difference between the population means) could be, based on a *p*-value exceeding the significance level of .05 (Berkman & Reise, 2011). Consequently, no significant differences between the groups (students-residents and all residents) were identified, which corresponds to the results obtained by Query and Write (2003 in Wright, 2005) who had carried out the analogous comparison. The electronic and paper versions of the questionnaire were kept as similar as possible, following the guidelines of Brace (2018), Vannette and Krosnick (editors, 2017), Lietz (2010), Couper (2008), Peytchev and others (2006), Fanning (2005), Bradburn and others (2004), Couper and others (2001). Considering the similarity between the two sets of data, obtained separately by means of either an electronic or manual mode of collection, all responses were merged together into one unified group. This group formed a unitary sample, which consequently was used in the course of the entire analysis.

Overall, residents were considered those respondents who either said that they lived in Lviv or mentioned that they studied, worked, or both studied and worked in the city. Responses with more than half of unfilled questions were deleted. Eventually, 67 respondents were excluded from the original pool of 619 (301 collected electronically and 318 collected manually) due to their non-resident status or empty questionnaires. As a result, the final sample of 552 respondents was deduced. It should be emphasised that the sample is not representative: younger and highly educated residents are overrepresented (see Tables № 3 and 4). At the same time, children as well as people aged 31 and over who finished their academic path at the school or technical-professional (incomplete higher) levels are underrepresented. The methods applied in the course of the research could explain such characteristics of the sample.

Table № 3

	Age of the population and the sample							
Age range	Lviv oblast' (permanent residents/2018) (SSSU1)	%	Lviv municipality (permanent residents/2018) (SSSU1)	%	Lviv city (permanent residents/01.01.2018) (Report 2)	%	Sample	%
0-18	511108	20.35			135297	18.79	190	34.4
19-22	121134	4.82			39851	5.54	165	29.9
23-30	295789	11.78			80743	11.21	115	20.8
31-older	1583207	63.05			464214	64.46	68	12.3
No response							14	2.5
Male	1 190 549	47.4	350 357	46.7	336 316	46.7	138	25
Female	1 320 689	52.6	399 687	53.3	383 789	53.3	413	74.8
No response							1	0.2
Total	2 511 238	100	750 044	100	720 105	100	552	100

Table № 4				
Education of the population and the sample				
Educational level	Lviv oblast' (permanent residents older than 10 y.o. inclusive/05.12.2001) (SSSU2)	%	Sample	%
primary general (4 years)	387 434	16.70	0	0
basic general (9 years)	330 165	14.23	1	0.2
complete general (11 years)	861 889	37.16	324	58.7
incomplete higher (junior specialist/ prof-tech)	348 733	15.00	12	2.2
basic higher (bachelor)	17 605	0.76	47	8.5
complete higher (specialist/ master)	314 344	13.55	157	28.4
Other response			11	2
All population	2 319 509	100	552	100

5.5. **Statistical software and method**

The obtained data was analysed by means of the SPSS software. It is commonly used in quantitative research directed at investigating concepts similar to those applied in this study: "attributes that make the supply side of a city" (e.g., Van Limburg, 1998: 476), place identity and residents' attitude towards tourism (e.g., Wang & Chen, 2015), brand trust (e.g., Sta & Abassi, 2018; Ercis et al., 2012; Sahin et al., 2011), brand love (e.g., Sta & Abassi, 2018), brand loyalty (e.g., Sahin et al., 2011; Bruwer et al., 2013), destination loyalty (e.g., Yoon & Uysal, 2005), affective/continuance brand commitment (e.g., Ercis et al., 2012), place attachment (e.g., Cardinale et al., 2016), word-of-mouth (e.g., Sta & Abassi, 2018), and advocacy intention (e.g., Ercis et al., 2012). Regression analysis was used to interpret the collected data and consequently answer the research questions. It is commonly applied in studies investigating the effects of independent variables on a dependent variable in relation to brand trust (e.g., Lau & Lee, 1999; Afzal et al., 2010; Sahin et al., 2011), place brand attitudes (e.g., Zenker & Rütter, 2014), city brand attitudes (e.g., Merrilees et al., 2009), brand loyalty (e.g., Lau & Lee, 1999; Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2005; Sahin et al., 2011), city loyalty (e.g., Kazançoğlu & Dirsehan, 2014), affective/continuance brand commitment (e.g., Ercis et al., 2012), place attachment (e.g., Yuksel et al., 2010; Zenker & Rütter, 2014), destination promotion (e.g., Simpson & Siguaw, 2008), advocacy intention (e.g., Ercis et al., 2012), positive citizenship behaviour (e.g., Zenker & Rütter, 2014), word-of-mouth (e.g., Murphy et al., 2007), and place brand complexity (e.g., Zenker et al., 2017).

5.6. **Reliability**

Reliability in general and precision in particular were ensured, among other means, by applying, when possible, already probed and validated measurement instruments (e.g., Hulley, 2007); refining them and adapting to local particularities (e.g., Hulley, 2007; Harkness & Schoua-Glusberg, 1998; Banville et al., 2000; Jowell et al., editors, 2007; Barbin, 2014; Dorer et al., 2016); pretesting them and verifying their intelligibility (e.g., Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001; Dorer et al., 2016); consolidating the survey with fixed questions and measuring answers with a 7-point Likert scale (e.g., Symonds, 1924; Komorita & Graham, 1965; Cox, 1980; Chang, 1994; Finstad, 2010; Pearse, 2011; Joshi et al., 2015); providing respondents with clear instructions and continuous guidance (e.g., Hulley, 2007; Edwards et al., 2009); gathering data by means of different modes of collection (e.g., Query & Write, 2003 in Wright, 2005); securing two differently accumulated samples and comparing their responses (e.g., Query & Write, 2003 in Wright, 2005); conducting the analysis according to the recommendations of Gorard (2003), Miller and Yang (2007), Bernard and Bernard (2013), Van Thiel (2014), McNabb (2015).

Internal consistency of the concepts (variables) as well as their sub-dimensions was tested by means of Cronbach's (1951) alpha that revealed the level of the unidimensional scales' and sub-scales' inter-item reliability (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). It not only measured the uni-dimensionality of the sets of items, but also determined whether the sets were unidimensional indeed (Cortina, 1993). Subsequently, the factor analysis was conducted to identify underlying factors and deduce cumulative variables that could be used in the subsequent regression analysis (Thompson, 2007).

Following the recommendations of Miguel and others (2014), reproducibility of the research was ensured by the transparent and explicit presentation of the methodology and methods applied. The data collection and analysis processes were carefully documented in the course of the investigation and consequently elaborated throughout this thesis (Miguel et al., 2014). The ultimate section with appendices contains various materials formulated and utilised. In case any

relevant information in regard to the research process was not included in the final version of the document, third parties interested in it are encouraged to contact the author asking for its disclosure. Such information will be provided on request within shortest possible time. The email address can be found on the title page.

5.7. **Internal validity**

It was taken into account that the internal validity of the research could be hampered by various factors, including history, maturation, instrumentation, mortality, and selection bias (The University of Minnesota; Drost, 2011). In order to maximize the internal validity: the content and design of the questionnaire were standardized, information about the participants was gathered, information about the procedural particularities of the research was recorded, the research design was carefully thought-out and accordingly justified (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2011). Method variance was controlled using a multi-item marker variable constructed based on Miller and Chiodo (2008 in Simmering et al., 2015; Williams et al., 2010). Quite interestingly, the research confirmed the results obtained by Simmering and others (2015): the marker variable formulated by Miller and Chiodo (2008 in Simmering et al., 2015), when measured with all four original items, generates critically low internal consistency reliability and model fit. Therefore, the fourth item was excluded in all analyses and the marker variable was treated as a three-item construct (e.g., Simmering et al., 2015). Correlational marker technique had been applied and consequently demonstrated that the survey outcomes were free of the common-method variance error (Richardson et al., 2009; Podsakoff et al., 2003; Lindell & Whitney, 2001; Williams et al., 2010 (1).

5.8. **External validity**

The external validity considerations are most commonly related to the generalizability of findings in regard to populations of persons (population validity) or the environment (ecological validity) (Devroe, 2016: 11). Randomised sampling within the target population was applied (Druckman et al., 2011) and the heterogeneity of the study population was increased (McDermott, 2011) in order to enhance the external validity of the results. The questionnaire included the logo of Lviv as a representation of the city brand - the survey's stimulus, an "object presented to participants and to which a response [was] measured" (Druckman et al., 2011c in Devroe, 2016: 10). The stimulus "resembled the stimulus of interest in the real world" since the logo was copied from the official website of the city council (Druckman et al., 2011c in Devroe, 2016: 10). Moreover, it is widely used in all promotional materials of Lviv. The resemblance was expected to strengthen external validity. The revision procedures followed in the course of the questionnaire development, and the internal consistency tests carried out in the analysis phase were also expected to positively influence the findings' external validity (McDermott, 2011).

5.9. **Reflexivity and positionality**

It is acknowledged that "a researcher's background and position will affect what they choose to investigate, the angle of investigation, the methods judged most adequate for this purpose, the findings considered most appropriate, and the framing and communication of conclusions" (Malterud, 2001: 483-484). Similarly to interpretive research, positivist (survey) research could equally "begin[s] and end[s] with the biography and self of the researcher" (Denzin, 1989: 12). Accordingly, the examination of "one's "conceptual baggage," one's assumptions and preconceptions, and how these affect research decisions" had been conducted before the studies commenced (Hsiung, 2010). Despite my full dedication to research neutrality and genuine

attempts to remain completely impartial, it is realized that some decisions in regard to the research might have been subconsciously influenced by the background experiences. I completed a BA in Liberal Arts and Sciences majoring in Social Sciences with tracks in International Law and Political Science from Utrecht University. Currently, I am enrolled in the MSc Public Administration specializing in the Management of Governance Networks at Erasmus University Rotterdam. I was born in Lviv and had lived there for 18 years before moving to the Netherlands in 2015. It should be stressed that I have warm feelings towards the city and hope that this thesis will contribute to its development. The context of the investigation, however, was chosen due to the accessibility and feasibility reasons, not personal preferences or biases. The thesis does not consciously or purposefully adopt any normative stances, perspectives, or objectives. This has been secured by setting the research up in a deductive way: grounding it on scientific theory and using scientific methods to test the theory, analyze results, and draw conclusions (Miller & Brewer (Eds.), 2003). Moreover, the recommendations of Bulmer (2001) and Nosek and others (2002) on ethical standards in social science research had been followed throughout the entire investigation process.

5.10. **Limitations**

Along with the limited sample, the territorial context is considered to be a major limitation of the research. It is acknowledged that "a single study, regardless of how many subjects it encompasses or how realistic the environment, cannot alone justify generalization outside the population and domain in which it was conducted" (McDermott, 2011 in Devroe, 2016: 11). Selection bias in general and self-selection in particular are seen as the most serious threats that could indeed influence the internal validity of the research. This is the case due to the chosen survey distribution method. Online surveys that employ a self-selection recruitment procedure can lead to "the reduced representativeness of sample" (Khazaal et al., 2014), causing "estimates of population characteristics to be biased" (Bethlehem, 2008: 20). Indeed, the sample of this research did not end up being entirely representative of the whole population of Lviv, as has already been mentioned in section 5.4. and demonstrated in Tables № 3 and 4 above. The operationalization of most concepts was based on the modification of existing instruments, and therefore this research constitutes the first known attempt of their measurement. Accordingly, the modification lacks prior verification and therefore solid and straightforward empirical grounding. It could, moreover, lead to various inaccuracies and misconceptions: the initial concepts might have lost their initial content or distinct characteristics after the conducted adjustment. While the theoretical, conceptual, and methodological frameworks were formulated based on literature written in the English language, the survey itself was conducted by means of the translated Ukrainian-version questionnaire. The instruments' adjustment and translation might have had an impact on the survey's validity and reliability (e.g., Harkness & Schoua-Glusberg, 1998; Banville et al., 2000; Jowell et al., editors, 2007; Barbin, 2014; Dorer et al., 2016). Moreover, the analysis was conducted based on five variables deduced in the course of the factor analysis. As a result, the theorised phenomenon of place brand alienation was split into two separate dimensions, each regarded as a unitary and self-sufficient concept. Consequently, instead of the two initially theorised conceptual models (with loyalty and alienation as dependent variables), this thesis investigated three configurations (with loyalty, meaninglessness, and powerlessness as dependent variables). This is seen as a limitation since the independent as well as control variables could have had a different effect on place brand alienation if the concept had been tested as an integrated two-dimensional phenomenon composed of both meaninglessness and powerlessness.

6. **Results**

6.1. **Descriptive statistics** (see Table № 5)

Generally, on a scale from 1 to 7, the respondents appeared to be loyal to the city (M = 5.695, SD = .9359) with noticeably lower levels of trust in the city brand (M = 4.803, SD = 1.0277). They commonly indicated the city brand's meaningfulness (M = 3.666, SD = 1.3748), which corresponded to their level of awareness of its content (M = 4.44, SD = 1.596). Most respondents mentioned that Lviv and thus its brand were complex, diverse, and multifaceted (M = 5.708, SD = .9784). They also generally highlighted the appealing appearance of the city's logo and slogan (M = 5.44, SD = 1.415), and expressed a diverse range of attitudes towards tourism in the city (M = 3.60, SD = 1.825). In general, the respondents did not actively participate in the public life of Lviv on a regular basis (M = 3.59, SD = 1.702), and tended to feel powerless (M = 4.377, SD = 1.1074) in regard to the city branding process. 60 out of 552 respondents (10.87%) indicated that they had the opportunity to participate in the development of the city brand, while 32 (5.8%) actually participated in it.

Table № 5

Descriptive statistics										
		Trust	Complexity	Loyalty	Meaning	Power	Awareness	Attitude	Tourism	Public
N	Valid	550	551	552	552	552	543	547	550	546
	Miss.	2	1	0	0	0	9	5	2	6
M		4.803	5.708	5.695	3.666	4.377	4.44	5.44	3.60	3.59
SD		1.0277	.9784	.9359	1.3748	1.1074	1.596	1.415	1.825	1.702
Min		1.0	2.3	2.0	1.0	1.0	1	1	1	1
Max		7.0	7.0	7.0	7.0	7.0	7	7	7	7
CI		0.0859	0.0817	0.0781	0.1147	0.0924	0.1342	0.1186	0.1525	0.1427
Min		4.7169	5.6267	5.6171	3.5514	4.2850	4.3078	5.3257	3.4475	3.4470
Max		4.8887	5.7901	5.7732	3.7808	4.4698	4.5762	5.5628	3.7525	3.7325

6.2. **Factor analysis** (see Table № 8)

While 4 phenomena were theorized (trust, complexity, loyalty, and alienation), the factor analysis identified 5 underlying factors splitting the alienation construct into 2 factors that correspond to its theorized dimensions: meaninglessness (Cronbach's alpha .706) and powerlessness (Cronbach's alpha .676) (see Table № 6). Cronbach's alpha of the theorized phenomenon "place brand alienation" (composed of both meaninglessness and powerlessness dimensions, and unconfirmed by the conducted factor analysis) is .717.

Table № 6				
Theorized vs deduced factors				
Theoretical variable	**Factor**	**Component**	**Cronbach's alpha**	**Cronbach's alpha**
Place brand loyalty	**Loyalty**	Attachment 1	.683	0.819
		Attachment 2		
		Attachment 3		
		WOM 1	.818	
		WOM 2		
		WOM 3		
		WOM 4		
Place brand alienation	Meaninglessness **(Meaning)**	Meaning 1	.706	.717
		Meaning 2		

		Meaning 3		
	Powerlessness **(Power)**	Power 1	.676 (P1+P3 = .706)	
		Power 2		
		Power 3		
Perceived place brand complexity	**Complexity**	Complexity 1	.775	.775
		Complexity 2		
		Complexity 3		
Place brand trust	**Trust**	Integrity 1	.796	0.892
		Integrity 2		
		Integrity 3		
		Benevolence 1	.805	
		Benevolence 2		
		Credibility 1	.825	
		Credibility 2		
		Credibility 3		
		Credibility 4		

The analysis, therefore, was conducted based on 5 composite variables identified in the course of the factor analysis whose results can be seen from Table № 8. The initial conceptual frameworks (see Figure № 1) and hypotheses (see Table № 1) were adjusted accordingly (see Figure № 2 and Table № 7).

Figure № 2
The conceptual frameworks adjusted according to the factor analysis
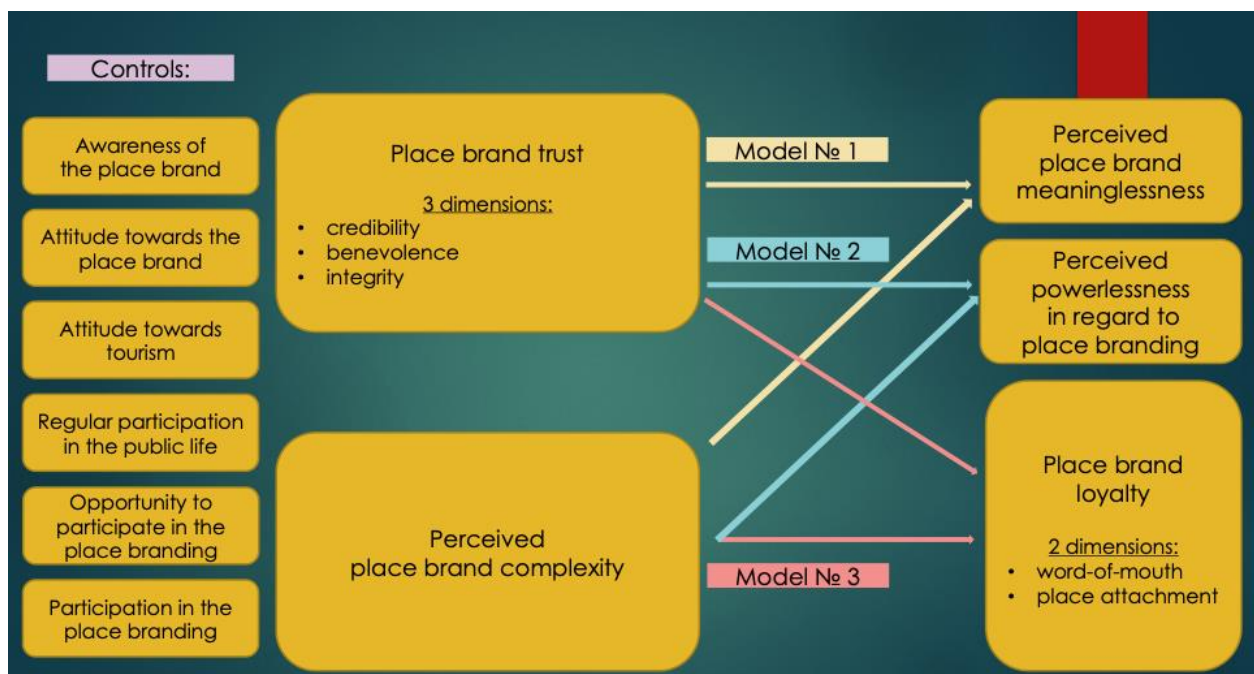
Table № 7			
№	Variables	Expected relation	Eventual hypotheses
H1:	Trust/Loyalty	+	*Place brand trust is positively related to place brand loyalty*
H2:	Trust/Meaninglessness	−	*Place brand trust is negatively related to perceived place brand meaninglessness*
H3:	Trust/Powerlessness	−	*Place brand trust is negatively related to perceived powerlessness in regard to place branding*
H4:	Complexity/Loyalty	+	*Perceived place brand complexity is positively related to place brand loyalty*
H5:	Complexity/Meaninglessness	−	*Perceived place brand complexity is negatively related to perceived place brand meaninglessness*
H6:	Complexity/Powerlessness	−	*Perceived place brand complexity is negatively related to perceived powerlessness in regard to place branding*

The composite reliability of the used instruments were assessed by means of Cronbach's alphas whose values are included in the same table. The instruments are considered to be reliable since their alphas exceed the common 0.7 acceptance level (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011: 54). All three items of the factor Powerlessness were retained with a 0.676 alpha score. The exclusion of the second item could have increased the alpha to 0.706. Firstly, alphas above 0.6 are often considered to be acceptable in social sciences research (Peterson, 1994: 382; Churchill, 1979; Rahimnia & Hassanzadeh, 2013: 243). Davis (1964: 24) even allows 0.5 or lower alphas when predictions are made for groups composed of more than 50 people. Murphy and Davidshofer (1988: 89) consider as unacceptable alphas below the 0.6 level. Nunnally (1967: 226) argued that the minimally acceptable reliability in the context of preliminary research must fall between 0.5 and 0.6. In their research, McKinley et al. (1997: 197) used a score with a 0.61 alpha, while Bosma et al. (1997: 564) used a measurement with a 0.67 value (Bland & Altman, 1997: 572). Since the alpha of Powerlessness is not below a critical threshold and the exclusion of one of the items would not increase it substantially (from 0.676 to 0.706), all items were retained to stay in line with the theoretical grounding.

Exploratory factor analysis was conducted to identify latent composite constructs that underlie a set of the chosen variables (Norris & Lecavalier, 2010: 9). Consequently 5 factors were identified. The rotated factor loadings of the composing items exceeded the minimal recommended .30 (Costello & Osborne, 2005: 3), .32 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), .34 (LaNasa et al., 2009: 325), and .4 (Hulland, 1999 in Hair et al., 2012: 429) levels of statistical meaningfulness. In fact, all items had loadings more than 0.5, which makes them strong loaders according to Costello and Osborne (2005: 4), or medium loaders according to Shevlin and Miles (1998: 86). The latter consider as strong loaders only those items that show more than 0.7 (Shevlin & Miles, 1998: 86). The factors can be considered as solid since all of them consist of at least three strongly loaded items with no cross loaders (Costello & Osborne, 2005: 5). The factor analysis revealed a "meritorious" KMO of .876, and the 0.000 significance level of Bartlett's test, which confirmed

the adequacy of the sampling (Kaiser, 1974; Cerny & Kaiser, 1977; Tobias & Carlson, 1969). It also showed the satisfactory Average Extracted Values (AVE) that are equal to or exceed 0.5 (Hair et al., 2010; Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). The AVE of the Loyalty factor equals to 0.48, which according to Fornell and Larcker (1981) can still be accepted provided that the construct's composite reliability is higher than 0.6 (Huang et al., 2013: 219; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Taking into account that the construct's Cronbach's alpha is .819, its AVE of 0.48 is considered as adequate. The same reasoning applies to the Trust (Cronbach's alpha .892) and Power (Cronbach's alpha .676) factors whose AVE are on the normally acceptable edge, 0.50. Total variance explained by the remaining 5 factors is 58.986%. This number is viewed as being sufficient in the context of the "humanities" (social sciences) where the explained variance is commonly 50-60% (Williams et al., 2010: 6). Hair and others (2010 in Hair et al., 2012: 430) also mention that acceptable level highly depends on research context. Merenda (1997: 158) set a threshold at the 0.50 level. The meta-analysis conducted by Peterson (2000: 272-273) showed that "the average percentage of variance accounted for in substantive factor analyses of behavioural data [was] 56.6%, and the average (absolute) factor loading [was] 0.32." Five factors were extracted based on a combination of methods, which is not only common (Hair et al., 1995) but also appropriate and even desirable (Costello & Osborne, 2005; Thompson & Daniel, 1996: 200). The "Cumulative Percentage of Variance," "Eigenvalue > 1 Rule," and "Scree Test" methods had been used to define the number of factors that were consequently used in the analysis (Williams et al., 2010: 6-7; Yong & Pearce, 2013). The selection was also guided by the theoretical background that forms a basis for the research. In the end, 5 factors with an eigenvalue > 1 (Kaiser, 1966) that accounted for 58.986% of explained variance (Horn, 1965; Williams et al., 2010: 6) and lied above the "Scree Test" line (Cattell, 1966) were extracted for the following analysis (Williams et al., 2010: 6-7; Yong & Pearce, 2013).

Table № 8						
Factor analysis						
Factor	**Component**	**Factor loading**	**Total variance explained**		**Cronbach's alpha/ stand.**	**AVE**
			% of variance	**Cumulative %**		
Trust	Integrity 1	.643	19.452	19.452	0.892/0.892	0.50
	Integrity 2	.705				
	Integrity 3	.704				
	Benevolence 1	.757				
	Benevolence 2	.721				
	Credibility 1	.699				
	Credibility 2	.657				
	Credibility 3	.683				
	Credibility 4	.762				
Loyalty	Attachment 1	.673	15.027	34.479	0.819/0.837	0.48
	Attachment 2	.631				
	Attachment 3	.613				
	WOM 1	.558				
	WOM 2	.765				

	WOM 3	.798			
	WOM 4	.769			
Meaning	Meaning 1	.786	8.673	43.153	0.706/0.708	0.54
	Meaning 2	.782			
	Meaning 3	.619			
Complexity	Complexity 1	.622	8.394	51.547	0.775/0.783	0.57
	Complexity 2	.798			
	Complexity 3	.829			
Power	Power 1	.603	7.440	58.986	0.676/0.677	0.50
	Power 2	.766			
	Power 3	.739			

6.3. **Correlation analyses** (see Tables № 9 and 10)

<u>A Spearman's rank-order</u> (see Table № 9) and a Kendall's tau-b (see Appendix E) correlations were run to determine the relationship between the investigated and control variables.

There was a strong positive correlation between Trust and Attitude (r_s = .565, $p < .000$), Trust and Awareness (r_s = 523, $p < .000$), as well as Complexity and Loyalty (r_s = .514, $p < .000$). There was no significant correlation between Loyalty and Meaning ($p = .181$), Loyalty and Power ($p = .435$), Loyalty and Opportunity ($p = .234$), Loyalty and Participation ($p = .222$), Meaning and Participation ($p = .316$), Meaning and Public ($p = .579$), Power and Awareness ($p = .151$), Power and Public ($p = .565$), Power and Participation ($p = .160$), Complexity and Opportunity ($p = .326$), as well as Complexity and Participation ($p = .927$) (see Table № 10).

Table № 9										
Correlation analysis (Spearman's rho)										
	TR	L	M	POW	C	AW	AT	TOUR	PUB	O	PAR
Trust	1.000	,367**	-,318**	-,190**	,379**	,523**	,565**	-,130**	,135**	-,180**	-,168**
Loyalty	,367**	1.000	-.057	.033	,514**	,262**	,336**	-,085*	,252**	-.051	-.052
Meaning	-,318**	-.057	1.000	,325**	-,141**	-,240**	-,249**	,087*	-.024	,084*	.043
Power	-,190**	.033	,325**	1.000	-,092*	-.062	-,116**	,130**	.025	,139**	.060
Complexity	,379**	,514**	-,141**	-,092*	1.000	,191**	,320**	-,104*	,098*	-.042	-.004
Awareness	,523**	,262**	-,240**	-.062	,191**	1.000	,493**	-.011	,213**	-,257**	-,197**
Attitude	,565**	,336**	-,249**	-,116**	,320**	,493**	1.000	-,138**	,141**	-,133**	-.070

Tourism	-,130**	-,085*	,087*	,130**	-,104*	-.011	-,138**	1.000	.038	.016	.014
Public	,135**	,252**	-.024	.025	,098*	,213**	,141**	.038	1.000	-,167**	-,145**
Opportunity	-,180**	-.051	,084*	,139**	-.042	-,257**	-,133**	.016	-,167**	1.000	,660**
Participation	-,168**	-.052	.043	.060	-.004	-,197**	-.070	.014	-,145**	,660**	1.000

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table № 10	
Correlations (Spearman's rho)	
Strong positive correlation	
Moderate positive correlation	
Moderate negative correlation	
No significant correlation	
Relation	**r_s and p**
Trust and Attitude	r_s = .565, p < .000
Trust and Awareness	r_s = 523, p < .000
Complexity and Loyalty	r_s = .514, p < .000
Trust and Complexity	r_s = .379, p < .000
Trust and Loyalty	r_s = .367, p < .000
Complexity and Attitude	r_s = .320, p < .000
Loyalty and Attitude	r_s = .336, p < .000
Loyalty and Awareness	r_s = .262, p < .000
Loyalty and Public	r_s = .252, p < .000
Meaning and Power	r_s = .325, p < .000
Trust and Meaning	r_s = -.318 , p < .000
Loyalty and Meaning	r_s = -.057, p = .181

Loyalty and Power	$r_s = .033$, $p = .435$;
Loyalty and Opportunity	$r_s = -.051$, $p = .234$
Loyalty and Participation	$r_s = -.052$, $p = .222$
Meaning and Participation	$r_s = .043$, $p = .316$
Meaning and Public	$r_s = -.024$, $p = .579$
Power and Awareness	$r_s = -.062$, $p = .151$
Power and Public	$r_s = .025$, $p = .565$
Power and Participation	$r_s = .060$, $p = .160$
Complexity and Opportunity	$r_s = -.042$, $p = .326$
Complexity and Participation	$r_s = -.004$, $p = .927$

6.4. **Regression analyses**

- for the simple regressions, see Appendix F;
- for all multiple regressions, see Appendix G.

6.4.1. **Variable values and beta signs**

It should be highlighted that **Meaning, Power, and Tourism (measured with a 7-point Likert scale)** are variables with negative character, which means that their high values correspond to a high degree of meaninglessness, powerlessness, and negative attitude towards tourism. Accordingly, they are expected to be positively related to each other. In a similar vein, they are expected to be negatively related to the variables with positive character, including Trust, Complexity, Loyalty, Awareness, Attitude, Public. For instance, a negative beta between Tourism (a negative variable) and Loyalty (a positive variable) would mean that residents with more negative attitude towards tourism tend to be less loyal to the city brand: stronger negative attitude leads to weaker loyalty. At the same time, a negative beta between Tourism (a negative variable) and Meaning (a negative variable) would mean that residents with worse attitude towards tourism tend to feel that the city brand is less meaningless/more meaningful: stronger negative attitude leads to weaker feeling of meaninglessness (see Table № 11).

Table № 11
Explanation of the suggested relations № 1

Independent variable and its character	Dependent variable and its character	β	Explanation of the suggested regression relation
Tourism (negative/ measured with a 7-point Likert scale)	Loyalty (positive)	-	Stronger negative attitude towards tourism leads to weaker loyalty.
	Meaning (negative)	-	Stronger negative attitude towards tourism leads to weaker feeling of meaninglessness/stronger feeling of meaningfulness.

Additionally, **Opportunity and Participation (measured with yes/no answers)** were coded in a way so that their negative values signify the presence of the opportunity to participate in the city branding process, as well as actual participation in it. Accordingly, they are expected to be positively related to each other as well as to Meaning, Power, and Tourism which are negative variables. In a similar vein, they are expected to be negatively related to the variables with positive character, including Trust, Complexity, Loyalty, Awareness, Attitude, Public. For instance, a negative beta between Opportunity and Loyalty (a positive variable) would mean that residents who had the opportunity to participate in the city branding process tend to be more loyal to the city brand. Subsequently, a negative beta between Opportunity and Meaning (a negative variable) would mean that residents who had the opportunity to participate in the city branding process tend to feel that the city brand is more meaningless/less meaningful (see Table № 12). The same reasoning applies to the **place of birth** variable (similarly measured with yes/no answers), which appears, however, only in the simple regressions (see Appendix F). It was coded in a way so that its negative value signifies Lviv as a birthplace.

Table № 12			
Explanation of the suggested relations № 2			
Independent variable and its character	Dependent variable and its character	β	Explanation of the suggested regression relation
Opportunity (measured with yes/no answers)	Loyalty (positive)	-	Residents who had the opportunity to participate in the city branding process tend to be more loyal to the city brand.
	Meaning (negative)	-	Residents who had the opportunity to participate in the city branding tend to feel that the city brand is more meaningless/less meaningful.

Age and length of stay (measured as continuous variables) also appear only in the simple regressions (see Appendix F). They were coded in a way so that their higher values signify older people and longer time spent in the city. Accordingly, a negative beta between length of stay and Loyalty (a positive variable) would mean that those residents who have lived in the city for a shorter time tend to be more loyal to the city brand. At the same time, a negative beta between length of stay and Meaning (a positive variable) would mean that those residents who have lived in the city for a shorter time tend to feel that the city brand is more meaningless/less meaningful (see Table № 13).

Table № 13

Explanation of the suggested relations № 3			
Independent variable and its character	Dependent variable and its character	β	Explanation of the suggested regression relation
Length of stay (measured as a continuous variable)	Loyalty (positive)	-	Residents who have lived in the city for a shorter time tend to be more loyal to the city brand.
	Meaning (negative)	-	Residents who have lived in the city for a shorter time tend to feel that the city brand is more meaningless/less meaningful.

6.4.2. **Loyalty** (see Tables № 14 and 15)

Firstly, a multiple linear regression was carried out to test whether 6 control variables, separately from the main independent variables, significantly predicted residents' loyalty to the place brand (model № 1). A significant regression equation was found ($F_{(6, 530)} = 17.786$, $p < .001$), with an R^2 of .168. It was identified that Attitude ($β = .275$, $p < .001$) and Public ($β = .209$, $p < .001$) significantly predicted residents' loyalty to the place brand. In other words, a more positive attitude towards the city brand's representations (its logo and slogan), and more active participation in the public life of the city, led to stronger loyalty to the city brand.

Secondly, a multiple linear regression was carried out to test whether perceived complexity of a place brand and residents' trust in it significantly predicted their loyalty to the place brand (model № 2). Apart from the main independent variables, 6 control variables were included in the model. A significant regression equation was found ($F_{(8, 528)} = 29.330$, $p < .001$), with an R^2 of .308. It was identified that Complexity ($β = .373$, $p < .001$), Attitude ($β = .133$, $p = .005$), and Public ($β = .181$, $p < .001$) significantly predicted residents' loyalty to the place brand. In other words, higher perceived city brand complexity, a more positive attitude towards the city brand's representations (its logo and slogan), and more active participation in the public life of the city, led to stronger loyalty to the city brand. Trust did not appear to be a significant predictor in this configuration ($β = .083$, $p = .102$). Consequently, Hypothesis № 1 was rejected, while Hypothesis № 4 was accepted (see Table № 15).

Table № 14											
Multiple linear regressions (Loyalty)											
Mo del	Dep.	Independent variables in the	Significant independent	R	R²	Ad. R²	Stan. Error of	Unst. coef.	St. coef.	t	Sig.

Nº	variable	model	variables				the Estimate	B	Err.	Beta		
1	Loyalty	- Awareness - Attitude - Tourism - Public - Opportunity - Participation		,409ª	.168	.158	0.8606					
			Attitude					.184	.031	.275	5.957	.000
			Public					.115	.023	.209	5.095	.000
2	Loyalty	- Trust - Complexity - Awareness - Attitude - Tourism - Public - Opportunity - Participation		,555ª	.308	.297	0.7863					
			Complexity					.360	.039	.373	9.269	.000
			Attitude					.089	.032	.133	2.789	.005
			Public					.100	.021	.181	4.811	.000

Table Nº 15					
Nº	Variables	Expected relation	Eventual hypotheses	Outcome based on the multiple regressions	Outcome based on the simple regressions
H1:	Trust/Loyalty	+	*Place brand trust is positively related to place brand loyalty*	Rejected (statistically insignificant)	Accepted
H4:	Complexity/Loyalty	+	*Perceived place brand complexity is positively related to place brand loyalty*	Accepted	Accepted

6.4.3. **Meaninglessness** (see Tables Nº 16 and 17)

Firstly, a multiple linear regression was carried out to test whether 6 control variables, separately from the main independent variables, significantly predicted residents' attitude towards the place brand in terms of its meaninglessness (model Nº 3). A significant regression equation was found $(F_{(6, 530)} = 9.074, p < .001)$, with an R^2 of .093. It was identified that Awareness $(\beta = - .141, p = .005)$ and Attitude $(\beta = - .196, p < .001)$ significantly predicted residents' attitude towards the place brand in terms of its meaninglessness. In other words, a deeper awareness of how the city brand presents the city, and a more positive attitude towards the brand's representations (its logo and slogan), led to a higher perception of the city brand's meaningfulness/lower perception of its meaninglessness.

Secondly, a multiple linear regression was carried out to test whether perceived complexity of a place brand and residents' trust in it significantly predicted their attitude towards the place brand in terms of its meaninglessness (model Nº 4). Apart from the main independent variables, 6 control variables were included in the model. A significant regression equation was found $(F_{(8, 528)} = 9.414, p < .001)$, with an R^2 of .125. It was identified that Trust $(\beta = - .233, p < .001)$ was the only variable that significantly predicted residents' attitude towards the place brand in terms of its meaninglessness. In other words, stronger trust in the city brand led to a higher perception of its meaningfulness/lower perception of its meaninglessness. Complexity did not appear to be a significant predictor in this configuration $(\beta = - .011, p = .810)$. Contrary to the initial model, Awareness $(\beta = - .076, p = .137)$ and Attitude $(\beta = - .088, p = .103)$ turned up to be insignificant as well. Consequently, Hypothesis Nº 2 was accepted, while Hypothesis Nº 5 was rejected (see Table Nº 17).

Table Nº 16
Multiple linear regressions (Meaninglessness)

Model №	Dep. variable	Independent variables in the model	Significant independent variables	R	R²	Ad. R²	Stan. Error of the Estimate	B	Err.	Beta	t	Sig.
3	Meaning	- Awareness - Attitude - Tourism - Public - Opportunity - Participation		,305ᵃ	.093	.083	1.3129					
			Awareness					-.121	.043	-.141	-2.851	.005
			Attitude					-.191	.047	-.196	-4.057	.000
4	Meaning	- Trust - Complexity - Awareness - Attitude - Tourism - Public - Opportunity - Participation		,353ᵃ	.125	.112	1.2923					
			Trust					-.312	.076	-.233	-4.100	.000

	Table № 17					
№	Variables	Expected relation	Eventual hypotheses		Outcome based on the multiple regressions	Outcome based on the simple regressions
H2:	Trust/Meaningless ness	–	*Place brand trust is negatively related to perceived place brand meaninglessness*		**Accepted**	**Accepted**
H5:	Complexity/Meani nglessness	–	*Perceived place brand complexity is negatively related to perceived place brand meaninglessness*		**Rejected (statistically insignificant)**	**Accepted**

6.4.4. **Powerlessness** (see Tables № 18 and 19)

Firstly, a multiple linear regression was carried out to test whether 6 control variables, separately from the main independent variables, significantly predicted residents' feeling of powerlessness in regard to the place branding process (model № 5). A significant regression equation was found ($F_{(6, 530)}$ = 5.126, $p < .001$), with an R² of .055. It was identified that Attitude ($\beta = -.128$, $p = .010$), Tourism ($\beta = .127$, $p = .003$), and Opportunity ($\beta = .143$, $p = .014$) significantly predicted residents' feeling of powerlessness in regard to the place branding process. In other words, a more positive attitude towards the city brand's representations (its logo and slogan), a more positive attitude towards tourism in the city, and the availability of the opportunity to participate in the city branding process, led to a stronger feeling of powerfulness/weaker feeling of powerlessness in regard to the city branding.

Secondly, a multiple linear regression was carried out to test whether perceived complexity of a place brand and residents' trust in it significantly predicted their feeling of powerlessness in regard to the place branding process (model № 6). Apart from the main independent variables, 6 control variables were included in the model. A significant regression equation was found ($F_{(8, 528)}$ = 6.403, $p < .001$), with an R² of .088. It was identified that Trust ($\beta = -.240$, $p < .001$), Tourism ($\beta = .110$, $p = .010$), and Opportunity ($\beta = .141$, $p = .014$) significantly predicted residents' feeling of powerlessness in regard to the place branding process. In other words, stronger trust in the city brand, a more positive attitude towards tourism in the city, and the availability of the opportunity to participate in the city branding process, led to a stronger feeling of powerfulness/weaker feeling of powerlessness in regard to the city branding. Complexity did not appear to be a significant predictor in this configuration ($\beta = -.011$, $p = .819$). Contrary to the initial model, Attitude ($\beta = -.017$, $p = .761$) turned up to be insignificant as well. Consequently, Hypothesis № 3 was accepted, while Hypothesis № 6 was rejected (see Table № 19).

	Table № 18											
	Multiple linear regressions (Powerlessness)											
Mod od	Dep.	Independent variables in the	Significant independent	R	R²	Ad. R²	Stan. Error of	Unst. coef.		St. coef.	t	Sig.

el №	variable	model	variables				the Estimate	B	Err.	Beta		
5	Power	- Awareness - Attitude - Tourism - Public - Opportunity - Participation		,234ᵃ	.055	.044	1.0781					
			Attitude					-.101	.039	-.128	-2.597	.010
			Tourism					.077	.026	.127	2.969	.003
			Opportunity					.508	.206	.143	2.470	.014
6	Power	- Trust - Complexity - Awareness - Attitude - Tourism - Public - Opportunity - Participation		,297ᵃ	.088	.075	1.0608					
			Trust					-.259	.062	-.240	-4.142	.000
			Tourism					.067	.026	.110	2.600	.010
			Opportunity					.501	.202	.141	2.474	.014

№	Variables	Expected relation	Eventual hypotheses	Outcome based on the multiple regressions	Outcome based on the simple regressions
Table № 19					
H3:	Trust/Powerlessness	−	*Place brand trust is negatively related to perceived powerlessness in regard to place branding*	**Accepted**	**Accepted**
H6:	Complexity/Powerlessness	−	*Perceived place brand complexity is negatively related to perceived powerlessness in regard to place branding*	**Rejected (statistically insignificant)**	**Accepted**

7. **Discussion**

7.1. **Factor analysis**

The factor analysis deduced the trust, loyalty, and complexity variables in line with the theoretical expectations. The data gathered confirmed that the concept of trust indeed consists of and can be measured based on three dimensions, integrity, benevolence, and credibility, as had been suggested by Gurviez and Korchia (2003), and consequently applied by Simoes (2005), Elliott and Yannopoulou (2007), Walsh and others (2009), as well as Sta and Abbassi (2018) (Dehdashti et al., 2012: 1428). Therefore, the developed scale for the measurement of residents' trust in the place brand, which combined the operationalizations of Li and others (2008) (the credibility dimension) and Gurviez and Korchia (2003) (the benevolence and integrity dimensions), can be used in the consequent research. Its reliability was verified by a 0.892 Cronbach's alpha. The data also interestingly confirmed that the same factor underlies place attachment (based on Wang & Chen, 2015; Kyle et al., 2004; Kaplan et al., 2010; and Zenker, 2011 in Zenker et al., 2017: 17) and positive word-of-mouth (following Baker & Crompton, 2000; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Morais et al., 2004), validating the formulated theorization and consequent operationalization of place brand loyalty. The developed scale appeared to be reliable with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.819. The complexity items formed one factor as had been previously demonstrated by Zenker and others (2017) based on Cox and Cox (1988). Unlike the scales of Tummers (2012) and Van Engen (2017) where meaninglessness and powerlessness formed one composite phenomenon labeled as alienation, the factor analysis revealed that two separate factors actually underlies the aforementioned dimensions. This finding can be explained by the

fact that the respondents considered the meaningfulness of the city brand and their powerfulness in relation to the city branding process differently. Thus, the same person could believe that the brand was meaningful, simultaneously feeling powerless in regard to its development.

Overall, the factor analysis and Cronbach's alphas verified the developed measurement scales for residents' trust in and loyalty to the place brand. It also confirmed the previously substantiated operationalization of (perceived) place brand complexity and disapproved the uniformity of alienation based on two dimensions of meaningfulness and powerlessness. The latter finding can be context-specific and does not imply the inadequacy of the Tummers' (2012) and Van Engen's (2017) scales.

7.2. **Correlation analyses**

Place brand trust appeared to be strongly correlated with two control variables - awareness of the city brand's content (how it presents the city) and positive attitude towards the city's logo and slogan. The former correlation can be explained by the fact that trust in the city brand actually implies residents' awareness of the brand. It could also mean that the more residents know about the brand, the more they tend to trust it. Awareness could make it easier for them to mention, evaluate, and appreciate the brand's quality, residents-orientation, and representativeness. The latter correlation could indicate that when residents like the brand's appearance, they tend to believe that it is effective, and it becomes easier for them to identify with it. The former effect is related to the brand's credibility, while the latter is connected to its benevolence and integrity. Perhaps residents tend to like place brands that represent them accurately and are regularly updated according to their preferences. The correlation could also simply mean that people often like what they trust. Interestingly, place brand trust and attitude are also positively correlated to place brand complexity. This could mean that it is easier for people to identify with complex and diverse phenomena (Zenker et al., 2017); and that residents tend to like, or it is easier for them to like encompassing brands with multi-faceted logos and slogans directed at a large audience (e.g., Zenker & Petersen, 2014). If this is the case indeed, authorities should take this into account in the course of place branding.

While there was a negative correlation between trust and residents' powerlessness in regard to the city branding process, it was not particularly strong. This suggests that residents can trust a place brand, feeling powerless in relation to its development at the same time. This negative character of the relation, however, indicates that trust is a feeling opposite to alienation. A moderate positive correlation between meaninglessness and powerlessness was unanticipated since both variables were expected to form a single cumulative factor (Tummers, 2012; Van Engen, 2017). While the relation's positive quality was perceived as logical, its relatively low intensity appeared to be an unexpected discovery.

No significant correlation between loyalty and opportunity appeared to be a surprise since engagement in place branding had been expected to generate place attachment and consequently positive word-of-mouth intention (e.g., Van Gelder, 2011; Holman, 2008; and Morton et al., 2008 in Insch, 2011: 12; Braun et al., 2013). The lack of a significant relation of complexity, loyalty, meaninglessness, and powerlessness to the fact of participation in the place branding process could be explained by insufficient data: the small number of those respondents who actually took part in the development of the city brand (Bonett & Wright, 2000; Moinester & Gottfried, 2014; Bujang & Baharum, 2016).

7.3. **Regression analyses**

- for discussion of the simple regressions calculated for all of the main independent, control, and socio-demographic variables, see Appendix H;
- for all simple linear regressions, see Appendix F;
- for all multiple linear regressions, see Appendix G.

7.3.1. **Loyalty**

The first multiple linear model with 6 control independent variables produced an R^2 of .168, which is higher compared to all the simple regressions calculated and presented in Appendices F and H. While the model was significant, only two variables appeared to be significant as well: attitude towards the brand's representations (Attitude) and participation in the public life ("Public"). While general engagement in the public life of the city came out as a significant predictor of loyalty, the opportunity to participate and direct participation in the place branding process did not. The character of this insignificant relation was nevertheless foreseeably positive: participation fosters loyalty (e.g., Payton et al., 2005; Lewicka, 2005; Long & Perkins, 2007; Denters, 2016). It is acknowledged that this insignificance could be due to the small number of respondents who indicated their involvement in the process (Bonett & Wright, 2000; Moinester & Gottfried, 2014; Bujang & Baharum, 2016). On the other hand, this could indicate that general engagement is sufficient to produce such positive feeling as place attachment and such positive behaviour as word-of-mouth. It could be concluded that residents can express place brand loyalty without directly participating in place branding. In other words, local authorities could build residents' loyalty to the place brand without involving them in the process of the brand's development. This could be achieved by formulating a brand that is liked, and whose visual and auditory representations are perceived as appealing.

The second multiple linear model with the main independent and 6 control variables demonstrated a noticeable increase in R^2 to .308. This time, Complexity, Attitude, and "Public" appeared to be significant with no statistical significance of Trust (p = .102). Accordingly, the effect of Attitude and "Public," shown by the first multiple regression, was confirmed. Trust turned up to be insignificant probably due to its strong positive correlation with Attitude (Spearman's rho of .565) and Complexity (Spearman's rho of .379). Apparently, Trust, on the one hand, and Attitude with Complexity, on the other, accounted for the same variance with the latter variables being more accurate predictors. On the whole, the model confirmed the minimal effect of Trust similarly demonstrated by the simple regression, which nevertheless turned up to be significant (R^2 = .121, p < .001). It appears that residents may feel attached to the place and be willing to promote it without considering its brand as effective (credibility), honest (integrity), the one with good intentions (benevolence). Attachment to the place, as one of loyalty's dimensions, seems to be a strong feeling that cannot be easily damaged by distrust toward this place's brand. Positive word-of-mouth, as another dimension, is not easily influenced either, being backed up by the feeling of attachment.

The model's relatively high R^2 of .308 (compared to the model with only the controls that showed an R^2 of .168) indicates that perceived place brand complexity is a rather powerful predictor of residents' loyalty to the place brand. This result upholds and reaffirms the outcome of the simple regression analyses that equally depicted complexity as the strongest independent variable among all of the concepts considered (R^2 = .233, p < .001). Although this aligns with the theorized expectations, the degree of complexity's strength appeared to be a surprise (e.g., Zenker & Petersen, 2014; Zenker et al., 2017). Apparently, it is indeed easier for residents to self-identify with the place of living when this place and its positioning are diverse, multi-faceted, and

many-sided (Zenker & Petersen, 2014). As has been suggested before, complex place brands provide residents with more aspects to connect to and more positive elements that could justify and compensate for its negative sides. Moreover, the more areas a brand covers, the more reasons it provides to talk about it. It seems to be easier for residents to promote places with complex brands because such brands are naturally directed at diverse audiences. They are more appealing and relatable, accessible and understandable, flexible and thus personal. Residents could complement such brands with own expectations and beliefs, adjusting them according to personal preferences without changing their essential characteristics.

7.3.2. **Meaninglessness**

A multiple linear regression calculated with 6 control variables demonstrated an R^2 of .93. While the overall model was significant, only two individual predictors turned up to be equally significant: Attitude and Awareness. It appears that residents tend to consider the place brand as meaningful when they know it and like its visual as well as auditory representations. While the R^2 value is not particularly high, local authorities could nevertheless be recommended to take residents' opinion on the city's logo and slogan into account in the course of the place branding process. The end result of the process, including the city's logo and slogan, should be delivered to the general public, explained, and promoted (e.g., Ouseley, 2001 in Trueman et al., 2004: 323; Braun et al., 2013: 7). These practices could ensure that residents know the brand of their place of living, like it, and thus, consider it to be meaningful. Residents' perception of the brand's meaningfulness is believed to be important since it could improve their attitude towards local authorities as well as justify public spending on place marketing (e.g., Dryzek, 2002; Young, 2002; Held, 2006; Klijn, 2016; Edelenbos & Van Meerkerk, 2016).

The second multiple linear regression containing the main independent as well as all control variables generated an R^2 of .125, with Trust being the only significant predictor. The increase of an R^2 from 0.93 to only .125, however, indicates that Trust does not actually explain a great amount of variance for meaninglessness. Contrary to the initial model containing only the controls, Attitude (p = .103) and Awareness (p = .137) appeared to be insignificant in combination with the main independent variables. This insignificance could be explained by their strong positive correlation with Trust, as demonstrated by a Spearman's rho of .565 and .523 respectively. Complexity happened to be insignificant in the joint model as well (p = .810), in spite of being significant, although quite weak, in the simple regression (R^2 = .024, p < .001). This could be explained by this variable's moderate positive correlation with Trust (Spearman's rho of .379). Apparently, both of them accounted for the same variance with the latter being a better predictor. Accordingly, complexity did not produce the expected large effect, which could mean that complex brands are not necessarily viewed as meaningful.

Consequently, Trust came out not merely as a more accurate predictor compared to Attitude and Awareness, but actually as the most accurate predictor among all the variables considered. Its comparatively high predictive potential was equally demonstrated by the simple regression analyses: out of all the regressions performed, the model containing Trust produced the largest R^2 of .119. The greatest impact of Trust on residents' perception of the place brand's meaningfulness is not surprising due to the variable's credibility dimension. Based on the theoretical suggestions outlined above, it is assumed that a resident who trusts the place brand, believes in its quality and effectiveness (Gurviez & Korchia, 2003). Consequently, this person also considers the place brand as meaningful: able to reach its goals and benefit both the city and its inhabitants. The benevolence dimension, which reflects a brand's citizen-orientation and constant improvement, as well as the integrity dimension, which reflects its representativeness,

are also believed to have contributed to the relation between residents' trust in the place brand and their perception of its meaningfulness (e.g., Bennett & Savani, 2003 in Braun et al., 2013: 7). It should be stressed that the effect of Trust did not turn up to be as high as had been expected. While its comparative impact was the most noticeable out of all the variables examined, it was not particularly strong. Apparently, residents might trust the place brand and consider it as meaningless simultaneously. This could happen, for instance, when the place brand is seen as honest, benevolent, and generally appealing, but not necessarily effective.

Overall, residents' trust in the place brand, with its credibility and benevolence dimensions, materialized as the most powerful predictor of the brand's perceived meaningfulness. Therefore, if local authorities want to improve residents' perception of place branding as a worthy endeavour deserving public funds, they could try to make geographical brands as credible, benevolent, and honest (integrity) as possible. Moreover, they could make the general public aware of the results achieved so that residents trust place brands and recognize their credibility. These steps could bring about the desired effect: making place brands more effective in the eyes of local inhabitants. This, in turn, could additionally generate some positive externalities, some of which have already been mentioned above (e.g., Dryzek, 2002; Young, 2002; Held, 2006; Klijn, 2016; Edelenbos & Van Meerkerk, 2016).

7.3.3. **Powerlessness**

The first multiple regression model with 6 control variables produced an R^2 of .055 with only Attitude, Tourism, and "Opportunity" being significant predictors. Rather expectedly, residents who liked the city's logo and slogan also tended to feel more powerful. This could be the case since they felt that their tastes had been taken into account in the course of the place brand development. Similarly, those who had the opportunity to participate in the place branding, reflected a higher degree of potency in relation to the process (e.g., Zimmerman & Rappaport, 1988). At the same time, those sceptical about tourism tended to feel helpless (e.g., Boley et al., 2014). It is possible that such residents consider place branding as a practice exclusively directed at tourists and their increased inflow. Since they condemn such aims, they equally condemn the endeavour leading to it. It seems that in order to enhance residents' feeling of potency, local authorities could try to involve them in place branding; consider their tastes when creating place brands; inform them about place brands' goals and potential benefits (e.g., Zimmerman & Rappaport, 1988). Consequently, these practices could empower residents and strengthen their self-esteem. Such positive feelings could then contribute to their general well-being and, thus, the level of happiness (e.g., Long & Perkins, 2007; Dryzek, 2002; Young, 2002; Held, 2006; Klijn, 2016; Edelenbos & Van Meerkerk, 2016).

The second multiple regression model with the main independent and 6 control variables generated an R^2 of 0.088 with three significant predictors: Trust, Tourism, and "Opportunity." Accordingly, this regression confirmed the effect of Tourism and "Opportunity" demonstrated by the initial model containing only the controls. Attitude, however, appeared to be insignificant this time (p = .761). Complexity generated no significance as well (p = .819). This could be explained by Attitude's strong (Spearman's rho of .565) and Complexity's moderate (Spearman's rho of .379) positive correlations with Trust - the strongest predictor in the joint model. Apparently, the former two variables accounted for the same variance as Trust, which in combination with other variables, appeared to possess greater and more accurate predictive power. In fact, among all the simple regressions calculated, perceived place brand complexity came out as the second least influential, still significant, predictor (R^2 = .013, p = .008). Therefore, it seems that complexity, when considered individually, could actually contribute to

residents' feeling of potency. It is expected, however, that in such cases its impact would be relatively marginal.

The comparison of the first and the second multiple regressions allows to conclude that Trust is a relatively strong predictor that enhances the overall fit of the model containing only the control variables. Moreover, residents' trust demonstrated the largest individual R^2 of .067 among all of the simple regressions calculated. The benevolence and integrity dimensions of the construct could explain this effect (Gurviez & Korchia, 2003). When residents believe that the place brand represents them realistically and is being constantly updated according to their preferences, it is not surprising that they tend to feel quite enabled and influential. Overall, it could be concluded that it is quite important for residents who feel powerful in regard to the place branding process, to trust the place brand and thus consider it to be effective (credibility), representative (integrity), with good intentions (benevolence). It should be mentioned, however, that the predictive power of the joint model in general and Trust in particular did not end up being particularly high. Apparently, residents might trust the place brand and feel powerless in regard to its development, simultaneously. This could happen, for instance, when residents were not involved in the place branding process, but its result (the place brand itself) is nevertheless viewed as effective, honest, and sincere.

8. Conclusions

8.1. Research questions and hypotheses (see Table № 20)

In the course of the regression analyses it was found that perceived place brand complexity has a major impact on place brand loyalty. At the same time, place brand trust appeared to be insignificant when considered in combination with the other variables. Additionally, it was identified that residents' attitude towards the city brand's representations, as well as the degree of residents' participation in the public life of the city, influence their attachment to the city and willingness to promote it. It should be mentioned, however, that complexity came out as the strongest factor capable of generating or strengthening loyalty. Its impact was substantial and relatively powerful.

The factor analysis divided the theorised two-dimensional concept of alienation into the unitary concepts of meaninglessness and powerlessness, which, therefore, were examined separately in all regressions. Consequently, it was discovered that, out of all the independent and control variables considered, place brand trust has the greatest impact on perceived place brand meaningfulness. At the same time, it should be mentioned that its effect was not particularly strong. In a similar vein, out of all the variables considered, place brand trust demonstrated the greatest impact on local inhabitants' feeling of powerfulness in regard to the place branding. Residents' attitude towards tourism and opportunity to participate in the process appeared to be important for the feeling of powerfulness as well. The joint effect of these three variables, however, turned up to be rather weak. Accordingly, the impact of trust was comparatively weak

either. Complexity illustrated no significance in relation to both meaninglessness and powerlessness.

The comparison of the regressions performed, allows to conclude that the model containing loyalty is the most accurate out of all the models considered. While the investigated phenomena could predict loyalty quite well, their predictive power in regard to meaninglessness and powerlessness was rather limited. The addition of the main independent variables to the initial multiple regression models containing only the controls, demonstrated only a minimal increase of the R^2 values: from 0.093 to 0.125 in the case of meaninglessness, and from 0.055 to 0.088 in the case of powerlessness. It could be concluded that both place brand loyalty and perceive place brand complexity do not predict the above-mentioned phenomena strongly and accurately. Therefore, it seems that residents might trust the place brand, consider it as complex, and feel alienated from it, simultaneously. Overall, complexity came out as the strongest predictor of loyalty, while trust materialized as the best predictor of alienation.

№	Variables	Expected relation	Obtained relation	Eventual hypotheses	Outcomes based on the multiple regressions	Outcomes based on the simple regressions
				Table № 20		
H1:	Trust/Loyalty	+	+	*Place brand trust is positively related to place brand loyalty*	**Rejected (statistically insignificant)**	**Accepted**
H2:	Trust/Meaninglessness	–	–	*Place brand trust is negatively related to perceived place brand meaninglessness*	**Accepted**	**Accepted**
H3:	Trust/Powerlessness	–	–	*Place brand trust is negatively related to perceived powerlessness in regard to place branding*	**Accepted**	**Accepted**
H4:	Complexity/Loyalty	+	+	*Perceived place brand complexity is positively related to place brand loyalty*	**Accepted**	**Accepted**
H5:	Complexity/Meaninglessness	–	–	*Perceived place brand complexity is negatively related to perceived place brand meaninglessness*	**Rejected (statistically insignificant)**	**Accepted**
H6:	Complexity/Powerlessness	–	–	*Perceived place brand complexity is negatively related to perceived powerlessness in regard to place branding*	**Rejected (statistically insignificant)**	**Accepted**

8.2. **Scientific relevance**

8.2.1. **Concepts**

It can be concluded that this thesis managed to achieve its objectives and answer its research questions. Firstly, such phenomena as place brand trust, perceived place brand complexity, and place brand loyalty were comprehensively examined and extended. Furthermore, the novel concept of place brand alienation was theoretically constructed and empirically investigated. Place brand trust, place brand loyalty, and place brand alienation in the context of local inhabitants were newly formulated, conceptualized, and operationalized. The concept of trust, which previously appeared only in the context of local ownership and embeddedness (Holman, 2008; and Morton et al., 2008 in Insch, 2011: 12; Van Gelder, 2011: 40), was extended to the field of place branding and reformulated into place brand trust. It was consequently conceptualized based on the definition of Gurviez and Korchia (2003), and operationalized based on their and Li and others' (2008) measurements. Place brand complexity was comprehensively examined and operationalized following the works of Zenker and Petersen (2014) as well as Zenker and others (2017) who have initiated research on the topic. While they discuss the phenomenon using such terms as place identities and prototypes, this research has adopted the term perceived place brand complexity. It is believed that the consistent application of this terms throughout the research will contribute to the unification of terminology on the topic. Similarly, place brand alienation was selected as a point of investigation since it has been constantly overshadowed by other concepts (e.g., Simpson & Siguaw, 2008; Zenker et al., 2017; Choo et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2014; Baloglu, 2001; Kyle et al., 2004; Lee et al., 2007; Yuksel et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2012; Lewicka, 2011; Merrilees et al., 2009; Zenker & Rütter, 2014). Moreover, it is believed that the term has not appeared in any academic works yet. Therefore, this concept was formulated, defined, conceptualized, and operationalized based on the concept of policy alienation developed by Tummers (2012) and reexamined by Van Engen (2017). The fact that the factor analysis did not confirm the uniformity of the suggested dimensions indicates that the operationalization of place brand alienation requires further improvement and testing. This research initiated investigation on this concept and accumulated a thorough base for its further advancement. The research offered to consider place brand loyalty in the context of residents, which has not been comprehensively done before. It operationalized the concept based on the existing theoretical developments and proposed to examine it as an integration of place attachment and word-of-mouth - concepts that are usually investigated separately (e.g., Jeuring & Haartsen, 2017; Andersson & Ekman, 2009; Simpson & Siguaw, 2008; Zenker & Rütter, 2014; Prayag & Ryan, 2012). The factor analysis confirmed that one factor underlies both phenomena, indicating that place brand loyalty could be measured based on the formulated scale. The operationalization should be improved and verified in the future. Overall, the operationalizations were based on the existing measurements and, in the end, materialized as their combination and partial transformation. The reliability and factor analyses confirmed the workability of the formulated scales, which could be further used and improved in other research projects.

8.2.2. Context

The modification of the measurements' elements was necessitated by the citizen-orientation of the research since the role of residents in place branding has not been fully comprehended yet (Braun et al., 2013: 1; Bennett & Savani, 2003; and Merrilees et al., 2009 in Braun et al., 2013: 3). Therefore, this research contributes to the understanding of this particular context and provides an argument in favour of internal branding, clarifying and confirming its potential benefits. This is seen as an important contribution since the practice of internal marketing has not been thoroughly investigated, and thus is not fully understood yet (King, 2010 in Jeuring & Haartsen, 2017: 242).

8.2.3. Connections

Consequently, the research formulated novel conceptual frameworks based on the works of Louis and Lombart (2010), Zenker and Petersen (2014), as well as Tummers (2012). All of them appeared to be workable and statistically significant, which is believed to be a positive finding requiring further examination and validation. The suggested frameworks could be upgraded and supplemented with additional variables, which potentially would increase their goodness-of-fit. Moreover, some mediating and moderating flows could be infused and tested, and more advanced statistical techniques, including Structural Equation Modelling (SEM), could be applied in the process of the frameworks' verification (Lomax & Schumacker, 2004). Since the conceptual models were newly created, they depicted relationships that have not been previously examined. The research, therefore, not only presented and elaborated fresh concepts but also suggested and probed original connections.

Overall, it is believed that the research managed enrich the fields of public administration in general and place branding in particular by "expanding existing and developing original concepts, suggesting and testing novel relationships between them, considering the fields in new contexts and consequently strengthening their empirical bases."

8.3. Societal relevance

8.3.1. General recommendations

It should be clarified that the recommendations outlined below are based not only on the findings in regard to the main independent variables but also on the effects demonstrated by the control variables in the course of the multiple regression analyses. This section presents suggestions on how to achieve certain goals without specifying why these goals are worth achieving: their relevance and importance have already been discussed throughout the thesis.

How to strengthen residents' <u>loyalty to the place brand?</u>

The indication that perceived place brand complexity, attitude towards the brand's representations, and participation in the public life of the city predict residents' loyalty to the place brand, could be used by local authorities to realize their strategic plans in this regard: enhance residents' loyalty to the place brand, strengthen their attachment to the place, and increase their willingness to promote it. Accordingly, in order to achieve these goals:

- residents' tastes should be comprehensively examined, taken into account in the course of the place branding, and eventually incorporated in the city brand's visual and auditory representations, such as logos and slogans;
- the brand itself should be complexified and made more diverse, many-sided, and multi-faceted, within the boundaries of reasonableness and necessity, of course;
- residents should be encouraged to participate in the city's public affairs, becoming active subjects instead of passive objects.

How to improve residents' perception of the <u>place brand's meaningfulness?</u>

Based on the results obtained, it is reasonable to suggest that for place brands to be perceived as meaningful in the eyes of local inhabitants, they should be regarded as realistic and representative; practicable and effective; being constantly improved and updated according to new developments in respective locales and residents' changing preferences. Overall, it could be

said that place brands must be trustworthy: credible, honest, and benevolent. This could be achieved by:

- an active input from the general public in the course of place branding;
- monitoring of residents' attitudes, their analysis, and inclusion in the regularly conducted updating and improvement sessions directed at place marketing strategies in general and place brands' representations in particular;
- social advertising, including information campaigns and internal branding, aimed at improving residents' awareness in regard to place brands' purposes, achievements, as well as potentials.

It should be mentioned that the latter instrument has already been prescribed in the new tourist strategy of Lviv. This research, therefore, only confirms its relevance and additionally justifies its incorporation into the document.

How to enhance residents' feeling of <u>powerfulness in regard to place branding?</u>

The findings suggest that the practices outlined in the section above could be equally useful for enhancing residents' feeling of potency in the context of place branding. In other words, it seems that local inhabitants tend to feel enabled and influential in relation to place branding when they trust this process and its outcomes, including place brands with their representations. In addition, such practices could clarify place brands' goals and their importance, increasing residents' support for tourism. The latter effect is similarly important for enhancing local inhabitants' feeling of capability in regard to place branding. The opportunity to participate in the process appeared to be equally important. Consequently, local authorities should make the process of place branding accessible and inclusive, involving residents actively and comprehensively, as well as considering their input genuinely and seriously.

8.3.2. **Citizen participation in Ukraine**

It should be highlighted, however, that the "Opportunity" and "Participation" variables came out as insignificant in most regressions. This result is believed to have been caused, to a large extent, by the small sample. In fact, open, inclusive, or even deliberative place branding could be a creative source of place brand trust and perceived place brand complexity. In addition, it could lead to such positive outcomes as improved perception of tourism among residents, their positive attitude towards place brands and their representations, as well as residents' general development in terms of civic skills and virtues. All of these outcomes seem to be important for developing residents' loyalty to the place brand, on the one hand, and tackling their alienation from it, on the other.

In other words, citizen participation in the place branding process could strengthen local inhabitants' attachment to their home region, increase their willingness to promote it, make its place brand more meaningful in their eyes, simultaneously giving them the feeling of powerfulness, potency, and importance. Moreover, such participation could improve the morality of the process (Ooi, 2011), solidify the legitimacy of the place brand, and enhance the quality of urban democracy in the region (Eshuis & Edwards, 2013). Consequently, it appears that place branding could be beneficial not only from a financial point of view (e.g., Lucarelli & Berg, 2011). Since this practice is still underdeveloped in Ukraine (Melnykova, 2015), local authorities should pay more attention to its hidden potential. It should be tailored to contextual particularities, probed, and consequently improved.

By demonstrating the importance of residents' trust in the place brand, this research indirectly supports and encourages the practice of citizen involvement in the process of place branding, whose actual effects should be further investigated and verified in the future. Overall, it appears that citizen participation is important for building an effective place brand indeed (Ind & Bjerke, 2007 in Braun et al., 2013: 1).

8.3.3. **Strategic development of Lviv**

The new tourist strategy of the city, which is currently being developed by the local council, envisions Lviv as a diverse place that makes visitors want to come back. According to the document, this should be achieved based on respect to residents, whose hospitality is considered to be a potential strength, and whose antagonism towards tourism is considered as a potential weakness (Strategy, 2019). The "Complex strategy for the development of Lviv 2012-2025" identifies the development of tourism, preservation of identity, and enhanced liveability as the city's strategic priorities. This plan attempts to accommodate both economic and social considerations, mentioning an increase in the number of tourists and permanent residents simultaneously. As has been mentioned above, compared to the resident-centered goals, the realization of the tourism-related ones has been progressing much faster.

The aforementioned recommendations aimed at making place brands more complex and building residents' trust in them, could be incorporated in the new tourist strategy of Lviv and subsequently realized in order to stimulate the simultaneous achievement of the city's social and economic aspirations. It is believed that the suggested steps, including citizen participation, could lead to the following outcomes. On the one hand, residents would be less alienated from the place brand and more attached to the city, feeling more potent, capable, and relevant. This would ensure an increase of both the number of permanent residents and their level of satisfaction with living conditions. Simultaneously, this would decrease the outflow of local inhabitants. On the other hand, these recommended steps would make residents more willing to promote the city and remain positive in regard to tourism. Since they constitute "an integrated part of the place brand" (Braun et al., 2013: 3) and contribute to the development of the city's "conceived identity" (Trueman et al., 2004), it is important to mention that the recommended steps could make residents place brand champions (Elliott & Percy, 2007 in Braun et al., 2013: 5) or "authentic place ambassadors" (Kavaratzis, 2012 in Zenker & Rütter, 2014: 11). They could also prevent local inhabitants from "non-official" or "counter-branding" campaigns" (Braun et al., 2013: 7). Consequently, this could enhance the city's image, attract additional tourists, and improve their visiting experience. As a result, both resident- and tourism-related goals could be attained simultaneously with fewer tensions and respective difficulties that currently hinder their synchronous achievement.

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Appendices

Appendix A
Measurements considered in the course of the operationalization

Concept	Sub-dimension	Items	Original source	Original concept	Original values	Cronbach's alpha
Perceived place brand complexity		- The city you live in is complex; - The city you live in is multi-faceted; - The city you live in has different sides.	Zenker et al., 2017 adopted from Cox & Cox, 1988.	Perceived city brand complexity	7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("I fully disagree") to 7 ("I fully agree")	Study 1: (0.87); Study 2: (0.85).

Place brand loyalty	Place attachment (the attitudinal component)	- The place feels like home; - ***There are a lot of things that keep me in the place;*** - There is no other place I would rather live in.	Zenker & Rütter, 2014 based on Zenker & Gollan, 2010.	Place attachment (focus on residents)	7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("I fully disagree") to 7 ("I fully agree")	(0.83)
			Zenker et al., 2017 based on Zenker & Gollan, 2010.	Place attachment (focus on residents)		(0.83)
		- I could not easily ***bond*** to another place like [CITY]; - I hardly feel ***connected*** to [CITY] *[R];* - I do not feel as a part of *'the family'* in [CITY] *[R]*	Zenker et al., 2017 adopted from Allen & Meyer, 1990.	Commitment (operationalized attachment to a place with a commitment scale to count for non-residents)	7-point Likert scale	(0.88)
		- Didim ***means*** a lot to me; - I am very ***attached*** to Didim; - I feel strong sense of ***belonging*** to Didim.	Yuksel et al., 2010 adapted from previous studies (e.g., Kyle et al., 2004a).	Affective attachment (focus on tourists and tourism destination)	5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("Strongly disagree") to 5 ("Strongly agree")	Reliability: (0.88)
	Positive word-of-mouth (the behavioural component)- actual.	- I have recommended ***this place*** to lots of people (1 of 4 items).	Zenker & Rütter, 2014 adapted from Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006.	Positive word-of-mouth	7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("I fully disagree") to 7 ("I fully agree")	(.92)
		- I have recommended ***this brand*** to lots of people; - I 'talk up' this place to my friends; - I spread the good-word about this place; - I give this place positive word-of-mouth advertising.	Zenker et al., 2017 adapted from Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006.			Study 1: (0.91); Study 2: (0.96).
	Positive word-of-mouth (the behavioural component) - intent.	- Say good things about Fryslân as ***holiday destination;*** - When someone asks advice, recommend Fryslân as attractive holiday destination; - ***Promote the brand "Fryslân."***	Jeuring & Haartsen, 2017 adapted from Alexandrov et al., 2013.	Positive word-of-mouth	5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 *("Very unlikely")* to 5 *("Very likely"*	(.80)
		- Say positive things about the city to other people; - Recommend the city to others ***as place to visit;*** - Encourage ***friends or relatives*** to visit the city.	Papadimitriou et al., 2018 adopted from Bosnjak et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2007).	Future WOM behavior	5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 *("Not at all likely")* to 5 *("Extremely likely")*	(.94)
Place brand trust	Credibility Integrity Benevolence	- This brand's products make me feel safe; - I trust the quality of this brand's products; - Buying this brand's products is a guarantee. - This brand is sincere with consumers; - This brand is honest with its customers; - This brand expresses an interest in its customers. - I think this brand renews its products to take into account advances in research; - I think this brand is always looking to improve its response to consumer needs.	Gurviez & Korchia, 2003.	Brand trust		
	Competence	- This brand does a good job; - I expect the brand to deliver on its promise; - I am confident in the brand's ability to perform well; - The quality of this brand has been very consistent.	Li et al., 2008.	Brand trust	The Likert scale format.	(0.82)
	Benevolence	- The brand has good intentions towards its customers; - It will respond constructively if I have any product-related problems; - It would do its best to help me if I had a problem; - It cares about my needs; - This brand gives me a sense of security.				(0.80)
	Overall brand trust based on dimensional items.	- The products of this brand bring me security; - I have confidence in the quality of the products of this brand; - Buy products of this brand, it is a guarantee; - This brand is sincere vis-à-vis consumers; - This brand is honest with its customers; - This brand shows interest for its customers; - I think this brand is continually looking to improve its response to consumer needs.	Sta & Abbassi, 2018 based on Gurviez & Korchia, 2002.	Brand trust	5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("Strongly disagree") to 5 ("Strongly agree")	(0.76)

	Construct	Items	Source	Definition	Scale	Reliability
	Overall brand trust based on dimensional items.	Brand X will. . . - Offer me a product with a constant quality level; - Help me to solve any problem I could have with the product; - Offer me new products I may need; - Be interested in my satisfaction; - Value me as a consumer of its product; - Offer me recommendations and advices on how to make the most of its product.	Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2001 based on Ganesan, 1994; Hess, 1995; Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Larzelere & Huston, 1980; and others.	Brand trust in the context of consumer-brand relationships	4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("Definitely not sure") to 5 ("Definitely sure")	(0.92)
	Overall brand trust based on dimensional items.	- I trust in all brands' products; - I have never had a bad experience on this brand; - This brand has a nice image among people; - If this brand claims a good feature, that would be true; - This is an honest brand.	Dehdashti et al., 2012.	Brand trust	Likert based scale from completely disagree to completely agree.	(0.891)
	Overall brand trust.	- I trust this brand; - I rely on this brand; - This is an honest brand; - This brand is safe.	Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001.	Brand trust	7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("Very strongly disagree") to 7 ("Very strongly agree")	(0.81)
	Overall brand trust.	- I trust this brand; - I rely on this brand; - This brand is safe.	Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2002.	Brand trust	7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("Very strongly disagree") to 7 ("Very strongly agree")	(0.77)
	Overall brand trust.	- I have no doubt this brand can be trusted; - This brand is trustworthy; - I trust this brand.	Li et al., 2008.	Overall trust	The Likert scale format.	(0.71)

Place brand alienation	Powerlessness (strategic)	- In my opinion, professionals had too little power to influence the policy; - We professionals were completely powerless during the introduction of the policy; - Professionals could not at all influence the development of the policy at the national level (Minister and Ministry of X, National Government).	Tummers, 2012.	Policy alienation	5-point Likert scale.	(0.74)	
	Powerlessness (tactical)	- In my organization, especially professionals could decide how the policy was being implemented (R); - In my organization, professionals have - by means of working groups or meetings - taken part in decisions on the execution of the policy (R); - The management of my organization should have involved the professionals far more in the execution of the policy; - Professionals were not listened to over the introduction of the policy in my organization; - In my organization, professionals could take part in conversations regarding the execution of the policy (R); - I and my fellow professionals were completely powerless in the introduction of the policy in my organization.				(0.86)	
	Powerlessness (operational)	- I have freedom to decide how to use the policy (R); - While working with the policy, I can be in keeping with the client's needs (R); - Working with the policy feels like a harness in which I cannot easily move; - When I work with the policy, I have to adhere to tight procedures; - While working with the policy, I cannot sufficiently tailor it to the needs of my clients; - While working with the policy, I can make my own judgments (R).				(0.82)	
	Meaninglessness (societal)	- I think that the policy, in the long term, will lead to goal 1 (R); - I think that the policy, in the short term, will lead to goal 1 (R); - I think that the policy has already led to goal 1 (R); - Overall, I think that the policy leads to goal 1 (R).				Goal 1: (0.91), Goal 2: (0.91), Goal 3: (0.90).	
	Meaninglessness (client)	- With the policy I can better solve the problems of my clients (R); - The policy is contributing to the welfare of my clients (R); - Because of the policy, I can help clients more efficiently than before (R); - I think that the policy is ultimately favorable for my clients (R).				(0.91)	
	Powerlessness (strategic) Powerlessness (operational) Meaninglessness (societal) Meaninglessness (societal) Meaninglessness (client)	- Professionals cannot influence the development of policies at the national level (Minister and Ministry of X, National Government);	Van Engen, 2017 based on Tummers, 2012.	General policy alienation	5-point Likert scale.		
		- Generally, I have freedom to decide how to use government policies (R);					
		- Overall, I think that government policy leads to socially relevant goal A (R);					
		- In general, I think that government policy in the long term will lead to socially relevant goal A (R);					
		- In general, government policy enables me to better solve the problems of my clients (R).					

	Powerlessness Meaninglessness Normlessness Social Isolation Self-Estrangement	- There is not much that I can do about most of the important problems that we face today;	Pruden et al., 1974 based on Middleton, 1963 and Dean, 1961.	General alienation	6-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("Strongly agree") to 6 ("Strongly disagree")	The intercorrelations among the dimensions ranging from .10 to .45; a high degree of correspondence.
		- Things have become so complicated in the world today that I really don't understand what is going on;				
		- In order to get ahead in the world today, you are almost forced to do some things which are not right;				
		- I am not much interested in the TV programs, movies, or magazines that most people seem to like;				
		- I have found that just being your natural self won't get you very far in the world.				

A sample of the translated paper-based questionnaire manually distributed among students of Ivan Franko National University of Lviv

Метою даного дослідження є вивчення брендів міст. Дослідження стане основою магістерської роботи під керівництвом Університету Еразма в Роттердамі, Нідерланди (Erasmus University Rotterdam, the Netherlands).

НЕ вказуйте своє ім'я. Ваші відповіді не будуть прив'язані до Вашої особистості і залишаться анонімними. Ваша участь - повністю добровільна. Якщо Ви відчуєте дискомфорт, відповідаючи на певні запитання, пропустіть їх. Дякуємо за Ваш час і співпрацю.

Анкета запитує про Ваші ОСОБИСТІ переконання щодо бренду Львова. Бренд Львова – це
- образ та імідж Львова, що склалися у Вашій уяві;
- асоціації, що виникають у Вас, коли Ви думаєте про Львів;
- все, що представляє Львів і відрізняє його від інших міст: наприклад його назва, логотип, гасло, символіка, офіційні кольори тощо.

Наведені нижче логотип і гасло є частиною бренду Львова.

Вкажіть, чи погоджуєтесь Ви з наведеними нижче твердженнями, обвівши колом цифри, що найточніше відображають Ваші відповіді. Ви можете обрати лише одну цифру навпроти кожного твердження. Будь ласка, зробіть свій вибір відповідно до наступної шкали:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
- - -	- -	-	- +	+	++	+++
повністю не погоджуюсь	не погоджуюсь	частково не погоджуюсь	важко відповісти	частково погоджуюсь	погоджуюсь	повністю погоджуюсь

1	2	3	4	5	6		7	
повністю не погоджуюсь	не погоджуюсь	частково не погоджуюсь	важко відповісти	частково погоджуюсь	погоджуюсь		повністю погоджуюсь	

№	Твердження	-		-+				+
1	У Львові я почуваюсь як вдома	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Багато речей прив'язують мене до Львова	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Немає іншого міста, куди я хотіла (-в) би переїхати	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Я рекомендувала (-в) багатьом людям відвідати Львів	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Я розповідаю позитивні речі про Львів своїм друзям чи близьким	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Я поширюю позитивні відгуки про Львів	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Позитивними відгуками, я популяризую Львів як комфортне місто	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Я вважаю, що бренд Львова не покращує імідж міста	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Я вважаю, що бренд Львова не сприяє покращенню добробуту міста	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Бренд Львова не впливає на моє відношення до міста в позитивну чи негативну сторону	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	У мешканців Львова було замало можливостей, щоб вплинути на зміст бренду міста	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Мешканці Львова мали б бути залучені більшою мірою в процес створення бренду міста	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	Думка мешканців Львова не була врахована в достатній мірі при розробці бренду міста	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	Мій улюблений колір - синій	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	Мені подобається синій колір	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

16	Мені подобається одяг синього кольору	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	Я сподіваюся, що моя наступна куртка буде синього кольору	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
повністю не погоджуюсь	не погоджуюсь	частково не погоджуюсь	важко відповісти	частково погоджуюсь	погоджуюсь	повністю погоджуюсь

№	Твердження	-			-+			+
18	Львів - комплексне місто	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	Львів - різноманітне місто	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	Львів - багатогранне місто	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	Бренд Львова правдиво відображає особливості міста	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	Бренд Львова правдиво відображає характер мешканців міста	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	Бренд Львова проявляє інтерес до мешканців міста	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24	Бренд Львова розвивається разом із містом	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25	Бренд Львова постійно оновлюється відповідно до нових вподобань мешканців міста	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26	Бренд Львова - результативний	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27	Я очікую, що бренд Львова покращить місто відповідно до створеного іміджу	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28	Я впевнена (-ий) у здатності бренду Львова приносити користь місту	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29	Бренд Львова постійно вдосконалюється	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30	Я знаю як бренд Львова представляє місто	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31	Мені подобаються логотип і гасло Львова	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32	Туристи роблять проживання у Львові некомфортним	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

33	Я регулярно беру участь у громадському житті Львова	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Будь ласка, дайте відповіді на наступні запитання, поставивши хрестик (×) навпроти найбільш відповідного варіанту, чи записавши відповідь.

1) Ваша стать:
- ❏ жіноча
- ❏ чоловіча

2) Ваш вік: _____ роки/років

3) Ваш рівень освіти:
- ❏ початкова школа (4 класи)
- ❏ базова загальна середня освіта (9 класів)
- ❏ повна загальна середня освіта (11 класів)
- ❏ професійно-технічна освіта (училище, ліцей тощо)
- ❏ вища освіта (ступінь бакалавра тощо)
- ❏ вища освіта (ступінь магістра тощо)
- ❏ інша відповідь

4) Я народилася (-вся) у Львові:
- ❏ так
- ❏ ні

5) Я проживаю у Львові:
- ❏ так
- ❏ ні

6) Я проживаю у Львові вже: _____ роки/років

7) Я:
- ❏ навчаюсь у Львові
- ❏ працюю у Львові
- ❏ навчаюсь і працюю у Львові
- ❏ жоден із наведених вище варіантів

8) У мене була можливість брати участь у створенні бренду Львова:
- ❏ так
- ❏ ні

9) Я брала (-в) участь у створенні бренду Львова:
- ❏ так
- ❏ ні

Appendix C
Translation of the operationalization

Concept	Sub-dimension	Adapted items	Translation into the Ukrainian language	Source
Perceived place brand complexity		- Lviv is a complex city; - Lviv is a multi-faceted city; - Lviv has different sides.	- Львів - комплексне місто; - Львів - різноманітне місто; - Львів - багатогранне місто.	Zenker et al., 2017.
Place brand trust	Credibility (Li et al., 2008)	- The brand of Lviv is effective; - I expect the brand of Lviv to improve the city according to the created image; - I am confident in the ability of the brand of Lviv to benefit the city; - The brand of Lviv is constantly improving.	- Бренд Львова - результативний; - Я очікую, що бренд Львова покращить місто відповідно до створеного іміджу; - Я впевнена (-ий) у здатності бренду Львова приносити користь місту; - Бренд Львова постійно вдосконалюється.	Gurviez & Korchia, 2003; Li et al., 2008.
	Integrity (Gurviez & Korchia, 2003)	- The brand of Lviv honestly represents features of the city; - The brand of Lviv honestly represents the character of the residents; - The brand of Lviv expresses an interest in the residents of Lviv.	- Бренд Львова правдиво відображає особливості міста; - Бренд Львова правдиво відображає характер мешканців міста; - Бренд Львова проявляє інтерес до мешканців міста.	
	Benevolence (Gurviez & Korchia, 2003)	- The brand of Lviv evolves along with the city; - The brand of Lviv is being constantly updated according to the residents' new preferences.	- Бренд Львова розвивається разом із містом; - Бренд Львова постійно оновлюється відповідно до нових вподобань мешканців міста.	
Place brand loyalty	Place attachment (the attitudinal component)	- I feel at home in Lviv; - A lot of things tie me to Lviv; - There is no other city I would like to move to.	- У Львові я почуваюсь як вдома; - Багато речей прив'язують мене до Львова; - Немає іншого міста, куди я хотіла (-в) би переїхати.	Zenker & Rütter, 2014; Zenker et al., 2017.
	Positive word-of-mouth (the behavioural component)	- I have recommended lots of people to visit Lviv; - I say positive things about Lviv to my friends or relatives; - I spread positive feedback about Lviv; - I popularize Lviv as a comfortable city through positive testimonials.	- Я рекомендувала (-в) багатьом людям відвідати Львів; - Я розповідаю позитивні речі про Львів своїм друзям чи близьким; - Я поширюю позитивні відгуки про Львів; - Позитивними відгуками, я популяризую Львів як комфортне місто.	Zenker & Rütter, 2014 with additions from Jeuring & Haartsen, 2017 and Papadimitriou et al., 2018.
	Powerlessness	- Residents had too few opportunities to influence the content of the brand of Lviv; - Residents should have been involved far more in the creation of the brand of Lviv; - Residents' opinion was not adequately taken into account over the development of the brand of Lviv;	- У мешканців Львова було замало можливостей, щоб вплинути на зміст бренду міста; - Мешканці Львова мали б бути залучені більшою мірою в процес створення бренду міста; - Думка мешканців Львова не була врахована в достатній мірі при розробці бренду міста;	Van Engen, 2017.
	Meaninglessness	- I think that the brand of Lviv does not improve the image of the city; - I think that the brand of Lviv does not promote the improvement of the city's welfare; - The brand of Lviv does not influence my attitude towards the city in either positive or negative way.	- Я вважаю, що бренд Львова не покращує імідж міста; - Я вважаю, що бренд Львова не сприяє покращенню добробуту міста; - Бренд Львова не впливає на моє відношення до міста в позитивну чи негативну сторону.	

Marker variable (blue attitude)		- Blue is my favourite colour; - I like the colour blue; - I like blue clothes; - I hope my next jacket is blue.	- Мій улюблений колір - синій; - Мені подобається синій колір; - Мені подобається одяг синього кольору; - Я сподіваюся, що моя наступна куртка буде синього кольору.	Miller & Chiodo, 2008 in Simmering et al., 2015.

Appendix D
Characteristics of the sample

Gender					
		Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	Female	413	74.8	75.0	75.0
	Male	138	25.0	25.0	100.0
	Total	551	99.8	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.2		
Total		552	100.0		

Age					
		Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	18 y.o. & younger	190	34.4	34.4	34.4
	19-22 y.o.	165	29.9	29.9	64.3
	23-30 y.o.	115	20.8	20.8	85.1
	31 y.o. & older	68	12.3	12.3	97.5
	no response	14	2.5	2.5	100.0
	Total	552	100.0	100.0	

Education					
		Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	basic general middle (9 years)	1	.2	.2	.2
	full general middle (11 years)	324	58.7	58.7	58.9
	prof-technical (college, liceum etc.)	12	2.2	2.2	61.1
	higher (bachelor's degree etc.)	47	8.5	8.5	69.6
	higher (master's degree etc.)	157	28.4	28.4	98.0
	other response	11	2.0	2.0	100.0
	Total	552	100.0	100.0	

Born in Lviv

		Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	Yes	251	45.5	45.5	45.5
	No	301	54.5	54.5	100.0
	Total	552	100.0	100.0	

Length of stay					
		Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	1 year and less	117	21.2	23.2	23.2
	2-5 years	122	22.1	24.2	47.3
	6-20 years	128	23.2	25.3	72.7
	21 years and more	138	25.0	27.3	100.0
	Total	505	91.5	100.0	
Missing	no response	47	8.5		
Total		552	100.0		

Relation to Lviv					
		Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	study in Lviv	299	54.2	54.2	54.2
	work in Lviv	165	29.9	29.9	84.1
	study & work in Lviv	88	15.9	15.9	100.0
	Total	552	100.0	100.0	

Participation in place branding			
		Opportunity	Participation
		Frequency (valid percent)	Frequency (valid percent)
Valid	Yes	60 (10.9 %)	32 (5.8 %)
	No	491 (89.1 %)	517 (94.2 %)
	Total	551 (100 %)	549 (100 %)
Missing	System	1	3
Total		552	552

Appendix E
A Kendall's tau-b correlation analysis

Correlation analysis (Kendall's tau_b)											
	TR	L	M	POW	C	AW	AT	TOUR	PUB	O	PAR
Trust	1.000	,262**	-,230**	-,138**	,281**	,403**	,450**	-,094**	,099**	-,150**	-,140**
Loyalty	,262**	1.000	-.042	.023	,381**	,200**	,257**	-,064*	,191**	-.042	-.044
Meaning	-,230**	-.042	1.000	,240**	-,104**	-,181**	-,192**	,065*	-.017	,071*	.036
Power	-,138**	.023	,240**	1.000	-,071*	-.046	-,091**	,100**	.019	,119**	.051
Complexity	,281**	,381**	-,104**	-,071*	1.000	,148**	,257**	-,079*	,075*	-.036	-.003
Awareness	,403**	,200**	-,181**	-.046	,148**	1.000	,411**	-.008	,170**	-,227**	-,174**
Attitude	,450**	,257**	-,192**	-,091**	,257**	,411**	1.000	-,111**	,113**	-,120**	-.063
Tourism	-,094**	-,064*	,065*	,100**	-,079*	-.008	-,111**	1.000	.031	.014	.013
Public	,099**	,191**	-.017	.019	,075*	,170**	,113**	.031	1.000	-,147**	-,128**
Opportunity	-,150**	-.042	,071*	,119**	-.036	-,227**	-,120**	.014	-,147**	1.000	,660**
Participation	-,140**	-.044	.036	.051	-.003	-,174**	-.063	.013	-,128**	,660**	1.000
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).											
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).											

Appendix F
Simple linear regression analyses

			Loyalty							
Dep.var.	**Indep.var.**	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Stan. Error of the Estimate	Unst. coef.		St. coef.	t	Sig.
						B	Err.	Beta		
Loyalty	Trust	,348[a]	.121	.120	0.8765	.317	.036	.348	8.698	.000
	Complexity	,483[a]	.233	.231	0.8183	.460	.036	.483	12.907	.000
	Age	,026[a]	.001	-.001	0.9364	-.002	.003	-.026	-.613	.540
	Live for	,408[a]	.166	.165	0.8575	.341	.034	.408	10.021	.000
	Born in Lviv	,325[a]	.106	.104	0.8859	-.610	.076	-.325	-8.059	.000
	Awareness	,246[a]	.061	.059	0.9071	.144	.024	.246	5.906	.000
	Attitude	,338[a]	.114	.113	0.8817	.224	.027	.338	8.385	.000
	Tourism	,081[a]	.007	.005	0.9314	-.041	.022	-.081	-1.901	.058
	Public	,251[a]	.063	.061	0.9065	.138	.023	.251	6.053	.000
	Opportunity	,053[a]	.003	.001	0.9357	-.159	.128	-.053	-1.244	.214
	Participation	,058[a]	.003	.002	0.9367	-.233	.171	-.058	-1.368	.172

			Meaninglessness							
Dep.var.	**Indep.var.**	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Stan. Error of the Estimate	Unst. coef.		St. coef.	t	Sig.
						B	Err.	Beta		
Meaning	Trust	,345[a]	.119	.117	1.2937	-.462	.054	-.345	-8.607	.000
	Complexity	,155[a]	.024	.022	1.3606	-.218	.059	-.155	-3.672	.000
	Age	,035[a]	.001	-.001	1.3752	.003	.004	.035	.815	.416
	Live for	,137[a]	.019	.017	1.3730	.169	.055	.137	3.099	.002
	Born in Lviv	,121[a]	.015	.013	1.3659	-.335	.117	-.121	-2.867	,004
	Awareness	,239[a]	.057	.055	1.3321	-.205	.036	-.239	-5.723	.000
	Attitude	,281[a]	.079	.077	1.3229	-.273	.040	-.281	-6.834	.000
	Tourism	,093[a]	.009	.007	1.3724	.070	.032	.093	2.192	.029
	Public	,034[a]	.001	-.001	1.3762	-.027	.035	-.034	-.784	.433

					Opportunity	,083a	.007	.005	1.3725	.367	.188	.083	1.956	.051
					Participation	,047a	.002	.000	1.3741	.274	.250	.047	1.094	.274

Powerlessness										
Dep.var.	Indep.var.	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Stan. Error of the Estimate	Unst. coef.		St. coef.	t	Sig.
						B	Err.	Beta		
Power	Trust	,258a	.067	.065	1.0706	-.278	.044	-.258	-6.257	.000
	Complexity	,114a	.013	.011	1.1001	-.128	.048	-.114	-2.679	.008
	Age	,067a	.005	.003	1.1059	.005	.003	.067	1.586	.113
	Live for	,179a	.032	.030	1.0896	.177	.043	.179	4.085	.000
	Born in Lviv	,139a	.019	.018	1.0976	-.309	.094	-.139	-3.292	.001
	Awareness	,088a	.008	.006	1.0995	-.061	.030	-.088	-2.057	.040
	Attitude	,169a	.028	.027	1.0910	-.132	.033	-.169	-3.996	.000
	Tourism	,153a	.024	.022	1.0950	.093	.026	.153	3.635	.000
	Public	,023a	.001	-.001	1.1077	.015	.028	.023	.544	.587
	Opportunity	,136a	.019	.017	1.0977	.483	.150	.136	3.219	.001
	Participation	,056a	.003	.001	1.1093	.266	.202	.056	1.318	.188

Appendix G
Multiple linear regression analyses

Model	Dep. variable	Independent variables in the model	Significant independent variables	R	R²	Ad. R²	Stan. Error of the Estimate	Unst. coef. B	Err.	St. coef. Beta	t	Sig.
							Loyalty					
1.1	Loyalty	Trust, Complexity, 6 control		,555[a]	.308	.297	0.7863					
			Complexity					.360	.039	.373	9.269	.000
			Attitude					.089	.032	.133	2.789	.005
			Public					.100	.021	.181	4.811	.000
1.2	Loyalty	Complexity, Attitude, Public		,551[a]	.304	.300	0.7834					
			Complexity					.385	.036	.402	10.605	.000
			Attitude					.123	.025	.187	4.913	.000
			Public					.103	.020	.188	5.183	.000
2.1	Loyalty	6 control		,409[a]	.168	.158	0.8606					
			Attitude					.184	.031	.275	5.957	.000
			Public					.115	.023	.209	5.095	.000
2.2	Loyalty	Attitude, Public		,399[a]	.159	.156	0.8602					
			Attitude					.206	.026	.312	7.871	.000
			Public					.119	.022	.216	5.448	.000

Model	Dep. variable	Independent variables in the model	Significant independent variables	R	R²	Ad. R²	Stan. Error of the Estimate	Unst. coef. B	Err.	St. coef. Beta	t	Sig.
							Meaninglessness					
3.1	Meaning	Trust, Complexity, 6 control		,353[a]	.125	.112	1.2923					
			Trust					-.312	.076	-.233	-4.100	.000
3.2	Meaning	Trust	Trust	,345[a]	.119	.117	1.2937	-.462	.054	-.345	-8.607	.000
4.1	Meaning	6 control		,305[a]	.093	.083	1.3129					

			Awareness					-.121	.043	-.141	-2.851	.005
			Attitude					-.191	.047	-.196	-4.057	.000
4.2	Meaning	Awareness, Attitude		,300[a]	.090	.086	1.3111					
			Awareness					-.117	.041	-.136	-2.871	.004
			Attitude					-.203	.046	-.208	-4.396	.000

Powerlessness												
Mo del	Dep. variable	Independent variables in the model	Significant independent variables	R	R²	Ad. R²	Stan. Error of the Estimate	Unst. coef.		St. coef.	t	Sig.
								B	Err.	Beta		
5.1	Power	Trust, Complexity, 6 control		,297[a]	.088	.075	1.0608					
			Trust					-.259	.062	-.240	-4.142	.000
			Tourism					.067	.026	.110	2.600	.010
			Opportunity					.501	.202	.141	2.474	.014
5.2	Power	Trust, Tourism, Opportunity		,296[a]	.088	.083	1.0609					
			Trust					-.237	.046	-.220	-5.212	.000
			Tourism					.072	.025	.119	2.857	.004
			Opportunity					.333	.148	.094	2.255	.025
6.1	Power	6 control		,234[a]	.055	.044	1.0781					
			Attitude					-.101	.039	-.128	-2.597	.010
			Tourism					.077	.026	.127	2.969	.003
			Opportunity					.508	.206	.143	2.470	.014
6.2	Power	Attitude, Tourism, Opportunity		,240[a]	.058	.052	1.0761					
			Attitude					-.101	.033	-.128	-3.010	.003
			Tourism					.079	.026	.131	3.109	.002
			Opportunity					.418	.148	.118	2.814	.005

Appendix H
Discussion of the simple linear regression analyses
(addition to section 7.3.)

H.1. **Loyalty**

According to the calculated simple linear regressions both trust and complexity appeared to be significant predictors of residents' loyalty to the place brand (e.g., Kemp et al., 2012b and Choo et al., 2011 in Insch & Stuart, 2015: 173). While complexity appeared to be the strongest predictor among all 9 independent variables that had been tested, the effect of trust unexpectedly turned up to be rather moderate. Its impact is comparable, being a bit stronger though, to such variables as residents' positive attitude towards the place brand's representations (e.g., Zenker, 2011 in Zenker & Rütter, 2014: 12) and the fact of being born in the city (e.g., Kasarda & Janowitz, 1974; Sheldon & Var, 1984; Hummon, 1992; McCool & Martin, 1994; Gursoy et al., 2002). The length of stay in the city was the second most consequential variable (e.g., Williams et al., 1995), with awareness of the brand (e.g., Cobb-Walgren et al., 1995; Konecnik & Gartner, 2007; Aaker, 2009; Severi & Ling, 2013; Sasmita & Suki, 2015), and participation in the public life of the city having only a small effect (e.g., Payton et al., 2005; Lewicka, 2005; Long & Perkins, 2007; Denters, 2016). It is understandable that socially active residents who were born in the city or have lived there for a long period, know the brand and like its manifestations, are more likely to feel attached to the city and be willing to promote it. Therefore, local authorities could be advised to take residents' opinion on the brand and its visual as well as auditory representations into account in the course of the place branding process. This would ensure that residents enjoy the end result of the development process and voluntarily become effective brand ambassadors (e.g., Braun et al., 2013; Kavaratzis, 2012 in Zenker & Rütter, 2014: 11). Internal branding directed at local inhabitants could also be recommended as a way to enhance their knowledge of the brand and thus their willingness to popularize it (e.g., Ind, 2001 in Rehmet & Dinnie, 2013: 31). Social engagement and integration seem to be crucial for making not-natives feel at home and become more favourable towards and attached to the city (e.g., Van Hear, 1994). The same method could work with natives as well.

Age (unlike Pretty et al., 2003) and attitude towards tourism (unlike McCool & Martin, 1994; Boley et al., 2014) did not influence loyalty significantly. The former finding is not surprising, considering the importance of the length of stay already mentioned above. Residents feel attached to and ready to promote a city if they were born there or have lived there long enough, regardless of gender or age. The latter finding is quite unusual in regard to the relation's strength. A negative attitude towards tourism was intuitively expected to influence residents' loyalty negatively and substantially. While the regression demonstrated the predicted negative sign, the effect appeared to be statistically insignificant. Apparently, place attachment is a strong feeling that cannot be easily damaged by such disturbances as "bothersome" tourists. The strength and resistance of this loyalty's dimension also reduced the adverse impact of residents'

negative attitude towards tourism on their positive word-of-mouth intentions. As a result, it appears that residents bothered by temporary visitors can nevertheless feel strongly attached to their hometowns and be willing to promote them. This could be explained by the fact that residents understand that tourism is beneficial for their area despite some unpleasant externalities.

H.2. **Meaninglessness**

The single linear regressions calculated for the main independent, control, and some socio-demographic variables demonstrated that trust (e.g., Fournier, 1998; Albert et al., 2010; and Thomson et al., 2005 in Sta & Abbassi, 2018: 302), complexity (Zenker & Petersen, 2014), length of stay in the city, place of birth, awareness of the brand (e.g., Chigora & Zvavahera, 2015), positive attitude towards its representations (e.g., Woodside & Lysonski, 1989; Chon, 1990; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Chon, 1992; Milman & Pizam, 1995; Court & Lupton, 1997; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Castro et al., 2007; Chi & Qu, 2008; Zhang et al., 2014), and negative attitude towards tourism (Boley et al., 2014) significantly predict residents' sense of the place brand's meaninglessness.

Length of stay and place of birth generated the following impact: residents living in the city for a shorter period and born elsewhere were more likely to acknowledge the place brand's meaningfulness. This finding is rather interesting since the very same category of residents tended to be less loyal to the city. Apparently, native-born inhabitants who have stayed in the city for quite some time are more critical in regard to its environment, services, and authorities. Compared to temporary visitors, residents appear to be more dissatisfied with a place since they are interested in it, care about it, and worry about it much more (e.g., Milman & Pizam, 1988; Bramwell, 1998; Simpson & Siguaw, 2008). This is also the case because they are not allured by the city as much as temporary visitors and newcomers are. They are more demanding in relation to local budget and more realistic in terms of city evaluation. This observation is thought-provoking since the attitude of local inhabitants is crucial for the success of tourism destinations (e.g., Ap, 1992; Harrill & Potts, 2003; Simpson & Siguaw, 2008). An attitude towards tourism had a weak explanatory power with an R^2 of .009 and p = .029. This result is rather surprising since one could expect that residents who are antagonistic towards tourism should be equally antagonistic towards effective place brands, including the brand of Lviv (Boley et al., 2014). They could be expected to believe that the city brand is meaningless and unable to benefit the city since it attracts visitors who are perceived negatively. It could be concluded that attitude towards tourism is not a powerful predictor of a place brand's perceived meaningfulness. This could indicate that residents assess the effectiveness of place brands pragmatically, irrespective of their personal preferences and subjective emotions. Involvement in public life was not a significant predictor, supporting the aforementioned indication. The character of the relation illustrated by the coefficient, however, appeared to be negative as had been expected: the more residents participate in public affairs, the more meaningful they consider such public initiatives as place branding to be (e.g., Klijn & Koppenjan, 2016). Age came out as an insignificant predictor as well. This was also the case for the other dependent variables including residents' loyalty and their perceived powerlessness in regard to the place branding process. The character of the relation between age, on the one hand, and the dependent variables, on the other, appeared to be quite

interesting. Older people, although insignificantly, tended to believe that the place brand was meaningless and that they were powerless throughout its development. This follows the argument that the longer people live in a particular place, the more critical about it they become (e.g., Milman & Pizam, 1988; Bramwell, 1998; Simpson & Siguaw, 2008). Moreover, older people felt less attached to the city and were less likely to promote it. This effect was insignificant either. Perhaps, older people tend to be more realistic, pragmatic, or demanding indeed. Opportunity to participate in the place branding and actual participation in it appeared to be insignificant independent variables (unlike Klijn & Koppenjan, 2016). Perhaps this result was received due to the small sample (Bonett & Wright, 2000; Moinester & Gottfried, 2014; Bujang & Baharum, 2016). The relation between the variables nonetheless corresponded to the expectations: opportunity and participation were increasing the feeling of the brand's meaningfulness (e.g., Klijn & Koppenjan, 2016).

H.3. **Powerlessness**

According to the simple linear regressions, residents' feeling of powerlessness in regard to the place branding process was predicted by Trust (e.g., Fournier, 1998; Albert et al., 2010; and Thomson et al., 2005 in Sta & Abbassi, 2018: 302), Complexity (Zenker & Petersen, 2014), Awareness (e.g., Chigora & Zvavahera, 2015), Attitude (indirectly Chi & Qu, 2008; Zhang et al., 2014), Tourism (Boley et al., 2014), "Opportunity" (e.g., Long & Perkins, 2007; Dryzek, 2002; Young, 2002; Held, 2006; Klijn, 2016; Edelenbos & Van Meerkerk, 2016), length of stay and place of birth (unlike Cakir & Guneri, 2011).

Despite such a large amount of significant independent variables, their predictive power was rather low. Local inhabitants living in the city for a longer period tended to feel more powerless (e.g., Milman & Pizam, 1988; Bramwell, 1998; Simpson & Siguaw, 2008). As has been mentioned before, newcomers could be more lenient towards local authorities, understanding towards their decisions, and forgiving in terms of their mistakes. In line with the aforementioned findings in relation to loyalty and meaninglessness, current residents born elsewhere are apt more likely to feel capable and influential in regard to public affairs (e.g., Milman & Pizam, 1988; Bramwell, 1998; Simpson & Siguaw, 2008). Although younger people were expected to feel more powerful, age demonstrated no significance. It is possible that younger or older generations of residents tend to feel more powerful indeed, but this feeling is general and not related to such specific contexts as place branding.

Direct participation in place branding equally did not appear to be a significant predictor, but such insignificance could be caused by the limited sample size (Bonett & Wright, 2000; Moinester & Gottfried, 2014; Bujang & Baharum, 2016). Social involvement demonstrated no significance either. This result is quite unusual and thought-provoking. One would expect socially active residents to feel more powerful, compared to their passive neighbours, if they had a chance to participate, and much more powerless if they were deprived of such opportunity (e.g., Irvin & Stansbury, 2004; Zimmerman & Rappaport, 1988). This could be the case indeed, but the small number of respondents who were able to or took part in the development of the city brand, does not allow to make any certain conclusions (e.g., Bonett & Wright, 2000; Moinester & Gottfried, 2014; Bujang & Baharum, 2016). It could be only said that the habit to participate in the public life of the city did not predict residents' perceived powerfulness in regard to the specific process of place branding. Therefore, the feeling of powerfulness as a social phenomenon should be considered, examined, monitored, and perhaps adjusted at both general and specific levels individually.