PLACE BRANDING: THE NEED FOR AN EVALUATIVE FRAMEWORK

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What a journey it was to write this thesis!

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ABBREVIATIONS

AGMA	Association of Greater Manchester Authorities
CC	City Council
CIS tower	THE landmark Co-operative Insurance Society tower
DMO	Destination Marketing Organization
G-MEX	Greater Manchester Exhibition Centre (now known as Manchester Central Convention Centre)
HEIs	Higher Education Institutions
ICT	Information Communication Technology
MBC	Metropolitan Borough Council
MCC	Manchester City Council
MEN arena	Manchester Evening News Arena
MIPIM property conference	Le marché international des professionnels de l'immobilier is an international property event hosted in Cannes, France each March
MSP	Manchester Science Partnerships
NZTE	New Zealand Trade and Enterprise
TNZ	Tourism New Zealand
TNZWL	The New Zealand Way Limited
UKSPA	UK Science Park Association

PUBLICATIONS

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ABSTRACT

This research investigation is focused on place branding. The popularity of location branding has grown significantly recently. Attributes such as the possibility to inform the world about the place, differentiate it, update its outdated image, promote the place and increase its attractiveness as well as competitiveness, etc. contributed to the raising interest in this phenomenon and has increased its application in practice. As a result of this, there is a lot of literature on the subject (Haninson, 2001, 2004; Rainisto, 2003; Trueman *et al*., 2004; Moilanen and Rainisto, 2009, etc.). Notwithstanding, place branding is still classed as a relatively new phenomenon and thus has many areas for research and development. One of such sectors is the evaluation of branding initiatives for places; it can not only justify effectiveness of place brand but also identify areas in need of attention based on which, urban strategies can be reviewed and amended accordingly.

Some places have long-lasting, widely accepted and successful brands (for example, New York or Oresund, etc.) while other places are struggling to find their base (for example, Randers, etc.). Very often the success of urban brands is open to much interpretation; in general, brands are being judged and criticised by media or public. In most cases it is not clear what influences and determines success or failure of such initiatives; this exemplifies the need for empirical research. Further, some locations refrain from using visual triggers (for example, Manchester) while other places have successful world-wide known logos.

Manchester has been chosen as a case study for this research investigation because of its uniqueness and a complex of issues in one case including the chronological development of city's branding initiatives with logos, slogans and symbols along their position and importance in Manchester's history. This research tries to determine how brand was defined in the context of Manchester city. Initiatives to brand this city probably date back to the use of the "Bee" in the nineteenth century as a symbol of industry. Most recently, the signifier "M" along summing up device "original modern" have been introduced with Manchester being a brand. All this appear to be confusing causing misinterpretations as well as criticisms by public and media. The question on how to measure the effectiveness of such branding initiatives emerges.

Investigations in the field of place branding acknowledge a lack of coherent branding model as well as a lack of guidance on evaluation of branding initiatives or how to create an evaluative model/ framework thus composing theoretical background to this study. This research tries to identify if and how the effectiveness of the branding strategies can be measured and thus supplement existing knowledge in the field of urban branding. This study presents brand evaluation framework which should help practitioners to evaluate the success of the place brand idea or it could be used as a consultation measure before developing a new brand. It is anticipated the proposed framework will contribute in designing more targeted campaigns.

Literature reviews were used in this study to understand existing knowledge and findings assisted in developing a framework for the evaluation of urban brands. The proposed framework has three vertical facets (vision, attributes and perceptions) each of them comprising of a number of variables and the middle section representing the core of the framework. The degree of match between vision and perceptions demonstrates whether efforts put on place branding are consistent with its aim. In this research, the multiple sources of evidence were used in order to help to deal with the issues of validity and reliability of the case study which was utilised to examine the applicability and relevance of the evaluative framework as well as test the effectiveness of it. The proposed brand evaluation framework is comprehensive and adaptable to any place with the possibility to use greater levels of detail if needed and acting as a guide for urban brand practitioners allowing analysis of public perceptions and assessment of branding initiatives.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.0 Context and rationale

Each place, be it a country, region, city-region, town or district, performs many different domestic and foreign objectives: these include investment attraction, international competition, attractive internal services, etc. "Each place needs its own solutions to be successful" (Rainisto, 2004). One such tool is place branding. "An improved "brand" perception, reinforced by visual evidence of improvements within the city" (Trueman *et al.*, 2004), can increase its overall attractiveness as well as performance in relation to other cities.

This thesis investigates the place branding phenomenon and the effectiveness of the employed branding initiatives to places using Manchester as a case study. This chapter provides an introduction to the subject and the contextual background for the research. It begins by describing the research focus, followed by the research need, aim and objectives. The need for the evaluation of place branding initiatives is highlighted. The outline research design is presented to provide the content of the enquiry and illustrate a structure with the aim to achieve the research aim and objectives.

1.1 Research focus

Place branding and its success is the focus of this research. "Place branding" will be used as a general term referring to various scales of areas and locations (see Section 3.2.3.1 for differences between place levels and their definitions).

It is an increasing trend that more and more places (i.e., countries, regions, city-regions, cities, districts) have umbrella brands (Rainisto, 2003) in their marketing programmes in order to become better known, more attractive, gain competitive advantage, etc. The branding of places through the use of symbols, logos and slogans has become a synonymous feature of the urban regeneration process in many parts of the world; however, the effectiveness of such city branding is still subject to much debate (Ruzinskaite and Hudson, 2008). The purpose of this study is to address this issue by developing an evaluative framework to assess place branding and thus forming a novel contribution to knowledge.

City marketing is particularly popular in the form of city branding, and as it has grown out of marketing science (Ashworth and Voogd, 1990) it uses techniques associated with the creation of classical product brands (Hankinson, 2007). For this reason, place branding practices in this study are studied considering the perspective of the product/ service and corporate branding which also have longer history of development. Furthermore, Moilanen and Rainisto (2009) praise brands because they "drive company acquisitions, and revenue from these brands have been the most central dynamo and largest source of income for companies." According to Yeo and Grace (2004), "brands play a particularly important role" in the context of services because of the high risk and uncertainty. Towns, cities, regions or countries are branding themselves in order to change the existing perceptions which are no longer relevant or engaging.

Therkelsen and Halkier (2004) suggest that in general there are three types of analysis related to place branding activities: analysis of the place identity, understanding the demand for branding and images of place consumers, and finally identification of the place position in relation to its competitors. The strategic and managerial issues are also important in an attempt to mach theory with vision of city authorities and the needs of public.

The study is exploratory in nature with the intention to develop an understanding of a branding of place and its evaluation. It is an interpretive qualitative case study, with a single case-research approach, which aims at developing a framework for place branding evaluation, using a mix of data collection methods, such as semi-structured interviews and workshops/ surveys. Research findings will be quantitatively supplemented to enhance the generalisability of the framework.

The research focus is summarised in the Table 1.1.

Table 1.1 Research focus

Research dimension	Selected focus
Case location	Manchester
Main target groups	People who live and work, visitors, people who never visited (internal and external stakeholders)
Theoretical position?	There is a growing need for place brand evaluation; it is a complicated task because of the complex of variables. There is a lack of knowledge and guidance on how to evaluate place brand.
How is the empirical study carried out?	Single case study

This thesis explores the phenomenon of "place branding" using a case study of Manchester which is transforming from an industrial city towards a cultural, creative and a knowledge-based urban environment. Manchester was chosen as the case location which, in terms of branding, is a particularly complicated case with so many different branding initiatives which are not continuous; they have significantly changed during the last few decades, assuming partially due to the absence of critical discussion. It is presumed that the first city brand was developed in the 19th century when Manchester was known as a first industrial city represented by "Bee". Since the Second World War the city has been through economic doldrums and de-industrialisation so there was a need to build a new image for the city. In the 1980s, it was proclaimed as "A Nuclear Free City", was famous for its music and also thought to become the "Olympic City". In May of 1997, the red and blue slogan for Manchester manifested "we're up and going", which was replaced by a ten point asterisk with "Made in Manchester" in July of the same year. Finally, in 2006, designer Peter Saville came up with the summing up device "original modern" and introduced the new signifier multicoloured 'M' for Manchester, which has been praised by some and criticised by others. Therefore, the purpose of this research is to develop an evaluative framework for place branding and test it by assessing the latest branding initiative of Manchester. It will examine the brand concept from both demand-side and supply-side perspectives, identifying differences between them. With this in mind, this research will adopt a single case study approach.

As suggested by Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2007), if "people make the city" and "brands are constructed in people's minds", then the main target of this study should be people. Moreover, one of the Manchester's principal aims is to attract more visitors, etc. as set out in The Greater Manchester Strategy for the visitor economy 2014 – 2020 (Marketing Manchester, 2013) along encouragement of civic pride of residents and perception improvement, etc. (Marketing Manchester, 2014). There is a focus on people in the Greater Manchester strategy published by the Association of Greater Manchester Authorities (2009). For this reason, perceptions on the latest branding initiative of people who live, work and visit Manchester as well as people who never visited (people outside the region or not familiar with Manchester) will be explored. (Balakrishnan, 2008) describes them as internal (residents) and external (visitors and people who have never visited) customers.

1.2 The research need

According to Moilanen and Rainisto (2009) there are more than 300 cities in the world and more than 500 regions and 100,000 various communities in Europe aiming to distinguish themselves from competitors and developing appropriate promotion initiatives. In terms of place, branding helps to differentiate and promote the place as well as compete with other places (Bennett and Savani, 2003), enhance civic pride if used effectively (Williams, 1994). Very often post-industrial cities use branding to re-launch themselves. Williams (1994) claims that "cities have lost their sense of industrial identity" and are "taking lessons from the growing success of national branding". Bennett and Savani (2003) cite West (1997) that "almost every" major post-industrial town or city in Britain (e. g., Manchester, Leeds or Newcastle), "…has attempted to reinvent or reposition itself by adopting marketing techniques lifted straight from the brand manager's handbook". However, this does not mean that all such attempts are successful and achieve desired results. Thus, there is growing need for the evaluation of branding initiatives for places including cities. It has become important to measure and justify the effectiveness of such activities. Analysis of perceptions may not only reveal opinions of public but it may also indicate areas for improvement.

Over recent years, businesses as well as cities have recognised the importance of intangible assets in addition to their functional features. In other words, understanding what products (services) mean to customers is as important as what they can do for them. According to literature, the most common measurement for the branding of companies is financial value. However, Haigh (2007) states that investors account for only under 25% of a business as tangible assets, while intangible assets represent 75%. The measurement of place branding is more complex because of the intangible variables. The large number and changing nature of variables in branding makes this task even more difficult. One event, such as riots (e. g., the Oldham riots in North Manchester in 2001 or riots in Manchester in 2011) can dramatically change people's perceptions over night. Furthermore, according to Balakrishnan (2009) "a destination brand name is an intangible asset with unique attributes and must be protected and managed strategically to maximize value". More too, places are continuously developing and, as discussed earlier, are looking for innovative ways to express themselves and inform the world, with branding being one of them. In both cases, corporate and place branding evaluation should inform its developers whether it is successful enough which then would help to decide on future strategies. Haigh (2007) describes the branding process as "the transformation of essentially functional assets into relationship assets by providing the basis for a psychological connection between the brand and the customer". This relationship is particularly important when it comes to place branding and is the topic of this thesis. Furthermore, Rainisto (2003) claims "in order for the branding in place marketing to succeed, branding must be the responsibility of the top management and involve all the levels and stakeholders of a place".

There is a growing body of literature on place branding (Hankinson, 2001, 2004; Rainisto, 2003; Trueman *et al.,* 2004; Moilanen and Rainisto, 2009; etc.). Zenker (2011) summarised examples of place brand studies between 2005 and 2010 in Appendix D. Nevertheless, further empirical research and critical discussion is needed to support the place branding approach. "Despite an expanding body of literature, however, very little has been written about how place marketing and in particular the branding of places, should be managed" (Hankinson, 2007). Back in 2001, Hankinson (2001) revealed that there were relatively few articles to be found in the academic literature with regard to the promotion of locations as brands, however, he noted evidence that at least a concept of branding was increasingly applied to locations. According to Tasci and Kozak (2005) research on destination branding has been given insufficient attention to date, "knowledge of destination branding remains poorly understood and is often misunderstood by practitioners" (Blain *et al.,* 2005). Cai (2002) claims that branding is expanding into tourist destinations but it is not examined as much in destination marketing in general. Hankinson (2005) supports this claim by stating that the majority of the academic destination branding literature is about leisure tourism and investigation into the branding of places in relation to business tourism (travel associated with attendance at meetings, conferences, exhibitions and events) is lacking. However, Bilim and Bilim (2014) argue that "application of branding techniques to places, especially to tourism destinations is still new". Trueman *et. al.* (2004) suggest that further work is needed to test the application of branding concepts to different cities. Moreover, there is no single universal accepted definition for place branding (Hankinson, 2001; Kavaratzis and Ashworth, 2005). Balakrishnan (2008) suggests that more research could be done on understanding "how a government can take onus for its population and the impact they have on key drivers like tourism and business". According to Balakrishnan (2009), there is limited academic literature on processes involved for successful destination branding. To help cities with their branding strategies, a survey tool on customer perceptions could be developed (Balakrishnan, 2008). According to Zenker (2011) "complexity of place brands" is often ignored and there is a lack of "conceptualization of a place brand that employs different measurement approaches for the different elements of the brand" while Ofori (2010) stresses the importance of determination of the brand identity and stakeholder involvement in this process.

Despite the existing literature, there is sparse guidance on how to create an evaluative framework for place brand, therefore the success or failure of a brand is generally left open to interpretation. There are some branding models presented in academic papers (for example, see de Chernatony and McWilliam, 1989; Cai, 2002; Hankinson, 2004; Trueman *et al.*, 2004; Virgo and de Chernatony, 2005; Tasci and Kozak, 2006; Merrilees *et al.*, 2007; Balakrishnan, 2009; Ofori, 2010; Zenker, 2011; Hanna and Rowley, 2011), however, these are mostly development and descriptive models or focused on certain branding stage, and there is generally no one comprehensive and universally accepted model. Hanna and Rowley (2011) argue that the existing place branding models are not versatile or widely used and they "take different perspectives on the branding process – respectively, relationship management, communications, and strategic planning". Thus, there is a lack of a coherent model to evaluate place brands – this is the focus of this research. Furthermore, it is not clear what to measure (which variables) when analysing branding; the existing models do not provide such suggestions. Branding initiatives are currently based on open criticism and do not relate back to their original objectives. People have their perceptions about places and their brands but there is no formal guidance how to capture them, what influences them and what are the criteria for their judgement. Therefore, a tool is needed to help understand people's judgement. Furthermore, authors describing branding examples (section 3.3) do not propose clear methodologies on how to evaluate success of branding initiatives; they do not evaluate if brands have achieved their aims, for example, City Brand Index developed by Anholt (n. d.) ranks cities based on people's perceptions or Matlovicova, K. and Kormanikova, J. (2014) analysed image of Prague by comparing perceptions of experts (specialists in place branding and marketing) and non-experts (general public from neighbouring countries). Hence there is a need for comprehensive evaluative framework for place brand.

Today, cities, regions and even countries across the world have their own strategies for the development of their marketing campaigns in order to increase competitive advantage but very often their success is being judged by public or media. Examples provided in Chapter 3 clearly demonstrate this, for example Danish city Randers (anti-branding logo was produced as the outcome of misunderstanding between citizens and Municipality about brand values and personality). In contrast to Randers, New Zealand and New York seem to have long-lasting and very strong brands that are known worldwide. With regards to Manchester, it has changed radically throughout the decades and has developed so many different branding initiatives (as mentioned in section 1.1), nowadays discrepancies exist between its actual and conceived, communicated and conceived identities (Ofori, 2010) and in particular is a complex case. New York or Coca-Cola, for example, have successful, long-lasting and well-known brands with only minor changes throughout years, whilst Manchester has still not found its base yet.

The latest branding campaign and the strategy for Greater Manchester at the time (AGMA, n. d.) did not seem to be aligned, although both of them were aimed at increasing attraction and popularity. According to this strategy, Manchester had to be "a world-class city-region at the heart of a thriving North West". AGMA argued that "the people of Greater Manchester are at the heart of the Vision because it is their skills, energies and commitment to the place that are the principal resource to drive forward a vision of future prosperity". This vision was reviewed in response to global economic changes and amended accordingly saying that "by 2020, the Manchester city-region will have pioneered a new model for sustainable economic growth based around a more connected, talented and greener city region, where all our residents are able to contribute to and benefit from sustained prosperity" (Marketing Manchester, 2013). Notwithstanding, Mancunians were not asked how they wanted Manchester to be presented to the world. According to Ofori (2010) perception study was carried out in 2003 with the aim to identify Manchester's brand identity as a result of which seven identity attributes were highlighted and values distilled, based on these brand vision was created. However, people appear to be unaware of such study; moreover, they were not involved in the process of deciding on Manchester brand or designing its vision and signifier. According to Merrilees *et al.* (2007) residents' perspectives on the place where they live have been overlooked in literature as well. Although the new vision seems to be focused on people, the question still arises whether people really matter. "People are a key driver of services and destination marketing and brand perception" (Balakrishnan, 2008). Furthermore, the signifier "M" and summing up device "original modern" is open to much criticism (see Chapter 2). So the question is, do people see Manchester as a brand and do they accept it? What are their perceptions of Manchester as a brand and concept "original modern" along multi-coloured "M"? Is there a way to find out? Can the success of this branding initiative be measured? Finally, how this can be achieved? According to Bennett and Savani (2003) brand image acceptable to one group of stakeholders (e. g., business investors) might be not understood by others (e. g., residents). How this problem can be solved?

Previous sections discussed a growing number of various place branding models highlighting a lack of comprehensive model for place brand evaluation as well as sparse guidance on how to create such model. Only most recent models incorporate dimension of "brand evaluation", for example, in model of destination brand (Tasci and Kozak, 2006) but has vision missing, branding strategy model (Balakrishnan, 2009) but it is strategy oriented framework showing various relationships between brand elements rather than evaluative framework, identity communication framework (Ofori, 2010) or brand-management model (Hanna and Rowley, 2011); Zenker (2011) stressed the importance of appropriate measurement approaches and gave an insight what elements could be measured and what kind of dimensions could be used along three approaches to measure them, but did not apply it in practice. Further, Zenker (2011) highlighted that "insufficient agreement about what should comprise a place brand measurement" still exists despite all the accumulated knowledge. Hanna and Rowley (2011, 2013) tested their model and suggested that further research is needed, for example on place brand evaluation measures. This research will propose what should comprise place brand measurement and present an evaluative framework with lists of possible elements to consider. It is anticipated that place brand evaluation framework will help to address the plethora of rhetorical questions raised. It will build on findings from literature review and will be based on key components for destination branding described by Balakrishnan (2008) incorporating vision, brand elements and people's perceptions; framework will adapt place brand element grouping suggested by Hankinson (2004) and vision components as suggested by Balakrishnan (2009) and combine characteristics of amenity and perceptions as suggested by Ashworth and Voogd (1990). Unlike place branding models mentioned above, evaluative framework will be designed to provide guidance for brand assessment aiding practitioners in place brand creation and development processes. The brand evaluation framework could be used by practitioners be it place governors, brand developers, representatives, clients or designers, etc. and it is up to the framework user to decide what qualitative value they would regards as success. Moreover, existing place branding models measure perceptions of people but they do not involve them in the evaluation and validation processes. Framework will be designed to provide a list of potential brand components that can be amended to suit a particular situation. Indication of inconsistency between the vision, brand itself and people's perceptions will give an opportunity to analyse what and why is "not working"; the consistency will also reflect the degree of success and recognition. This will close the gap in the knowledge and contribute to the literature. The researcher believes that this study will help anyone involved in decision making relating to place branding to comprehensively analyse existing initiatives and better understand their strengths and weaknesses and develop more targeted campaigns in the future avoiding anti-branding campaigns as, for example, it happened with logo of Randers. It should help to establish whether people performing different roles in the place (e. g., living or visiting, never visited) have the same understanding about the brand.

This research investigation aims to understand the nature of place branding and its success and close the gap which becomes apparent in chapters 2 and 3. Furthermore, this research aims to identify key attributes influencing place brand perceptions. Thus this study will define elements impacting place brand perceptions and test them on Manchester explaining the branding attitudes that general public have of Manchester and comparing them with official vision for the city.

The following sections provide an overview of the structure of this thesis and a summary of the chapters that make up this research investigation.

1.3 Aims and objectives of the study

Despite the existing literature, success or failure of the place brand is often based on criticism and interpretation as previously discussed. Therefore the aim of this thesis is to understand the success of place branding phenomenon and investigate how place brand can be evaluated.

In doing so, the following objectives will be addressed: -

- Understand success of place branding phenomenon and investigate the need for its evaluation.
- Explore how success is determined for existing place brands and review models used for place brand evaluation.
- Develop and implement an appropriate research methodology to undertake this study.
- Develop a framework enabling place brand evaluation.
- Test evaluative framework by applying it to Manchester.
- Investigate the value of the place brand evaluation framework and provide recommendations.

Figure 1.1 reflects the links between the research objectives and research methods used to achieve them.

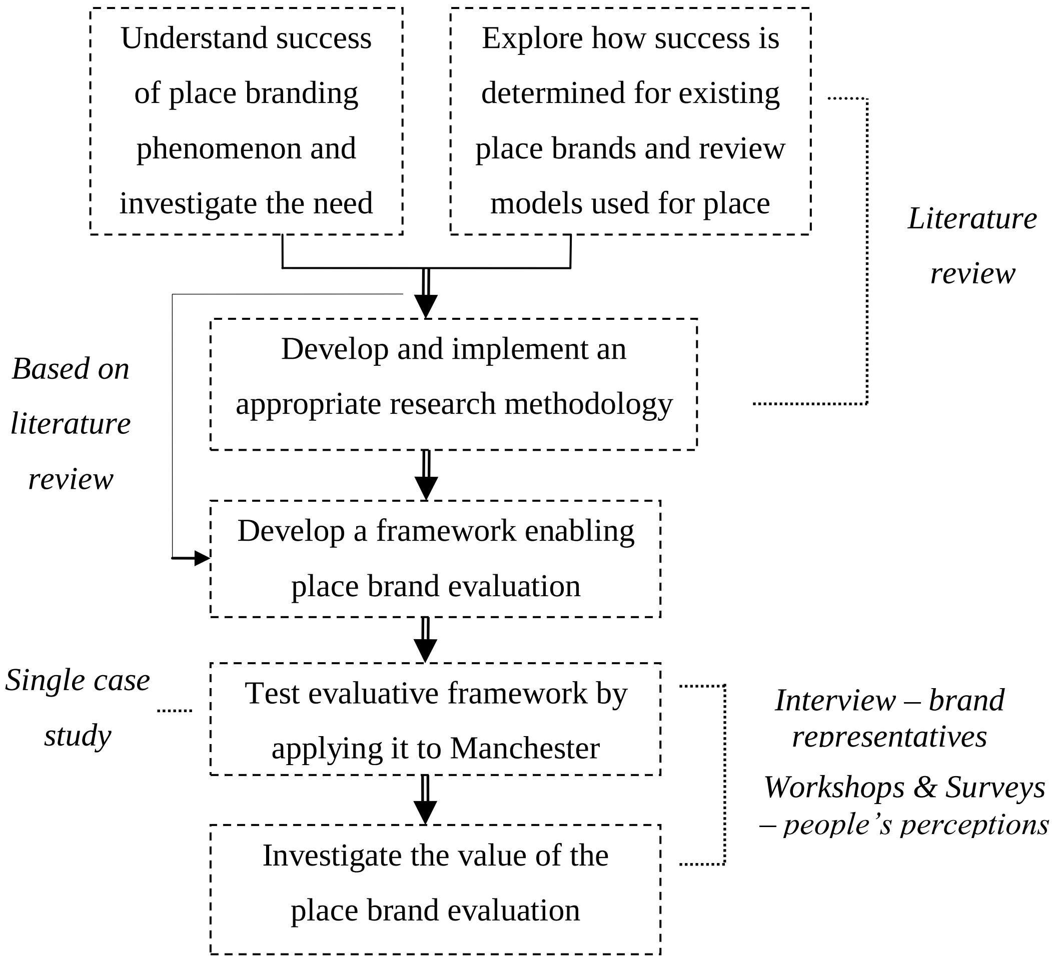


Figure 1.1 Link between research objectives and research methods

1.4 Outline research design

"A research design is the logic that links the data to be collected (and the conclusions to be drawn) to the initial questions of study" (Yin, 2003). Research design, according to Cavana *et al.* (2001), involves a series of rational decision-making choices. An outline research design was developed for this research in order to meet the objectives outlined in section 1.3 (see Figure 1.2.) detailing the activities to be undertaken during this investigation. There are obviously some common steps in different research projects. Various factors including nature of research, aims and objectives determine the most appropriate methodology which then influences selection of methods for data collection and analysis etc.

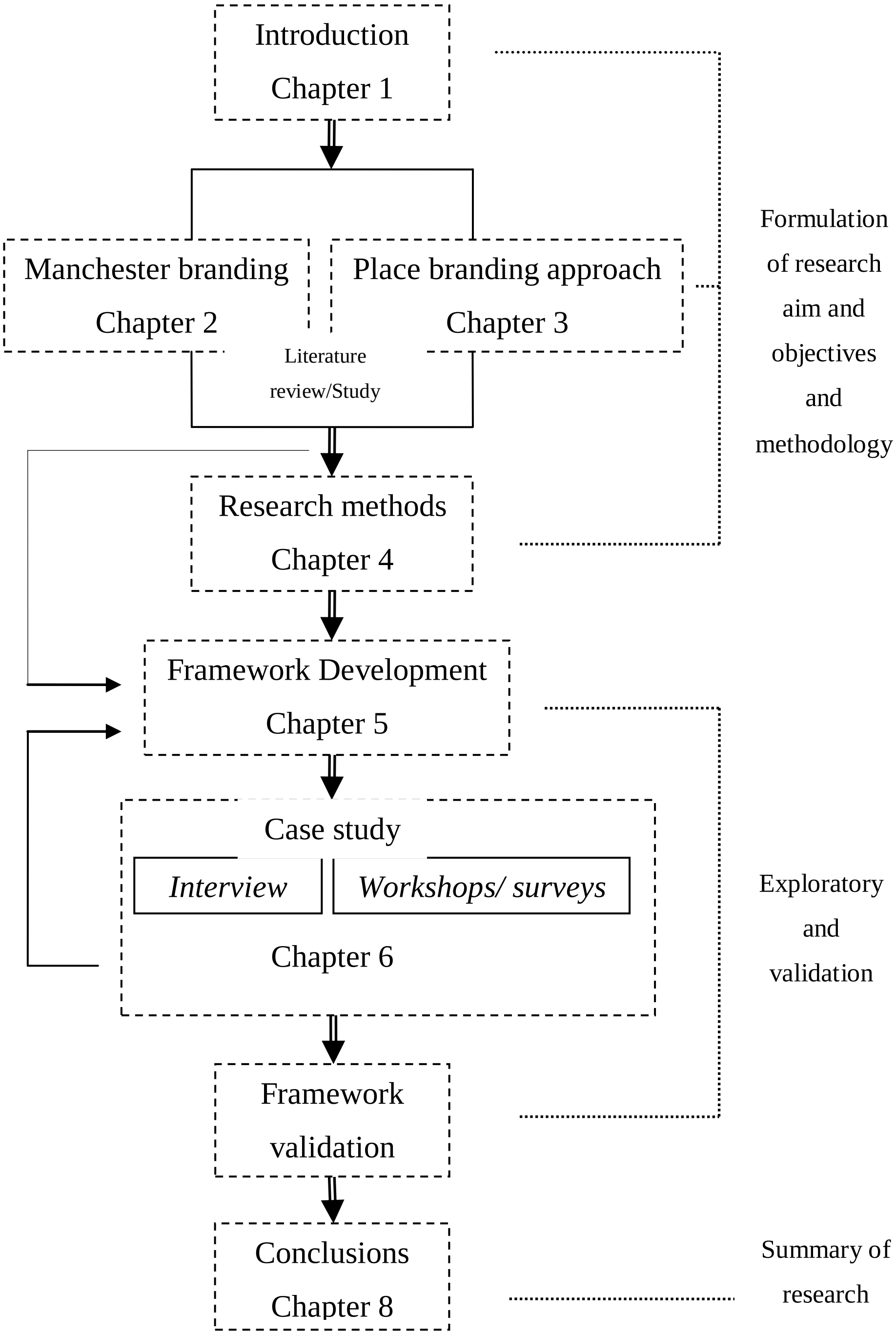


Figure 1.2 Research design

It was clear from the beginning that the relevant literature should be investigated during the research process in order to support of the research aim. Review of both the history and branding initiatives of Manchester will be undertaken (Chapter 2). The nature and scope of branding activities of towns and cities in literature will be considered along branding models and any issues that arise (Chapter 3). A research methodology will be developed justifying the methodological choices for this research: qualitative single case study research and collection of empirical data will be described; analysis and interpretation of the data will be discussed (Chapter 4). Following this, the literature reviews will be used to develop an evaluative framework for place branding (Chapter 5). Empirical data collection is to be carried out using interviews and workshops/ surveys (Chapter 6) and the validity of the framework using data from the single case study to be discussed (Chapter 7). Finally, results as well as limitations and future direction will be outlined (Chapter 8).

1.4.1 Structure of the thesis

Each chapter in the research design, as highlighted in Figure 1.2, is briefly described below: -

• Chapter 1: Introduction

Introduces the topic of place branding and provides an overview of the issues related to place branding; also discusses the research need, aims and objectives of this investigation and describes research design.

• Chapter 2: Manchester

Reviews Manchester: relevant historical facts and branding initiatives, also the topic of knowledge city; examines the latest branding campaign for Manchester justifying the need for the evaluation such initiatives.

• Chapter 3: Place branding

Defines place marketing and branding, also product branding detecting similarities with place branding; provides examples of branding initiatives in other places; reviews and analyses current models in the field of place branding and affirms the research gap.

• Chapter 4: Research methodology

Outlines the research strategy applied and methodology undertaken in this thesis; includes interviews and workshop/ survey methodologies.

Describes and justifies a single case study approach that will be used to validate the developed framework.

• Chapter 5: Evaluative framework for place branding

Develops an evaluative framework to assess the effectiveness of the implemented branding initiative for the place.

• Chapter 6: Case Study

Applies the developed brand evaluation framework to the context of a single case study, Manchester.

• Chapter 7: Discussion and analysis (Framework validation)

Discusses the applicability and relevance of the proposed framework; validates its effectiveness in terms of the research objectives.

• Chapter 8: Conclusion and recommendations for future work

Summarises the work undertaken in this thesis providing limitations and recommendations for future work.

• Appendices

Provides additional detailed information related to the research, where their inclusion in the main body of text in the thesis would have disrupted the flow of information.

1.5 Conclusions

This chapter provides an overview of the research area of this thesis. The first step in this research is to understand place branding phenomenon and its success. Secondly, the research tries to identify if and how the effectiveness of the branding strategies can be measured. The research focus has been described including case location, main target groups, theoretical position and methodology justified in Section 1.1. The importance of place branding was also highlighted. Section 1.2 discussed the research need identifying gaps in existing research in the area. This then led to the development of evaluative framework for place branding which will contribute to the existing knowledge. Aims and objectives are pointed out in Section 1.3. The final part of this chapter summarized an outline research design which will be followed in the course of research. The next chapter will describe Manchester and will review its branding initiatives as well as will investigate the topic of knowledge.

CHAPTER 2: MANCHESTER

2.1 Introduction

Cities are attractive for people to live for a number of reasons including proximity, a varied labour market, rich mix of opportunities, high-skill and knowledge-intensive activities. According to Westwood and Nathan (2002), half the world's population live in urban areas, and in Western countries, the figure is even higher, around 70 to 80 percent.

Manchester in the UK is one such city. I have chosen it for my research because of its uniqueness. I moved to the area in spring of 2006 and ever since have been fascinated by its growing changes and mixed perceptions that ensue. Formerly, it has been famous for its cotton and engineering industries, but more recently has undergone an extensive process of regeneration and transformation from industry towards science-based, creative industries and services (Georghiou and Harper, 2003). Ambitious plans for the future are reflected in Manchester's vision which declares that "by 2020, the Manchester city-region will have pioneered a new model for sustainable economic growth based around a more connected, talented and greener city region, where all our residents are able to contribute to and benefit from sustained prosperity" (Marketing Manchester, 2013).

The purpose of this chapter is to describe Manchester's branding initiatives. Manchester is a particularly good example of how city branding has developed from the 19th century when it was well known first as an industrial city. Since the Second World War it has been through economic doldrums and de-industrialisation, so there was a need to build a new image. However, creating a brand identity for such a diverse city as Manchester is not an easy task; in fact, it is a complicated exercise for any city (Manchester Primer, 2002).

Recent literature review on city's history and its development towards knowledge city is presented in this chapter, as well as trends and possibilities of Manchester city-region emerging as the Ideopolis. The chapter also describes knowledge city concept and analyses knowledge based criteria already in place within Manchester.

2.1.1 Common terms

There is a wide range of terms used to refer to Manchester in the literature; these dialogs are presented in Table 2.1 and will be used as a common baseline for this thesis.

Table 2.1 Common terms used to refer to Manchester

Ideopolis	An Ideopolis is a sustainable knowledge intensive city that drives growth in the wider city-region (Williams *et al.*, 2006); Garcia (2004) describes it as a city of ideas and inclusive communities.
Knowledge city	Knowledge city is a learning city driven by knowledge production (Westwood and Nathan, 2002).
Knowledge economy	The Work Foundation suggested probably the most helpful definition; it defines the knowledge economy as “the share of national income and employment produced by innovating organisations combining ICT and highly skilled labour to exploit global scientific, technological and creative knowledge networks” (Brinkley, 2006).
Manchester	Manchester is frequently used as shorthand to refer to the Manchester conurbation (Williams *et al.*, 2006).
The city of Manchester	This is the administrative area covered by Manchester City Council which is broadly the city centre and much of the urban areas to the south and includes key economic assets such as the HEIs and Manchester Airport with a population of approximately 440,000 people (Westwood and Nathan, 2002).
Manchester City Council	“Manchester City Council is the local authority with the highest density of business and higher education activity within the Greater Manchester area” (Williams *et al.*, 2006).
Greater Manchester	The Greater Manchester (Figure 2.1) conurbation covers 1,286 square kilometres of land (Westwood and Nathan, 2002) and is

	made up of the ten local authorities that are currently included in the Association of Greater Manchester Authorities (AGMA). These are: • Bolton MBC • Bury MBC • Manchester CC • Oldham MBC • Rochdale MBC • Salford CC • Stockport MBC • Tameside MBC • Trafford MBC • Wigan MBC Around 2.6 million people live within the boundaries of Greater Manchester authorities (Williams *et al.,* 2006; Westwood and Nathan, 2002).
City-region	"A city-region is the economic footprint of a city – the area over which key economic markets (such as labour markets measured by travel to work areas; housing markets and leisure/retail markets) operate; city-regions include the whole area from which the core urban area draws people for work and services" (Williams *et al.,* 2006). City-region can also be defined as "the enlarged territories from which core urban areas draw people for work and services such as shopping, education, health, leisure and entertainment" (A Framework for City-Regions, 2006).
Manchester City-region	"Manchester city-region refers to the economic footprint of Manchester: this includes the geographic areas covered by the Greater Manchester authorities as well as other areas with functional links to Manchester" (Williams *et al.*, 2006).

Figure 2.1 Greater Manchester map (Jackson, 2013)

2.2 The history of Manchester explained through its branding approaches

Manchester is situated in the North West of the UK, and due to its global popularity it is sometimes regarded as the country's second city after London, although Birmingham is in fact the UK's second largest city in terms of size. Manchester has been known as a centre of engineering and manufacture: it was the hub of cotton industry, it is the place where Mr Rolls and Mr Royce met before founding Rolls Royce cars; it houses the world's oldest commercial railway line between Manchester to Liverpool; and the world's first storage program computer was created at Manchester University in 1948 (Sarson, 2005). In cultural and sporting terms, it is home to the first public library, the longest established symphony orchestra in the Hallè in the UK, music groups such as Joy Division or the Smiths, hosted the Commonwealth Games in 2002 and has two major football teams. One of these is the internationally famous Manchester United. Today, Manchester is re-born from the former industrial city and is dominated now mainly by financial and professional services (Emmerich (2013), Memmott (2013) and Rooth (2013a)), sport, broadcasting and education. In fact, according to Emmerich (2013), Manchester's economy was driven by the financial and professional services since 1990s. In addition to these, New Economy (2014) lists business, health and social care, creative and digital and advanced manufacturing as key sectors in Manchester.

Manchester was known as village before the industrial revolution as it “consisted only of small settlements around Deansgate, the Cathedral and some smart houses in Chorlton-on-Medlock” (Taylor, 2008). Nevertheless Daniel Defoe, according to Taylor (2008), in 1720s described Manchester as “the greatest meer village in England”. This village expanded rapidly into the city and now, according to Donohue (2011) and Rooth (2013a), is the third most visited (807,000 international visitors in 2010) city in the UK after London and Edinburgh and has “third largest retail offer”. Sir Bernstein (2013) suggests that Manchester “can complement the capital” of the UK.

2.2.1 Manchester – industrial city

Manchester was known as a city of industry from 1840s till 1920s. An influx of entrepreneurs and cheap labour, transportation of raw materials and finished goods through the canal system (the first industrial canal with the Bridgewater was built in 1762, Manchester Ship canal opened in 1894) or railways (Manchester-Liverpool railway opened in 1830), all this helped to transform Manchester from a village to town in 1838 and Manchester even became one “of the commercial capitals of Europe” (Briggs, 1963). Manchester was one of the great “power-capitals of the Industrial Revolution” (Shaughnessy, 2004). The growth of industry contributed to a significant growth of population from 15,000 to 70,000 in the second half of the eighteen century and to 90,000 by 1800 (Glinert, 2008); the population in 1831 had increased nearly six times in sixty years (Briggs, 1963). At the turn of the twentieth century, Manchester had more manufacturing company headquarters in comparison to any other British city (Peck and Ward, 2002). The development of industries like engineering, manufacturing, machine tool making and chemicals supported the formation of a cotton textile industry.

Manchester became a main industrial city in the world and contributed to the development of the global economy in the nineteenth to early twentieth century (Dicken, 2002). Manchester was then one of the ten largest cities in the world after London, New York, Paris, Berlin, Chicago, Philadelphia, Tokyo, Viena and

St. Petersburg (King, 1990). Thanks to its cotton production and hard working workers like “busy bees”, the bee was adopted as symbol of Manchester (The Arms of the City of Manchester, 2005). Its emblem is still embedded in mosaics all over the floor, pillars and walls of the Town Hall (built in 1887), benches and metal bollards across the city centre (Figure 2.2). This was perhaps the first attempt to symbolize the city. The city’s motto at the time was “concilio et labore” in Latin (The Arms of the City of Manchester, 2005), which is interpreted by some as “by wisdom and effort" (Wikipedia) or “integrity and industry” by others (Manchester Bees, 2009).

Manchester was not only dominating world economy, it also had a vibrant cultural life. The famous Halle Orchestra was founded by Charles Halle, one of the migrants from continental Europe, in 1858 and remains today the oldest professional symphony orchestra in Britain (Dicken, 2000). Victorian architecture is a symbol of growth and power period. Hetherington (2004) states that the city was represented, in particular, through its neo-classical or gothic civic and municipal buildings at the time, one of which is the Town Hall, a monument of civic pride (see Section 2.2.6).

Figure 2.2 Emblems of bee on metal bollards and benches in Manchester city centre

2.2.2 Manchester in decline

From the 1930s traditional industries went into decline and Manchester became the city of grime; it lasted till the 1980s. The paintings of L. S Lowry (Figure 2.3), Walter Greenwood's novel "Love on the Dole" (about working class poverty in 1930s in Northern England), and since the late 1950s the popular television soap of working class life "Coronation Street" (Hetherington, 2004) represent relevant images of Manchester. The impact of de-industrialisation and decline was particularly notable in the 1960s and 70s, it was reflected by high unemployment, empty mills and factories, and redundant infrastructure.

Figure 2.3 The River Bank, painting by L. S. Lowry, 1947

Nevertheless, the CIS (Co-operative Insurance Solar) tower was built in 1962, the tallest office building outside London at the time. Later it was covered by solar panels and became the largest solar project in the UK. This iconic building can be seen as representing not only the Co-operative group, but Manchester as well, especially since the co-operate movement started in Rochdale in 1844.

2.2.3 Manchester in the 1980's

After the economic doldrums, Manchester has been undergoing an extensive process of urban regeneration. Major renovation projects started during the early 1980s in the city centre along expansion of the airport, early development of the Castlefield area, creation of the G-MEX centre (now known as Manchester Central Convention Centre), and planned Metrolink. According to Hetherington (2004), regeneration typically involved demolishing and rebuilding (such as Castlefield, East Manchester and Hulme areas) or renovating as well as transforming (such as Ancoats). Since the late 1980s, Manchester had more flagship projects like The Bridgewater Concert Hall, The Manchester Evening

News Arena (now Manchester Arena), Urbis, The Lowry Centre in Salford and The Imperial War museum in Trafford (Quillley, 2000). In 1988, “a key element of Manchester’s new-found, pro-growth strategy was the promotion and development of the city centre area” (Loftman and Nevin, 1996) including quality architecture and outdoor art. This was intended to contribute to promoting Manchester as an international centre for business and tourism.

In the 1980s, Manchester was also well known as a music industry city with its chart topping hits (Oasis started here and other well known bands like Joy division, The Smiths, Happy Mondays). Manchester was called the music and night-club capital of the world with the Anthony Wilson’s, a broadcaster and co-founder of Factory Records (started in 1978 and became the most influential alternative record label), founded Hacienda nightclub (opened in 1982) and the Dry Bar, which together formed a central part of the music and cultural heart of Manchester.

In the 1980s, Manchester tried to redefine itself and change its image as well as negative public perceptions with an intention of employment creation and economic growth. Manchester has been declared as "A Nuclear Free City" for years (after Manchester City Council declared a resolution in November 1980 about the City as a nuclear free zone) in response to “Cold War” issues; this was embodied in logo with white pigeon in blue background (Figure 2.4).

Figure 2.4 Logo for "A Nuclear Free City" in 1980

In the 1980s, Manchester’s aspirations to become an international centre of sport and leisure started with competition in 1986 with Sheffield to host the World Student Games (Loftman and Nevin, 1996), but were unsuccessful.

2.2.4 Manchester in 1990's

A key event in the regeneration process was the IRA bomb explosion in the city centre in June 1996. As a result of this the city's commercial infrastructure was disrupted; however this disturbance inspired an ambitious rebuilding scheme, which also included facilities for the Commonwealth Game's and innovative millennium design projects (Cooper, 2004; Sarson, 2005; Hetherington, 2004). Since then, Manchester has been, and is, undergoing enormous urban regeneration programmes which according to Hetherington (2004) involve adding new elements to the infrastructure (a tram system), redeveloping areas in decline (Salford Keys, East Manchester, Hulme), a large out of town shopping mall (Trafford centre), theatres with galleries (The Lowry centre), expanding the airport, rebuilding old industrial areas (Castlefield), loft conversions, waterside housing developments, new luxury city centre apartments, cafes, restaurants, etc. It is worth mentioning that prior to this, in the 1991, the city of Manchester tried to re-brand itself as “The Life and Soul of Britain” emphasising vitality, energy and youth culture (Bramwell and Rawding, 1996).

Manchester was thought to be the “Olympic city” according to Loftman and Nevin (1996). Herstein and Berger (2013) argue that sport events appeal to many audiences thus they assist in re-branding of the city and promote a city image, for example, Athens, Beijing, London, Seoul or Barcelona. Around the 1990s, Manchester started bidding to host the 1996 Olympic Games, and then the 2000 Summer Olympics with intention to build a stadium in east Manchester and had designed a logo (Figure 2.5). Unfortunately, both attempts were unsuccessful. Manchester's global reputation (including as a sport city) was enhanced much later, after the success of the Commonwealth Games in 2002 (Figure 2.5). According to Manchester City Council (n. d.), in the 4 years after hosting the Commonwealth Games, Manchester attracted around £2 billion of private sector investment that created 45,000 jobs.

Figure 2.5 Logos for 2000 Summer Olympics (Wikipedia, n. d. (a)) and 2002 Commonwealth Games (Wikipedia, n. d. (b))

After the 1987 general election, Manchester City Council began working with new agencies created by central government (Ward, 2000) involving the private sector in regeneration especially at the beginning of 1990s. As a result, Marketing Manchester was set up as a limited company in 1995 to “sell” Manchester which launched the red and blue slogan “we're up and going” (Figure 2.6) on 15th of May 1997. It was created at a cost of £2.5 m (O’Rourke, 1997) and was intended to represent the city to the world. Despite this, the McEnroe group (named after the tennis player’s famous phrase “You cannot be serious”) (Shaughnessy, 2004), a group of around 35 young entrepreneurial people, dismissed this legendary campaign. This group argued that the logo and slogan fell short of the “international” standards, the typographic design of the campaign lacked “vitality and panache”, finally the campaign failed to reflect the energy of the city (Ward, 2000).

Figure 2.6 Manchester logo launched by Marketing Manchester in May 1997 (O’Rourke, 1997)

As a result, the McEnroe Group launched their own campaign to represent Manchester on the international level; it consisted of two elements on the banners: “Revolution” and “Made in Manchester”. A ten point asterisk with words “Made in Manchester” (Figure 2.7) symbolized the ten boroughs of Greater Manchester and which, according to McEnroe Group, reflected the image of the city better than “We’re up and going”. It was launched on the 16th of July 1997. The McEnroe Group soon broke up due to internal disputes following which politicians were called to reconsider the role of Marketing Manchester (Ward, 2000).

Figure 2.7 Logo for Manchester launched by McEnroe group in July 1997 (O’Rourke, 1997)

2.2.4.1 Manchester in late 1990s

In 1998, “The Manchester Identity” was commissioned by Marketing Manchester and created by Hemisphere Design and Marketing Consultants; following this The Manchester Primer was designed by Hemisphere Design in February, 2002. The Manchester Identity was created of the set of rules to distinct Manchester from other cities, embody “the Mancunian spirit, the essence of Manc or MCR or Cottonopolis” and finally reflect its “skill at merging the old and the new, from Stockport’s towering railway viaduct to the new, organic form of Urbis” (Manchester Primer, 2002). There was a toolkit presented guiding what font, colour, imagery and geometry to use in order to achieve the right image. For headlines and titles it was recommended to use normal and italics font with lower case “m” and the “st” (Figure 2.8). “Greater Manchester” should have been used rarely and it was not recommended to use it in headlines with reference to Manchester Primer (2002), which also proposed an extensive palette of colours explaining the use of some of them (bright colours like orange, lime or gold are used to invite public to enjoy the city while darker colours like purple, dark blue or forest green for business-like activities). Also images (Figure 2.8), according to the same source, were to be chosen not standard tourism-type but more iconic and reflecting regeneration or vibrancy as well as dynamics.

Figure 2.8 Manchester Pocket Guide: commissioned by Manchester City Council Marketing & Visitor Services, designed by Hemisphere (Manchester Primer, 2002)

The Manchester 2002 colour palette comparing to Manchester palette is brighter and has higher profile, e.g. Commonwealth Games 2002 logo (Figure 2.5 above), however it has a potential to choose your own. This certainly creates more opportunities for various interpretations but it may also have adverse effect on the logo and place brand.

2.2.5 Modern day Manchester

In March 2004, Peter Saville – McEnroe group member, co-founder of Factory Records and designer of record sleeves for the bands Joy Division, New Order and others - was commissioned by the city council to come up with an idea of marketing Manchester to the world (Ottewell, 2004). The outcomes of this commission were introduced in press in 2004 and launched by Manchester City Council during the 2006 Labour Party Annual Conference in Manchester. Saville came up with the summing up device "original modern" and introduced the new signifier “M” for the city which appears to be five overlaid M’s of different colors (Figure 2.9). Designer (Saville, 2009) sees his role in Manchester as “what the city does and how it does it, how it (Manchester) is understood for it is doing”. The signifier is used for national and international communications but it is not a formal logo whereas concept “original modern” in “only used within the city as an ethos to guide those promoting the city”, “it’s not a slogan” and “it’s not a strap-line” (Ofori, 2010). Further, it appears that Manchester is the brand; according to

Chakrabortty (2011) “Manchester is the city that tried to turn itself around by turning itself into a brand”.

Peter Saville (Saville, 2009) explains that “the brand of the place is determined and broken by what that place is doing” by adding that “to a great extent it does not really matter what they look like if they are doing something important”. According to the designer (Saville, 2009) “cities and states do not need logotypes, there is nowhere to put a city logo”; further, he does not see a place brand as a commercial product that can be re-designed and re-shaped and therefore does not support the use of traditional brochures, literature or adverts in order to address any deficiencies suggesting “you have to find other ways by which people hear about things” (Saville, 2009). To some extent this narrowly explains why Manchester does not have a formal logo or slogan; instead it has a signifier and summing-up device.

Manchester was named “original modern” for the reason that so many world-conquering innovations were born here. Thinking about it, it makes sense as passenger railways, the splitting of the atom, the computer, powerhouse of industry and the industrial revolution, technical innovation, ground-breaking pop music all started in Manchester. The designer himself, Peter Saville (Saville, 2009) gives very similar explanations of the concept “original modern”: “Manchester was first industrial city and in a way that makes Manchester first modern city and in a way it is converted now into original modern – these are timeless values”. The same author explains further, that “Manchester may not be the prettiest or have best climate, but as a city it can be important”. “It was those values of innovation, originality and modernity upon which the city was founded; those are the values upon which it should strive to express in this century and this is what you give to the world but do not take out of it”; “original modern values are in essence innovation which you can do in education, transport, sustainability, architecture, culture, green spaces”; “it’s about tackling the problems of a now in a way that gives a lead to other places and creates a sense of purpose for yourself” (Saville, 2009). Sir Richard Leese CBE (leader of Manchester city council since 1996) supports the idea of innovation by claiming that “much of our vision is based around innovation" (The Manchester Forward E-Book, 2009). Furthermore, according to O'Rourke (2006), today Manchester has already many exciting innovative world-class projects that can be called "original" and "modern" and spreading the message to the world about Manchester as city of knowledge or a centre of creativity. Examples include the Eastserve project which aims to provide internet access to every household in East Manchester, or the Manchester Digital Development Agency. When talking about "the original modern city" along sports and music, Emmerich (2013), chief executive of New Economy, also talks about innovation economy and "multi-faceted city of the scientific, creative, financial, and professional services". Bramley and Page (2009) claim that "original modern" explains the essence of Manchester and these two words differentiate it from other places across the world; they also demonstrate that Manchester has spirit and the energy that are needed for progress and change, "do something" attitude (Bramley and Page (2009). The same authors call Manchester's people original modern and present formula how to become original modern:

Make a contribution to the city + Introduce a new idea *or*
Be progressive + challenge convention + think global *or*
Be ambitious = *Original Modern*

Marketing Manchester explains the multi-coloured "M" as Manchester's brand signifier where "the coloured strands represent the richness and diversity of the city" (Marketing Manchester, n. d. (b)) as well as people and working together. Marketing Manchester is now responsible for that and has announced the following aims on its website (Marketing Manchester, n. d. (a)):

- Develop the Manchester brand through promotion of the City to focus on the contemporary and traditional strengths of the city-region's culture.
- Increase the interest in, and visitors to, the City, through the creation of a world-class events programme that builds on and strengthens the Manchester brand.
- Position Manchester as a vibrant international destination, which also acts as a gateway to the Northwest and represents an alternative gateway to Britain.

- Ensure that Manchester is further established as one of Europe's leading business destinations.
- Support the enhancement of the tourism product in Greater Manchester through the development of tourism infrastructure.

The same website does not clarify the Manchester brand but explains concept “original modern” as well as the signifier “M”; it also presents in The Manchester Forward E-Book (2009) and The Original Modern E-Book (2009) on what is being created across the city. The website also has a media section as well as separate section about the designer Peter Saville and publishes designer’s talk on his original modern concept. The Original Modern E-Book (2009) reviews focus areas of Manchester:

- Culture including The City of Sport and Manchester International Festival (almost £400 million of public money has been invested in Greater Manchester’s infrastructure over the past decade).
- Quality of life described by the following:
  - Schools (The Building Schools for the Future and Academies Programmes supposed to bring a £500 million capital investment to rebuild, refurbish or replace 33 schools).
  - Better health (£15 million is being invested to improve health facilities and services).
  - Decent home.
  - Reduced crime (crime reduced by 20% in Greater Manchester).
  - Industrial heritage.
  - Manchester is surrounded by three National Parks – Lake District, Peak District and Snowdonia.
  - Retail (retail turnover rose by £300 million/year in the city centre).
- Intelligence:
  - Knowledge economy
  - Biomedical research
  - Innovation including medical innovation
- Business (sectors for Manchester’s economic future):
  - Financial and Professional Services

- Creative, Digital and New Media
- Life Sciences and Healthcare
- Manufacturing
- ICT Digital/ Communications
- Aviation and Manchester Airport
- Business tourism

- Environment including open spaces (in the last 20 years woodland cover has increased by 74% in Greater Manchester), sense of place, St Peter's Square.
- Connectivity including diverse nationalities, digital infrastructure, Manchester Airport, train as well as Metrolink.

The concept "original modern" was implemented in many different forms in Manchester: the original modern lightshow - the words with letters from multi-colour dots "Be Original" and "Be Modern" on both sides of the Bridgewater tunnel beneath Manchester Central (former GMEX centre); neon-like colour bars on a black background on billboard advertisements and other pieces of advertising and promotion. The "M" for Manchester, a new sign, has been visible on the streets of Manchester from 2006 (Figure 2.9).

Figure 2.9 Signifier for Manchester on Oxford Road

The efforts to make Manchester an attractive place to live and work seem to satisfy the purpose in terms of population growth. Between 1951 and 1991, the population of Manchester fell 703,000 to 432,000 (about 39 percent) as a result of decline but since 2000 the population of the city has been growing by 1 percent each year between 2001 and 2006 (State of the City, 2008). Also perceptions of Manchester seem to have improved over recent years, at least Greater Manchester Strategy 2013 states this but acknowledges that there is still a lot to be done.

Hildreth (2010), head of place branding at Saffron Brand Consultants created the European City Brand Barometer and ranked 72 cities, one of them was Manchester. According to this research, Manchester's brand strength (based on being pictorially recognised 25%, quantity/strength of positive/attractive qualities 25%, conversational value 25% and media recognition 25%) is 56 and it is in 25th place together with Glasgow and Marseille; Manchester's asset strength (sightseeing and historical attractions 20%, cuisine and restaurants 15%, easy to get around on foot and public transport 15%, costs very little to enjoy 10%, has good weather 10%, shopping 10%, economic significance or prosperity 20%) is 50 and it shares 25th place with Belfast and Turin. Hildreth (2010) also measured Manchester's brand utilisation (calculated brand strength as a percentage of asset strength) revealing how well Manchester lives up to its brand potential, the score is 89% ensuring 17th place alongside Gdansk, Bristol and Essen. In Anholt's City Brand Index Manchester was ranked to be 29th out of 51 cities in 2011 and 31st out of 51 in 2013 (Marketing Manchester, 2014). Nevertheless, Manchester brand is still vaguely understood and appears to be confusing.

According to Hutton and Lee (2009) Manchester has a distinctive identity along strong economy that gives a base for the development of integrated vision. The new vision for Manchester was created to cover all sectors, be it sport, media, science, healthcare, innovation, culture, professional services and so on. Furthermore, Peter Saville compares the city of Manchester with Manchester United football club in terms of standards (the standards are set up on the rest of the world) (Saville, 2004). It means that Manchester has to achieve world standards as Manchester United does in its play. Saville considers he has done this work accordingly, however critiques exist and will be discussed in the following chapter.

One more remarkable campaign was implemented in Manchester. Following riots on 9 August 2011, “I Love MCR” campaign was launched by Marketing Manchester. According to Linton (2011) this not only attracted people back into Manchester city centre but also boosted local economy. This “post-riot branding” (Did You Like The I Love MCR Post-Riot Branding? 2012) generated a lot of popularity and looks like served the purpose, however it felt like it was a copy of the famous New York brand and probably it was a missed opportunity to come up with a better design. It was even criticized as being “beyond poor” by Sarbutts (2011). This symbol definitely does not represent a city of firsts nor that Manchester is original or modern.

2.2.5.1 Critiques of the “original modern” campaign

“Logos have come, strap lines have gone, but still the challenge remains - how to create a cohesive feel and mood for Manchester that the public will recognize and react to” (Manchester Primer, 2002). Quasi supporting this statement, O’Rourke (2006a) expressed his concerns of whether a logo can sell a city at all and whether the “M” will stick in people’s minds, will make them willing to visit Manchester or do business there. Obviously the slogan could be applied not only to Manchester, but any other city in the UK, Europe or World. Furthermore, “M” could stand not only for Manchester but Macclesfield or Middlesbrough as well. Similarly Oldham was re-branded (at a cost of £150 000) and the new logo with green ring was launched (Figure 2.10) representing “Oldham One” as “a united town of diverse ethnicity” (Kadembo *et al.*, 2010). The problem here again is with graphical representation – the letter “O” is nicely explained as a symbol of unity. Is the logo too simple and basic? One could argue that it sounds like one more ordinary abbreviation; the logo is kind of enforced for the city and does not come out naturally. Can designers come up with something else rather than the first letter of the name of the town? Is it a lack of imagination? Obviously, the same could be said about Manchester.

Figure 2.10 The new logo for Oldham (BBC, 2008)

There are different comments on Manchester's description as "original modern" as well, some of them praising and some of them disparaging it. Any city or town is original and has modern elements. Furthermore, there is a danger in interpreting the word "modern" according to O'Rourke (2006c). "Modern" is associated with recent trends, something that is "up-to-date", "new", "innovative" or from the present time but does not mean that is always better. However, "modern" means innovative and ground-breaking in the context of all time and in all areas. It means that the past remains a part of the present, and a part of the future (O'Rourke, 2006d). As mentioned in section 2.2.4.1, Manchester Primer (2002) already discussed the idea of merging the old with the new and seems to be repeating. On top of this, Leadbeater (2009) states that Manchester was the original modern city in the 19^{th} century with the "combination of thinking, creating and doing" (Leadbeater, 2009). Sarbutts (2011) refers to the concept "original modern" as confusing and raises questions like what "to do with it or about it"; the same author also compared "I Love NY" and "original modern" commenting that "The beauty of I Love NY was that it was a provocative, democratic, enabling idea. Original Modern is a subtle, intellectual wordplay that requires an understanding of 200 years of history and leads nowhere."

The new M sign (Figure 2.9) is visible around Manchester city centre but it seems to contradict Peter Saville's quotation discovered by O'Rourke (2006g) that "the "original modern" and "M" branding will not be released for general use, but will be used "when appropriate" as a "signifier" and on "exemplars". The same is explained on the Marketing Manchester website (Section 2.2.5), so it is not very clear how it contributes to Manchester's promotion and positioning which arguably should be the core objective in any branding initiative. Furthermore, lots of cultural and sporting events are being organized in Manchester with sponsors, flags, banners, posters and other advertising opportunities to promote the city but interesting enough, Manchester’s signifier is currently absent from, for example, the Manchester International Festival website (Manchester International Festival, n. d.) although Marketing Manchester claims that they “facilitate a Manchester’s presence at international events and exhibitions on behalf of organisations across the city, to present a joint showcase of the city region's assets” (Marketing Manchester, n. d. (c)). This fact forces us to think how effectively and memorably the city can be promoted. It also raises the question for what reason the new signifier for Manchester was created. Was this a missed opportunity to represent Manchester to Europe and the World? Similarly as with the concept “original modern” it is not clear what to do with the signifier “M”. Furthermore, Manchester’s signifier is missing on Manchester City Council’s website while the participants of the foresight workshop in March 2010 agreed that Manchester’s promotion needs to be improved (An innovation System for the Manchester City Region, 2011):

- Improve the narrative and commission series which exploits past, present and future;
- Build the narrative around creative, environment, health and life sciences and sport (performance and rehabilitation);
- Encourage shared marketing messages between universities and City to attract and retain students/ graduates.

There are more Manchester M’s currently visible around Manchester city centre which O’Rourke (2006a) has assembled (Figure 2.11). The Greater Manchester Passenger Transport Authorities “computer circuit board” M was designed in the early 70’s and is still in use today, the former MEN Arena (currently Manchester Arena) had a distinctive branding with cleverly arranged initials seen on various signs visible around the city. The Metrolink M was designed prior to 1992 and finally giant stainless steel M’s serve as billboards for advertisement posters around Manchester city centre (O’Rourke, 2006a).

Figure 2.11 Manchester M's captured by O'Rourke (2006a)

Manchester Primer (2002), designed to guide what tools should be used for creating identity of Manchester, explained that colours (variety of them) together with photography can be chosen for different audiences and "use of colours and photography have created a very rich visual style with lots going on - a bit like the city really...". However, Saville's idea seems to be quite similar in terms of using different colours. Furthermore, there is no clear guidance where and how to use this new signifier and summing-up device. Moreover, they are being interpreted as logo and slogan accordingly. Finally, the Manchester brand appears to be obscure and lacks explication leaving room for own interpretations.

2.2.6 Landmark buildings to symbolize Manchester

"Modern" architecture and landmark buildings are also used by various places to symbolise them. According to Selby (2004) places become famous for distinctive buildings, such as Sydney Opera House, the Statue of Liberty or Eiffel Tower. Tall buildings can also be symbols of cities like Petronas Towers in Kuala Lumpur in Malaysia. Selby (2004) argues that "architecture helps to project a distinct image to potential tourists and investors" and "cities with waterfronts and listed buildings are at an advantage". Furthermore, Trueman *et. al.* (2004) argue that even environmental improvements can positively influence value brand of the place, e. g., the new signage and street furniture in Bristol or recent waterfront regeneration and modernisation of Leeds helped to improve perceptions of local community. Iconic buildings reflect status of the place and contribute to the attraction of visitors. Riza *et. al.* (2012) argue that iconic buildings contribute to the city image as well as quality of life and "play a major role in promoting the city and its image".

High rise glass and steel buildings with air conditioning, contemporary apartments with floor to ceiling windows, public spaces with benches, furniture and light fittings are replacing old brick or stone buildings with ornaments, which were modern at the time when just built. According to O'Rourke (2006d) Manchester has allowed much of its unique identity to disappear, but to be "modern" does not mean demolishing old buildings as "old fashioned".

Today Manchester is called a modern 21st century city with its shiny buildings, but lots of buildings (the Town Hall; the Midland Hotel)) and most streets (for example, Market St., Oxford St., Deansgate St. or Whitworth St.) remain relatively unchanged from the 19th century. The Town Hall (Figure 2.12) is perhaps the best known example of a 19th century building symbolising Manchester and its industrial prosperity.

Figure 2.12 Manchester Town Hall and Midland Hotel

The CIS tower was the tallest office building outside London in 1962 and recently became the largest solar project in the UK after it was covered by solar panels; it can be seen as representing the Co-operative group and Manchester as well. This fact suggests that not only newly built tall buildings contribute to regeneration and branding. A timeline of buildings that symbolise Manchester at different periods of history can be drawn: The Town Hall built in 1877 (Figure 2.12), former G-MEX (now Manchester Central Convention Centre) reopened in 1986, CIS Tower built in 1962 (Table 2.2), Urbis built in 2002 (Figure 2.13), Beetham Tower built in 2007 (Figure 2.13) and Nova completed in 2014 (Figure 2.14).

Ian Simpson, designer of the Beetham (Hilton) tower (Figure 2.13) (the 169-metre tall, 47-storey the highest residential accommodation in Western Europe, built in 2006), thinks that this building will change the perception of Manchester from the Victorian city to one that is passionate about its future (O'Rourke, 2006f). However, Tim Evans, a partner and creative director at Sheppard Robson, argues that tall buildings are often an "expression of ego" and they are not very sustainable as costs of the development increase with the height (O'Rourke, 2006f). Peter Saville, the author of the new branding campaign for Manchester, has concerns about the quality of contemporary architectural projects and probably he is right describing graphics and identity as incompetent and inadequate (Sarson, 2005; Taylor, 2004). Furthermore, according to Taylor (2004) people do not think that Manchester has an iconic building as the Eiffel Tower, Sydney Opera House or the Guggenheim Museum in Bilbao.

Figure 2.13 Beetham (Hilton) Tower and Urbis

One more symbolic and important for Manchester building is the six-storey Urbis Centre (Figure 2.13), an exhibition centre located in Cathedral Gardens and is part of the Millennium Quarter. Urbis was built after IRA bomb in 1996 and opened in

2002 and obviously, can be named as a symbol of cultural regeneration as well as example of 21st century architecture which nowadays is hosting different activities including talks, tours, workshops, etc.

It is worth mentioning the recently built symbolic building NOMA – "the new Co-op Quarter" (Donohue, 2011) (Figure 2.14) described as "the greenest building in the world" (Green Intelligence, 2013) with environmental features like renewable power, rainwater recycling, heat recovery, low flow water appliances, energy-efficient lifts and innovative insulation system allowing ventilation in the summer. This building is kind of symbol of the "green revolution" as Williams (2013) describes. It is worth noting that one of the targets set out in the new Greater Manchester Strategy 2013 is to become a low carbon city. No one will argue that it is a hot topic.

Figure 2.14 NOMA (Green Intelligence, 2013)

According to Leadbeater (2009), in the last decade, Manchester focused on physical renewal, property and retail but in order to remain successful in the future, author suggests that the city has to "shift from buildings and physical infrastructure to people and culture" and "continue to innovate" (Leadbeater, 2009). Another area, Leadbeater (2009) highlighted, is collaboration across sectors as well as knowledge-based industries, the latter is the subject of the next section.

2.2.7 Manchester – knowledge city

The knowledge and the knowledge city element are vital parts for Manchester as a city region, so the ideology of Manchester: Knowledge Capital together with sport, culture and other activities should come under the latest branding initiative of the city as "original modern". Furthermore, Hutton and Lee (2009) state that a successful city has not only "unifying vision" but it also can manage and support the growth of the knowledge intensive economy in the city and wider city region and can be called Ideopolis (it is the subject of the Section 2.2.7.4).

Manchester City is situated in the middle of smaller cities, towns and rural areas (it lies at the heart of a city-region) which are known as ten local authorities (Table 2.1). According to Williams *et al.* (2006) "the relationship between the city and this wider hinterland is crucial to the future economic development of both". In 1986, after the abolition of the Greater Manchester Council, the Association of Greater Manchester Authorities (AGMA) was set-up to ensure that local authorities and Manchester City are working together on various joint initiatives and to attract investment.

It is probably fare to say that Manchester is being transformed from "cotton mill" to "knowledge mill" (Ruzinskaite and Hudson, 2008), so its initiatives and strategies are thus focused on knowledge and intangible assets. Manchester is one of the six science cities in the UK, the others are Newcastle, York, Nottingham, Birmingham and Bristol (The Manchester Forward E-Book, 2009); there are more than 20 science parks and research centres in the region. According to Georghiou and Harper (2003), a key issue in a knowledge-driven economy is relations between universities and business.

Universities together with other research institutions, contribute to the creation of new knowledge and technological innovations. Manchester has Britain's largest (with over 90,000 students (Boxer, 2006)) and the fastest growing student population and is home to three universities (University of Manchester, Manchester Metropolitan University, and the University of Salford). Based on the number of Nobel prize winners to graduates, the volume of research published and other academic achievements, the University of Manchester is ranked as 40th best in the world, up eight places from 2007, leaving it ranked fifth-best in Britain and sixth-best in Europe (Qureshi, 2008). Thanks to universities which have strongly influenced developments in Manchester (for example, the Knowledge Capital Manchester concept or Project Unity, combining the Victoria University of Manchester and UMIST and creating the new University of Manchester) giving the opportunity to evolve as a powerhouse of the knowledge economy (Georghiou and Harper, 2003). Other technological projects are MediaCityUK, the Sharp Project, the Graphene Hub, Airport City and MediPark (Memmott, 2013). Graphene, a new material with strong heat and electrical conductivity features was discovered in the University of Manchester and today promises huge potential to the economy of Manchester as well as Europe (Linton, 2014). However, Emmerich (2013), chief executive of New Economy, states that despite world-class and strong science base Manchester is still behind its "international competitors in the translation of new discoveries into commercial applications". Maier (2013) gives three possible reasons for this:

- A lack of coherent industrial strategy, i.e. research and development efforts are not focused on areas where Manchester needs to be first class.
- Was not easy to undertake collaborative research enabling the transformation of core university research into commercialisation of ideas and products.
- Innovation strengths have not been marketed hard enough internationally.

Despite that there is a growing proportion of Manchester graduates staying and working in the region, Ottewell (2013) based on Brian Cox's talk during the MIPIM property conference in Cannes reports that a skills gap still exists between the population and the jobs being created, and it weakens Manchester's position as a "knowledge city". Sir Bernstein (2013), chief executive of Manchester City Council, also acknowledges that the skills topic is still a challenge. However continuous efforts to improve teaching along the choice of courses in universities, opportunities for lifelong learning should increase quality of graduates. There are also an increasing number of graduates returning to carry out doctoral studies or research. And here the question comes up why knowledge matters.

2.2.7.1 Why does knowledge matter?

The importance of information has grown significantly within our societies that even "changed our concept of development" and "new knowledge-based development strategies were identified and adopted" (Garcia, 2004). Moreover, new theoretical terms such as knowledge-based economy, knowledge economy, knowledge city, smart/ intelligent city, educating city, creative city, Ideopolis emerged (Garcia, 2004; Youssef, 2007). According to Youssef (2007) "Knowledge Cities" can be described as a tangible result of mixing the city with the knowledge.

There are different factors as to why knowledge matters. First of all, the knowledge economy contributes significantly to economic growth. Jones *et al*. (2006) regard knowledge and innovation to be vital and driving growth in an open market economy. "Some have argued that the emergence of a knowledge-based economy is a "new economy" offering endless productivity gains, faster non inflationary growth- and ever-rising stock markets" (Brinkley, 2006). Jones *et al.* (2006) describe this in the following equation:

innovation + skills = productivity growth = rising prosperity

Manchester's vision is directed to the development of sustained prosperity (see Section 2.1). Further, it is believed that the "knowledge-based economy" will help to match the growth levels of the US and emerging Asian countries (Winden *et al.*, 2007) and is one of three factors why knowledge is important which Jones *et al.* (2006) describe as following:

- Globalization (prosperity of developed world can be secured by the 'knowledge intensive' activities).

- Endogenous growth theory (businesses grow not only through competitive pressure or growing demand at the macro level but also investment in innovation and skills of the workforce).
- National competitiveness (nations are in a competition with each other and investment in 'high value' and 'knowledge intense' industries brings success in this competition).

In the future, Duffy (2008) perceives city to be depending upon the knowledge economy, "which will be aided by technology but that will also continue to be social, plural and face to face". Now, according to Rooth (2013b), Manchester after London has already the "largest concentration of server capacity, in data and hosting centres". The same author gives reasons for this success as follows (Rooth, 2013c):

- Britain after America is the second safest country in the world for the location of data centres and Manchester is ideally placed geographically.
- Being in the central location, region is covered by telecom and fibre networks (to south London, Europe and onto North America via the Hibernia Atlantic cable network).
- Greater Manchester area has more National Grid supply points than London and 1,000 megawatts of capacity available.
- Cooler climate (by 2.8C comparing to south east of England) in Manchester has direct impact on data centre operating costs because of the cooling requirements.
- Skilled work force is available thanks to engineering and computer specialisations in universities.
- Development sites such as Airport City Manchester Airport, Central Park, Kingsway in Rochdale, Wythenshawe town centre.

The above mentioned reasons clearly demonstrate that knowledge matters and there is already a substantial base for generating potential and creating opportunities. The revised strategy for Manchester published in The Greater Manchester Strategy for the visitor economy 2014-2020 (Marketing Manchester, 2013) is focused on sustainable economic growth and highlights the importance of talents and people as well as their contribution. There is no doubt that knowledge will contribute to the prosperity of the city. Moreover, in 2009 Manchester won the global award “The Most Admired Knowledge City Region” (Manchester: Knowledge Capital, n. d.).

2.2.7.2 Manchester: Knowledge Capital initiative

Heavy investment in physical infrastructure, world-class research in higher education, well-established businesses based on innovation, international communications and transport, a multi cultural society that is attractive to knowledge workers, possibility to grow and ability to retain graduates, all form a strong foundation in Manchester’s economic development from a science base (Manchester: Knowledge Capital, 2005) and gives the city an excellent background for the Knowledge Capital initiative within Manchester city region which was launched in late 2002. Moreover, the Government has named Manchester as “UK science city” (Manchester: Knowledge Capital, 2005). Sir Bernstein (2013) says that Manchester’s economy has simply “adapted over years, moving away from its traditional base in heavy industry to knowledge-based growth, such as biomedical science, financial and legal services and digital and creative industries”. Figure 2.15 illustrates science hubs in Manchester.

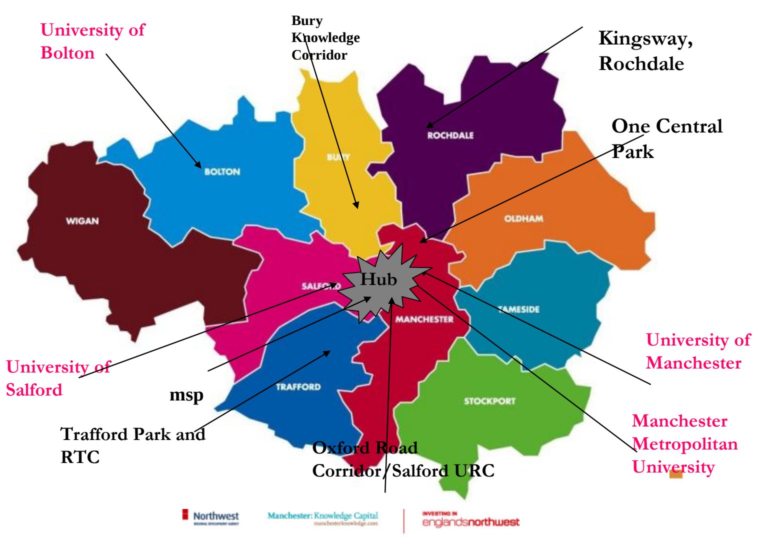


Figure 2.15 Science City Hubs and Spokes (Garner, C. (a))

Manchester: Knowledge Capital is a partnership of four universities, 10 metropolitan authorities and key public agencies (The Northwest Regional Development Agency, MIDAS, Government Office for the North West, Greater Manchester Learning and Skills Council, Manchester Enterprises, Greater Manchester Strategic Health Authority) and its role is to support this new status of Manchester city by leading the Manchester's science city's programme.

"The concept of the knowledge-driven economy has brought the relations between universities and business to the centre of policy for nations, regions and cities seeking economic regeneration and growth through innovation" (Georghiou and Harper, 2003). Figure 2.16 reflects the concept of knowledge city and interactions between the main players (academic and cultural institutions, national, regional and local government, business and industry) in the knowledge city.

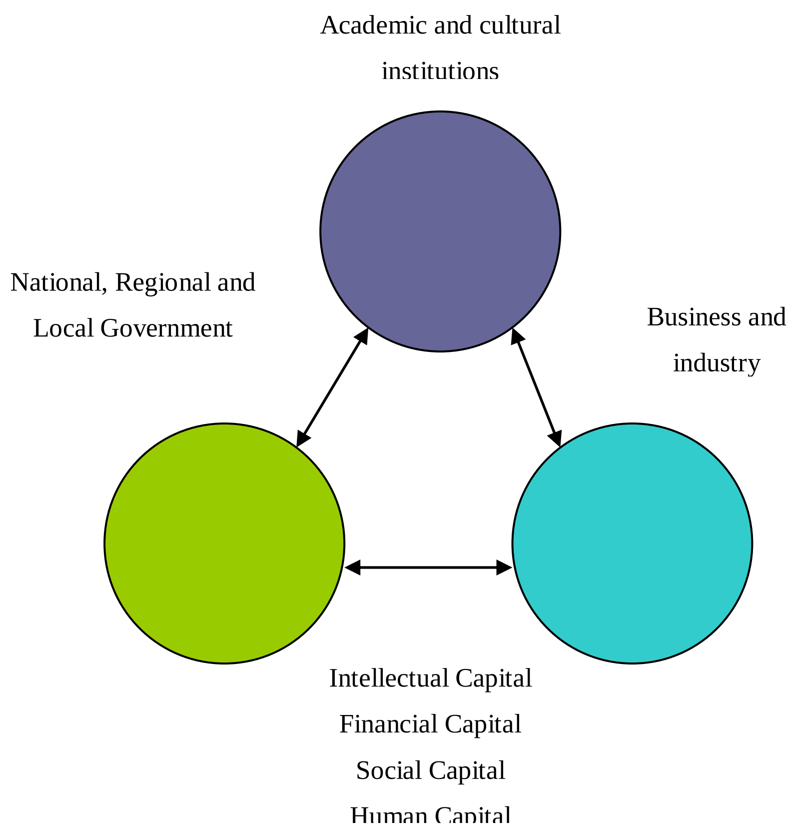


Figure 2.16 Manchester: Knowledge capital concept (Garner, C. (b))

The Manchester Knowledge Capital initiative aims to position Manchester internationally as a city of knowledge economy, contributing not only to the growth of knowledge-based businesses, but also to the growth of the region and nation and attraction of investment. Dr Cathy Garner, Chief Executive of Manchester: Knowledge Capital proposes to focus on four action areas in order to improve Manchester’s future prosperity (Garner (c)):

1) Increased innovation from research, science and knowledge;
2) Benefiting the people of Manchester through their active engagement in employment, education and training;
3) Creating the environment for knowledge-intensive business success, quality of life and openness to all;
4) Championing, testing and promoting new ideas and new ways of living and working.

A Strategy for Greater Manchester, published by the Association of Greater Manchester Authorities (Sharing the Vision: A strategy for Greater Manchester), outlined a number of areas where concept of Knowledge Capital can contribute to the economic growth of Greater Manchester:

- New incubators, workspace and spin-out/spin-in activity linked to Higher Education institutions;
- Linking strategies for growth sectors (environmental technology; life science industries; medical equipment and technology; financial and professional services; tourism and cultural industries; computer and internet based industries; creative industries; media, advertising and public relations; aviation; waste reuse and recycling) to Higher Education research and development specialisms;
- Increased cooperation, connectivity and support between all Higher and Further Education institutions to provide the skills and expertise needed to grow the economy, for example, Bolton Institute plays a leading role in the textile technology research.

According to Georghiou and Harper (2003), senior stakeholders from business, Government and universities engaged in developing the strategy on how universities can contribute to the development of Manchester region as a Knowledge Capital and authors describe below five elements that are key in this cooperation:

- Infrastructure (the knowledge producers have spread across all parts of the city-region; for example Manchester Science Park has a few sites).
- Human resources (Manchester is a net importer of graduates).
- University missions (each Manchester university is recognised as world-class in terms of its mission).
- Inward investment (integrated policies (packages combining land-use, infrastructure and academic linkages) for attraction of massive investment by multinationals and entrepreneurs).
- Networking (firms of all sizes and ages in Manchester are sourcing knowledge and people and meeting development needs from the universities).

2.2.7.3 Participants of the knowledge city

There are different organizations supporting and contributing to knowledge city initiatives including universities, Manchester City Council, etc. It is worth distinguishing Manchester City South Partnership and Manchester Science Partnerships for their profound significance for Manchester and its region.

2.2.7.3.1 Manchester City South Partnership

To drive forward the knowledge economy with the intention of creating 34,000 jobs in the south of Manchester city centre, a new development agency, the Manchester City South Partnership (formerly the Oxford Road Partnership), has been set up which includes Manchester City Council, the University of Manchester, Manchester Metropolitan University and the Central Manchester and Manchester Children's University Hospitals NHS Trust and the North West Regional Development Agency (Hughes, 2008). The main objective of this partnership is to "maximize the economic potential of the area" (City South: Strategic Development Framework Summary). The universities and the Health

Trust are currently undertaking investment programmes worth £1.5 billion. The City South Partnership covers almost 600 acres and stretches in all directions from Oxford Road, from Peter's Square in the north to Whitworth Park in the south, and across from Cambridge Street to Upper Brook Street.

2.2.7.3.2 Manchester Science Partnerships

Manchester Science Partnerships (former known as Manchester Science Parks) is in the City South Partnership area which is a key partner in the Manchester: Knowledge Capital initiative. Manchester Science Partnerships (MSP) supports innovation and contributes to the knowledge economy of the region by providing business accommodation along business support including events and networking, links with universities and business, international connections, MedTECH services, etc. It plays an important role connecting universities and private companies and transferring knowledge between them. MSP is a partnership between the City of Manchester, its universities and the private sector; “MSP is majority owned by Manchester property developer Bruntwood, with other stakeholders being Manchester and Salford councils and Manchester’s two universities” (Williams, 2014). It accommodates companies specialising in biomedical, ICT, industrial technologies, digital/ creative, advanced engineering, etc. (Manchester Science Partnerships, n. d.). MSP provides nearly 20,000 sq m (215,320 sq ft) of laboratory and office space hereby boosting economic and technological growth of Manchester. In addition to this, MSP acquired BioHub, former research and development site of AstraZeneca in Alderley Park. According to Rowena Burns, chief executive of MSP, the overall strategy and vision is “bringing together the strength of Alderley Park as a bioscience research and development facility of unique scale and quality with the existing knowledge Manchester Science Park clusters and links to the knowledge business to create an internationally competitive commercial science offer and deliver future economic growth” (Williams, 2014). Further, Manchester Science Parks and Bruntwood along other partners (Manchester City Council, Corridor Manchester and Central Manchester University Hospitals NHS Foundation Trust) supported by European Regional Development Fund 2007-13 developed Citylabs, that is regarded as

Europe’s largest clinical and academic hub for bio medical research (Citylabs, n. d.).

Former Manchester Science Park has been named as the “Outstanding Member Park” at the annual UK Science Park Association (UKSPA) conference in 2007 for its services to tenants and the local community, the contribution to the economy of Manchester (Hilton, 2011). Presumably, it can be said that the park not only contributes to Manchester’s regional economic and knowledge growth but also is an example of strong and long lasting brand that is associated with top quality office and lab accommodation and with the reputation of success along growth and international recognition.

2.2.7.4 Manchester Ideopolis

The Work Foundation has carried out a research programme on “Ideopolises” contributing to current debates about city regions and knowledge cities. “The ideopolis is an urban centre deriving competitive advantage from many sources, not just higher education” (Westwood and Nathan, 2002). Manchester has set itself a challenge to become an Ideopolis (the idea of Ideopolis became most obvious since Knowledge Capital initiative was introduced in 2002) so its case study was chosen to assess how “fit for purpose” the decision making structures are in the UK for encouraging the creation of Ideopolis (Jones *et al.*, 2006) and to make recommendations at the national, regional and local levels for the support of the creation of a sustainable knowledge –city-region (Williams *et al.*, 2006). This was an independent research project commissioned by Manchester City Council. The research concluded that Manchester is one of the two main candidates in England to become an Ideopolis. This was influenced by much progress made not only in the city centre but in the wider city-region including increasing number of individuals working in knowledge industries. However, as Williams *et al.* (2006) suggest there are barriers to overcome in order to implement the vision based on the findings of the report. This will not be discussed further as it is a large topic in its own right and goes beyond the scope of this dissertation.

Summarising this section, knowledge element represents a very important part of Manchester's strategy, however it does not seem to be reflected in the latest branding initiative as such; concept "original modern" appears to be based on innovation rather than knowledge and signifier "M" is about richness and diversity.

2.2.8 Diverse Manchester

Manchester has had a bad reputation for hundreds years as one of the England's most crowded and unhealthy cities with a lack of green spaces (Cooper, 2004). Nevertheless it has been changing during the centuries together with its symbols, slogans, logos as well as strategies and visions. The diagram below shows the evolution of the various branding and marketing initiatives:

Table 2.2 Chronological development of Manchester marketing initiatives

Logos/ Slogans	**Date**	**Key events/ buildings**
 Manchester Bee	19th Century 1877	 The Town Hall
	1930 – 1980 Manchester in decline	 Industrial Panorama 1953 by L.S. Lowry

1962

CIS Tower

1980

1990

Olympic city

15 June 1996

IRA bomb

15 May 1997

16 July 1997

1998-2002

	2000	
	2002	
	2006	
	2007	 Beetham Tower
(www.4evrmanchester.wordpress.com)	2011	In response to 9 August 2011 riots
	2013	 Noma

Table 2.2 shows how diverse Manchester is together with different initiatives during the decades, be it music, sport, culture, healthcare, innovation or science,

etc. However, the knowledge element has not been reflected in branding or marketing until now because only recently the importance of it has grown out in the global competition with US and emerging Asian countries. Going forward, international links and connectivity (particularly with China, India, Middle East and US) will be vital (Sir Bernstein, 2011 and Rooth, 2013a).

Despite the branding initiatives for Manchester in Table 2.2, Ofori (2010) states that "Manchester has avoided relying on logos or slogans to communicate its identity"; according to the same author, city is trying to change perceptions by developing various strategies or initiatives and solving issues such as appearance, infrastructure, events and quality of services, etc. The latest branding initiative "original modern" was designed to cover all the different sectors. Ofori (2010) has summarised initiatives that have been introduced to help achieve the "Original Modern" vision (Table 2.3).

Table 2.3 Initiatives helping to achieve the "Original Modern" vision (Ofori, 2010)

Name of initiative	What it aims to do
The Welcome Project	Promotes Manchester as an open, welcoming city by providing customer service training for front of house staff
Manchester's Cultural and Events Strategy, Creative Tourist Partnership	Shifts perceptions of the city and promotes the city as an inventive, progressive, cultural destination
Innovation Manchester and Manchester Masters	Fosters innovation and retains high-calibre creative students
Corridor Manchester Partnership	An inclusive partnership, the first of its kind in the UK, that provides access to funding for the university corridor to drive the area forward
Manchester Digital City Project	Ensures that Manchester has the infrastructure and skills set to be seen as a progressive, digital city and to attract businesses in this sector

It is worth mentioning another aspect of being diverse and adaptable, i.e. is a review of existing priorities and strategies for Manchester in response to the changing conditions in the world economy. According to the revised strategy (Greater Manchester strategy, 2013), there was a need to "reassess our approach to achieving it". Such review is a welcome step and demonstrates once again that city cares about its people, future, etc. Kavaratzis and Hatch (2013) state that continuous review and redefinition of the vision is necessary for the creation of the successful place brand.

So as a city, Manchester never gives up; it continues to spread messages to the world about itself. However, Table 2.2 inspires a debate, why there are so many different branding initiatives for one city and would not it be better to stick with one. Is there are lack of criticism or professional guidelines? What really reflects Manchester’s image and finally which direction this city is developing? It is probably the time start evaluating these initiatives and addressing issues that arise from such evaluation.

2.3 Conclusions

This chapter has reviewed the chronological development of Manchester branding initiatives including logos, slogans and symbols seeking to identify their position and importance in Manchester’s history. Place branding phenomenon became very popular recently. The researcher gauged this interest from Internet reviews and criticisms on the subject in Manchester’s case and high numbers of academic papers on the subject.

The chapter also investigated the topic of knowledge city in Manchester city region for the reason that it enhances the city’s economic wealth in some way by supporting its aspirations to be attractive destination for people, so they would want to live and work here.

Initiatives to brand Manchester are not a new commodity, and date back supposedly to the use of the Bee in the nineteenth century as a symbol of industry. In the second half of the last century, Manchester has undergone a massive decline and despite all the regeneration and transformation processes is still perceived as dirty, dangerous and gloomy. Most recently the multi-coloured signifier “M” and concept “original modern” were established. The question on how to measure the effectiveness of these branding initiatives indeed has emerged.

CHAPTER 3: PLACE BRADING

3.1 Introduction

Chapter 2 presented the history of Manchester through its branding approaches and identified the need for the evaluation of this phenomenon. Cities are places where people live, do business, explore and enjoy culture as well as leisure activities. There is a competition between these cities as a result of which the marketing and branding of such places has grown out, both in scale and importance, in practice as well in academic research due to increased competitiveness between places (Warnaby *et al.,* 2002); this was influenced by drastic changes in the economy, technology, demography and politics (van den Berg and Braun, 1999). In today's highly competitive environment, the majority of places have an objective to attract more inward investment, as well as visitors and jobs. To achieve this, places often use marketing techniques originally developed for consumer goods, such as branding (Caldwell and Freire, 2004) which is often employed to eliminate negative perceptions. Indeed, the branding of places through the use of symbols, logos and slogans has become a feature of the urban regeneration process in many parts of the world. However, the effectiveness of place branding is subject to much debate.

This chapter focuses on the concept of place branding by discussing its importance and by exemplifying the need for empirical research; it considers the nature and scope of branding activities of towns and cities in the literature. The use of conceptual models is explored through a review of related literature and existing branding models, with the aim of understanding this phenomenon.

The chapter opens by considering why place branding is becoming increasingly important, then summarises place marketing and branding by explaining the differences between them, distinguishing differences between place and product branding before discussing the attributes of city brand. It ends by looking at different branding experiences and describes models developed for product/ service and corporate branding as well as place branding.

3.2 City marketing and branding

Attempts to make places attractive in a market economy are not a new phenomenon as the Manchester case showed in Chapter 2; there is now an increased awareness of the urban branding concept as well as strategic and professionalised activities in place development (Jensen, 2005). The emergence of academic journals, such as Place Branding, demonstrates growing interest in how communities, cities, regions or countries market themselves (Merrilees, 2008).

Terms such as branding, marketing, place branding, city branding, destination branding, etc. interrelate with each other at some level. They will be largely used in this chapter and are defined in sections 3.2.2 and 3.2.3. Confusion may arise with phrases like urban place branding or city branding; for this reason these concepts and their use will be explained in section 3.2.3.1. Before describing these, the importance of branding is illustrated.

3.2.1 Why branding is important?

Place branding became very popular recently, particularly in the form of city branding. Brands are becoming one of the most valuable assets for places. Klijn *et al.* (2012) describe branding by giving several reasons why it is important: “give meaning to something; add value to the branded object; distinguish the object from competitors, such as other cities; have a visible or discursive manifestation in the form of a logo, design or a name; are deliberately created and have to be managed to develop and maintain them”. According to Kotler *et al.* (1999) “the marketing of places has become a leading economic activity” and one of the main reasons for the popularity of place branding or marketing is growing competition between cities (Jensen, 2005). “As cities fight over the scarce resources of talent and investment they are turning to branding to find competitive advantage” (Virgo and de Chernatony, 2005). This means that the main aim of branding is to differentiate a particular offering from competitors (Medway and Warnaby, 2008). Nowadays, European communities are in active competition with each other (there are more than 100,000 communities in Europe competing over visitors and business attraction). Furthermore, place competition is global. This has been manifested in numerous ways (Ashworth and Voogd, 1990; Kotler *et al.,* 1999). All places, whether located in Europe, Asia, Latin America or the USA, need "to develop new capabilities to survive in this competitive environment" (Rainisto, 2003). According to Klingmann (2007), in order to adapt to changing economic conditions and attract multinational corporations, tourists or potential residents, cities change their economic base. Kotler *et al.* (1999) describe this climate of competition for investors, experts and visitors as a "place war".

Place branding is often employed when there is a need to renew a city's image and to eliminate existing negative perceptions (Kotler et al., 1999). Visdeloup (2010) however suggests that all of today's modern cities need to review their role and redefine their strategies. Manchester can be taken as an example – the city prospered as an industrial city but decline meant that it had to redefine its identity (Ruzinskaite and Hudson, 2008) and now Manchester has "a world-class science and knowledge base" (Emmerich, 2013) along strong "financial and professional services sector" (Rooth, 2013a). Another example is Luxembourg, when after the Second World War it transformed from steel based production into a city of bank and insurance services along media and adopted the concept of "Mediaport Europe" (Kotler *et al.,* 1990).

The identity and reputation of great cities like Rome, Jerusalem or Athens was built over centuries. According to Finucan (2002), more than a century ago British Prime Minister Benjamin Disraeli noted that "a great city, whose image dwells in the memory of man, is the type of some great idea Rome represents conquest; faith hovers over the towers of Jerusalem; and Athens embodies the pre-eminent quality of the antique world, art." In contrast, today a variety of communication tools exist that enable to spread desirable messages about a particular place much faster. Nevertheless, "almost all European places are experiencing problems, but some more than others" (Kotler *et al.,* 1999) so to remain competitive, places tend re-view their positioning to the world and re-launch themselves as brands. The figure below summarises the aims of the re-branding activities.

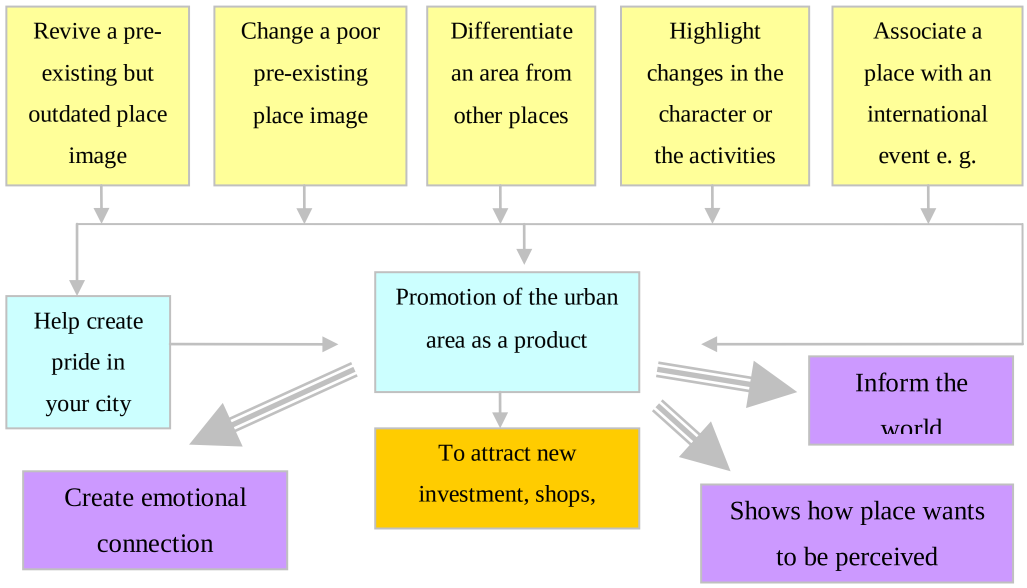


Figure 3.1 Aims of urban re-branding (adapted from Barcelona Field Studies Centre, n. d.)

The main aim of branding is to inform the world and this obviously has to be done in unique and memorable way in order to leave good impression which will be discussed in later sections. The next two sections describe city marketing and city branding with an attempt to explain differences between them.

3.2.2 Place marketing

Marketing is a management discipline, comprising of different concepts from economics, sociology, psychology, politics and biology and which grew rapidly in the 1970s and 1980s (Smyth, 1994). The basic idea in marketing is to create the strategy for selling goods or delivering a service at an affordable price, and at the same time satisfying customer needs (Smyth, 1994). Van den Berg and Braun (1999) explain why marketing can be as an important instrument in urban management: “by adopting marketing principles, the municipal organisation may become more customer oriented, ready to give service to, and mind the interests of, the town’s citizens”.

City marketing is a child discipline of marketing science and is at least 50 years behind it in terms of academic development according to Ashworth and Voogd

(1990). Although this term is widely used in the United States, there is no comprehensive definition of city marketing as yet. Various authors (e.g. Ashworth and Voogd 1990; Kotler *et al.* 1993; Smyth, 1994) have approached this phenomenon from various perspectives. Warnaby *et. al.* (2002) summarise this using the term of "urban place marketing" in the following three dimensions:

- Urban place marketing is the responsibility of a range of actors from public, private and voluntary sectors that collaborate in order to implement entrepreneurial activities.
- Urban place marketing is concerned with ascertaining and meeting the needs and expectations of a range of users and potential users of the urban place.
- Urban place marketing involves the commodification of selected attributes of the urban place in order to promote a positive image of the place as a holistic entity.

Ashworth and Voogd (1990) describe city marketing "as a process whereby urban activities are, as closely as possible, related to the demands of targeted customers so as to maximise the efficient social and economic functioning of the area concerned in accordance with whatever goals have been established". The purpose of city marketing is to create strategies to tell the world about the city and its activities and in some cases to sell parts of the city for living, consuming and productive activities (Smyth, 1994). Principles of informing the world and selling apply to the marketing of any place. According to Ashworth and Voogd (1990), "marketing, as a new way of viewing cities and thus the problems of their management in the public interest, offers a largely unexplored potential" for city planners, managers and place marketers. City marketing can be described as a technique of planning and, according to Ashworth and Voogd (1990), "urban market planning in some form, has long been accepted as being essential in preventing market failures".

Place marketing involves four activities as Kotler *et al.* (1999) describe below:

- Developing a strong and attractive positioning and image for the community;

- Setting attractive incentives for current and potential buyers and users of goods and services;
- Delivering a place's products and services in an efficient, accessible way;
- Promoting the place's attractiveness and benefits so potential users are fully aware of distinctive advantages of the place.

To provide better understanding, Kotler *et al,* (1999) have summarised elements and levels of place marketing in Figure 3.2. The whole process comprises of target markets, marketing factors and planning group. Target markets are certain segments or customers/ consumers to which marketing messages are sent and these can be (Kotler *et al.,* 1999):

1. Producers of goods and services
2. Corporate headquarters and regional offices
3. Outside investment and export markets
4. Tourism and hospitality
5. New residents

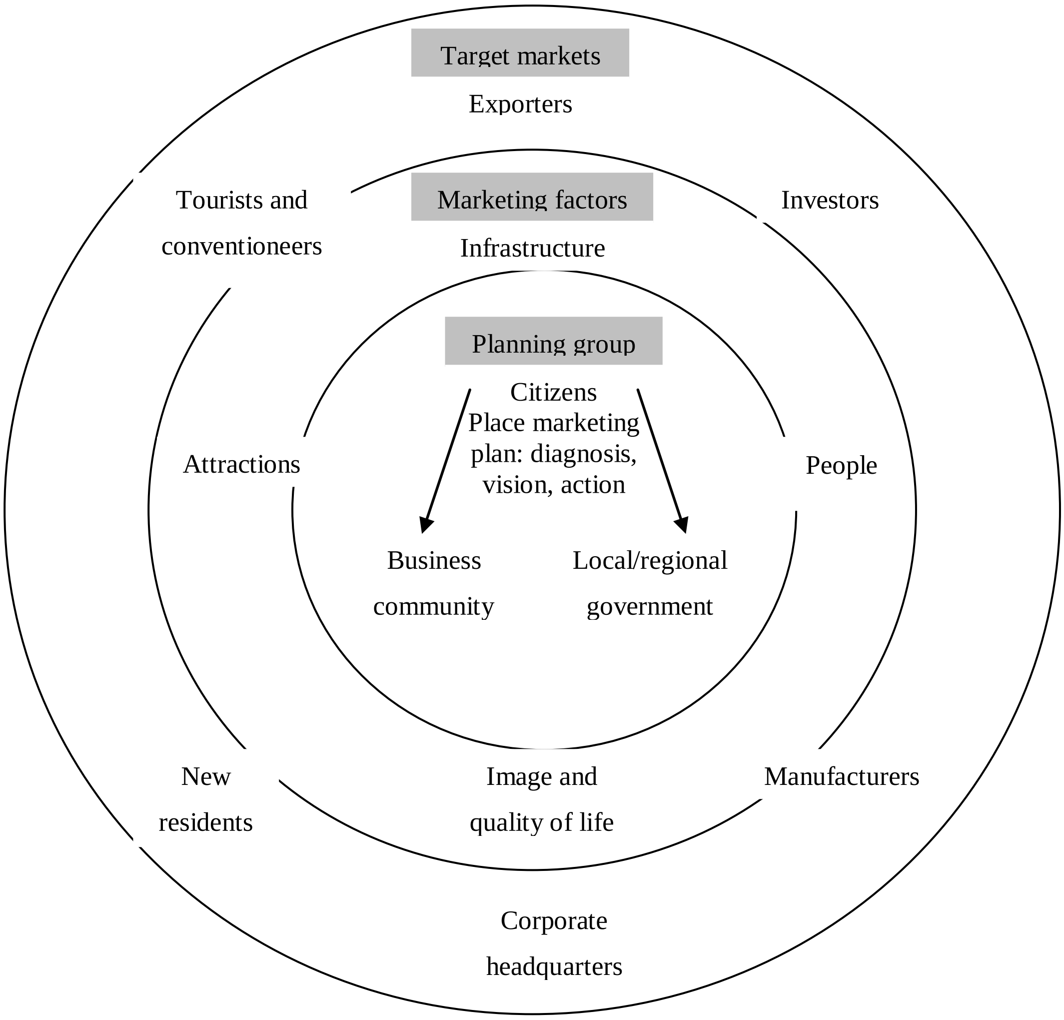


Figure 3.2 Levels of place marketing (Kotler et al., 1999)

Marketing factors comprise the attractions, infrastructure, people and image and quality of life of the place. The planning group is responsible for the implementation of marketing plan including vision for the place.

Medway and Warnaby (2008) conceptualise various types of place demarketing activity and argue and that there may be some situations where accentuating the negative may be an appropriate strategy for place marketing, for example, in certain cases there is a need to reduce demand. On the other hand negative dimensions may also be used to create or increase demand. However, the focus of this study is on positive image creation.

In summary, place marketing is used for multiple goals like to build a positive image for the place, attract enterprises, tourists, events etc. while branding creates the identity for the place which is expected to increase its attraction (Rainisto, 2003). Place branding is described in more detail in the following section.

3.2.3 Place branding

Place branding is "a discipline that is developing fast" (Van Gelder and Allan, 2006); its growing popularity can be demonstrated by its global dominance in focus events detailed in Table 3.1. "Branding and brand management can be said to have been one of the leading areas of focus for both marketing academics and practitioners during the final two decades of the 20th century" (Hankinson, 2001). Lucarelli and Brorstrom (2013) analysed place branding as "an interdisciplinary research phenomenon" and found that it is being studied by 17 different disciplines from urban studies to psychology.

Table 3.1 Events to demonstrate expansion of branding activities (adapted from Taszi and Kozak, 2006)

Event	**Description**
The American Marketing Science (AMS) conference in Miami, USA in 1997	Researchers in tourism marketing discussed destination brand development
The Travel and Tourism Research Association's (TTRA) conference in 1998	Theme of the conference "Branding the Travel Market" where cases of branding in the US states as well as other cities and countries discussed
A special issue (5) of the Journal of Vacation Marketing in 1999	Issue dedicated to "Destination Branding"
Morgan *et al.* publish leading book on destination branding in 2002	Destination Branding: Creating the Unique Destination Position
Two issues of the periodic publication on destination marketing ECLIPSE in 2003	Dedicated to the discussion of the relationship between brand and image

Although branding is not a new idea, Hankinson (2001); Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2005) and Zenker (2011) assert that there is no single accepted definition of a brand (see Table 3.2). However, Merrillees *et al.* (2008) argues that destination and place branding are interchangeable terms.

Table 3.2 Examples of definitions for place branding

Author	Definition
Merrilees *et al.* (2008)	City branding constitutes a sub-field of place branding and emphasizes the marketing and branding of cities to the residents (and potential residents) as a place to live, and to businesses as a place to invest.
Hankinson (2001)	Brand can be seen as an umbrella device to unify a wide variety of product offering under a common identity.
Cai (2002)	Destination branding can be defined as selecting a consistent element mix to identify and distinguish it through positive image building.
Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2005)	Place branding is merely the application of product branding to places but the brand is more than an identifying name given to a product, it is also not a synonym for a single catchy slogan.
Jensen (2005)	Urban branding can be said to be a form of 'collective impression management'. Urban branding or place marketing (as it was labelled in the 1990's) is a response to increased interurban competition.
Bilim and Bilim (2014)	Brand is a perceptual instrument and each affective value of the product (tourism destination) reflects the brand's impact on customer.

In an attempt to clarify destination branding from both theoretical and empirical perspective, Blain *et al.* (2005) have reviewed the conceptual and theoretical base of branding and carried out a survey of a particular subset of destination marketing organizations (DMO). As a result of the survey analysis they have presented a revised and improved definition of destination branding as follows Blain *et al.* (2005): "Destination branding is the set of marketing activities that

1) support the creation of a name, symbol, logo, word mark or other graphic that readily *identifies* and *differentiates* a destination; that
2) consistently convey the *expectation* of a memorable travel *experience* that is uniquely associated with the destination; that
3) serve to *consolidate* and *reinforce* the *emotional connection* between the visitor and the destination; and that

4) reduce consumer *search costs* and *perceived risk*. Collectively, these activities serve to create a *destination image* that positively influences consumer *destination choice*."

Vandenwalle (2010) uses phrase "emotional bond" instead of "emotional connection". All the definitions of branding described above seem to be slightly different in terms of spatial level (city, place, and destination) but all of them seem to have the same aim to identify and distinguish. Balakrishnan (2009) uses the term "differentiation" - it depends on needs or attributes and can be achieved through image, colour, logo design and development, personality, feelings and self-image congruence, visual identity, personality, brand alliances, ingredient branding and hallo effect. Moilanen and Rainisto (2009) anticipate that concepts of city and tourism destination partially overlap, however city has mixed audiences and more strategic objectives comparing to tourist destination. Randall (1997) suggests that definition of brand should contain such words as "unique", "name", "identity", "differentiation", "quality" and "guarantee". Saville (Q&A with Peter Saville, 2009) defines brand by what the place is doing and suggests that strategy "should come out from inside out".

According to Gnoth (2002), attraction is the starting point for the branding activity. Rainisto (2003) supports this idea by stating that place branding aims especially at increasing the attractiveness of a place. As a strong brand adds value, it is very often chosen as a main strategy by organisations and businesses (Cai, 2002). According to Temporal (2001), originally brands were created to distinguish one owner's products or animals from another by marks on them and they still fulfil this basic function. Furthermore, "the brand has a continuing relationship with its buyers and users" and performs four main functions: identity, shorthand summary, security and added value (Randall, 1997). Finucan (2002) in her publication cites Maureen Atkinson that "a brand is type of shorthand for a product" and "what you try to do is create that shorthand, so that when people think of your city, they automatically think of what is best about it". This suggests that not only symbol, slogan and logo (see section 3.2.4) create the brand of the place; the architecture, environment, people, services etc has impact when creating the brand for the place. It is the whole experience. Balakrishnan (2008) uses Figure 3.3 to explain the components of destination branding process and relationship between them.

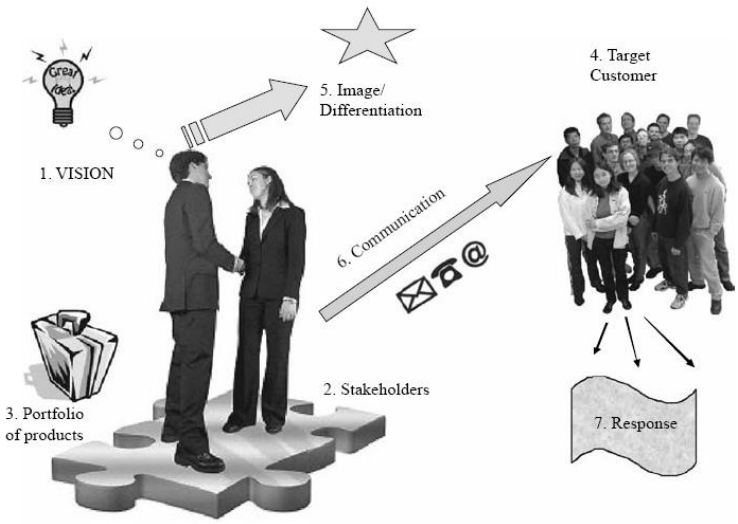


Figure 3.3 Key components for destination branding (Balakrishnan, 2008)

The branding of the place begins with vision which should consider the diversity of stakeholder needs. Stakeholders can be internal (people/ citizens, business/ governing bodies, influencers like media) and external (Balakrishnan, 2008). According to the same author, in case of destination branding, "a portfolio of products" is often developed which may incorporate natural assets, history, culture, infrastructure or/ and facilities and offered to targeted customers (internal and external) who's different needs have to be also carefully considered. The image must differentiate the place and vision should be communicated to all the stakeholders. Furthermore, all the stakeholders need to be involved in place branding (Cvijic and Guzijan, 2013). Balakrishnan (2008) states that branding must start with the people of the destination because they can contribute to the positive world-of-mouth and this enhance the brand image. Merrilees *et al.* (2012) based on their research state that different stakeholders have different associations of a place brand. Braun e*t al.,* (2010 and 2013) believe that participation and consultation of people in the branding process, makes the brand "more effective and sustainable" and describe four roles people perform in the place marketing process:

- people as target groups in the place marketing process;
- residents are part of the place brand;
- residents are ambassadors for the place brand;
- as citizens people take part in the realisation of marketing initiatives.

In summary, the main difference between place marketing and branding is that branding is used to create an attractive identity for place in order to distinguish it from other places while marketing is focused on creating strategies how to promote and sell it to target groups using positive image. This section also discusses the role of people (stakeholders) in place branding. Differences between place identity and image are explained in Section 3.2.4.2.

3.2.3.1 Definitions of place levels

Before describing place marketing and branding, there is a pertinent need to define the concepts of "areas" to which branding is applied, as various authors use different terms in the literature and often interchangeably. Hankinson (2001) asserts that there is a broad range of academic interest with regard to locations (countries, cities, towns or regions) as the focus of marketing activity with the possibility that different words are used to describe same ideas. Caldwell and Freire (2004) acknowledge this statement saying that sometimes researchers do not define "destination" clearly and it is not clear when they talk about countries and when about cities or regions. Van den Berg and Braun (1999) describe these locations as levels of urban place marketing below:

- The individual urban goods and services (the marketing of one location, service, attraction, etc.).
- The clusters of related services (the cluster of related goods or services, for instance, urban tourism or port facilities).
- The city or urban agglomeration as a whole (is in itself not a well-defined product and is, as a consequence, is open to various interpretations and various target groups have numerous associations with the city; this level is mainly concerned with identity and image building.)

Warnaby *et al.*, (2002) identify that this layering is linked to spatial hierarchy (in local, regional and national contexts), which also complicates the definition of the urban place product. Further, the same physical place and its attributes are sold to different customers for different purposes. Baxter *et al.* (2013) use term “place” when talking about towns, cities, regions and nations. Herstein (2012) argues that there is a tight link between country branding, region branding and city branding and suggests that four positioning strategies with two dimensions (ethnic groups and people) reflecting the link between country, region and city brand can be distinguished. The various dialogs used are presented in Table 3.3 to be used as a common baseline for this thesis.

Table 3.3 Definitions of urban scales to which branding is applied

Place	Is a very broad concept and as a noun may mean area, district, location, region, city, town, village (Dictionary and Thesaurus of Webster’s Reference Library, 2005).
Urban place	Various spatial scales (Warnaby *et al.,* 2002).
Location	Hankinson (2001) uses this concept for geographic locations such as countries, regions, cities and towns.
Destination	For example, Cai (2000), Blain *et al.* (2005), Tasci and Kozak (2006), Blichfeldt (2003), Henderson (2007) analyse branding in terms of destination. “To the tourism marketer the location is a *destination*, a place which people (and organisations) visit” Hankinson (2001).
City	An important or cathedral town; a town created a city by charter; the people of a city; business circles, especially financial services (Dictionary and Thesaurus of Webster’s Reference Library, 2005). Ashworth and Voogd (1990) describe the city as a place in which to live, work, recreate or invest.
Nation	“A nation brand is the total sum of all perceptions of a nation in the mind of international stakeholders which may contain some of the following elements: people, place, culture/language, history, food, fashion, famous faces (celebrities), global brands etc.” (Fan, 2010).

Place, location or destination as described in Table 3.3 may vary considerably in size. For example branding can be applied to countries (such as Scotland, Spain or New Zealand, etc.), as well as cities (New York, London, Manchester or Glasgow, etc.), or regions (for example, Shakespeare's County, Warwickshire; Herriot Country, the Yorkshire Dales) (Hankinson, 2001). This thesis is analysing place branding and uses Manchester city in the UK as a case study. Thus, terms like "location branding" or "place branding" will be used.

3.2.3.2 Product and place branding

As city branding has grown out of marketing science (Ashworth and Voogd, 1990), it uses techniques associated with the creation of classical product brands (Hankinson, 2007). However, Klingmann (2007) declares that the nature of branding has changed significantly from the symbol of production (traditional meaning) to "means of providing the customer with a certain identity". Van den Berg and Braun (1999) state that, "cities can learn from the marketing experiences of the business community, but at the same time need to find their own strategies and develop a tailor-made approach that suits their purposes".

Virgo and de Chernatory (2005) give several reasons for differences between product and place branding: "the lack of control over the city experience, the mutating nature of the target market (groups differ from each other but branding targets all of them), the variety of stakeholders and steerers". According to Ashworth and Voogd (1990), the product can be easily defined by the market or by the consumer and attributes of the product are either obvious or can be easily identified comparing with products of competitors. In contrast, neither of these features are apparent in city marketing. A mix of public and private goods, dualism of place itself; its location and size, urban resources available, etc. make place marketing more complex comparing with product. Jensen (2005) lists a further four differences: different stakeholders and their interests; negotiation of local values; branding of places is usually based upon existing associations with the place and its history while consumers may not have any prior knowledge about the product at the time it is presented; place has "a more diverse segmentation of consumers" (they can be groups of potential investors, residents or tourists, etc).

There are similarities between product and place branding as well as differences. Place is being branded to distinguish it from all others as “in the marketplace, companies use branding to distinguish their product from all others” (Finucan, 2002). Place branding can deliver a new message to the world about the particular location (e.g. Liverpool is a Capital of Culture 2008). “Strong brand can confer enormous power” but “it must be carefully built and maintained” (Randall, 1998). The same author also states that “brand must always deliver value”. Furthermore, communication with customers is being created through brand so it has to be consistent, reliable and ensure quality. These statements apply to both product and place branding.

According to Klingmann (2007), for places the basic function of a brand or branding is to distinguish its identity, both personal and social. Notwithstanding, Hankinson (2004) argues that such conceptualisations limit the development of place brands and suggests looking at place branding as a relationship with consumers and other stakeholders focusing on behaviour and reality. Trueman *et al.* (2007) encourages using a stakeholder perspective when identifying and differentiating place from its competitors and applying an integrated “warts and all” approach to location brand marketing including local communities, built environment, heritage and infrastructure – all form the image of the place.

3.2.4 Attributes of place brand

Place marketing practitioners believe that various branding and re-branding initiatives can contribute to creation and representation of location brand as such, but these are just the part of place’s marketing and promoting strategy and whole branding process. For this reason a brand needs to reflect not only the physical or tangible experiences of the location (visual triggers like symbol, logo, slogan, name), but also the intangible and value-based attributes (place image) (Hanksinson, 2001). Furthermore, brand attributes “help determine and shape competitiveness as well as the identity of the services delivering the brand” (Gnoth, 2002). Ashworth and Voogd (1990) distinguish two urban characteristics below which they describe as “crucially significant” in economic success:

- Amenity (natural and built environment including, the physical characteristics of air, sound and smell, symbols and associations of the place, public spaces, access to urban residential, social, recreational and cultural services).
- Perception of cities and the image held of them (the way cities are valued).

3.2.4.1 Symbol, logo and slogan

To attract investors, businesses and visitors, place has to be unique offering or a combination of benefits for them. The starting point in distinguishing a place's competitive advantage could be a symbol, logo and slogan (in other words, motto) which help to build recognition and raise awareness. Indeed, in theory a memorable and unique slogan, logo or world famous symbol for the place would help to eliminate negative perceptions and contribute to the promotion and identification of the place, positioning of it locally and globally; time-tested positive slogans or mottos and logotypes are useful as they help to recognise cities. According to Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2005), slogans and logos might be used as practical attributes in a place branding but they are not the strategy in themselves. Sinek (2009) suggests starting this process with the question "why", otherwise "a logo is just a logo" (Sinek, 2009). However, Sarson (2005) perceives that "cities are in themselves a brand". Section 2.2.5 described Manchester as the brand with no formal logo or slogan.

Symbol supports and contributes to the image of the place so should be unique and representing only one particular location. However, Cai (2002) argues that it has not been examined widely whether visual brand triggers such as logos or slogans are contributing to the distinctive image or place brand building. Furthermore, there is a problem with city branding; how to use the slogan and according to the graphic designer Peter Saville (from interview with Aitken, 2006) "the presence of the slogan is a negative implication suggests the existence of problems". That is why Glasgow or Leeds needs a slogan, but London or Paris does not. Nottinghamshire - is "Robin Hood country" and Warwickshire is

"Shakespeare country". Signs in Leeds say “Live it, Love it” and Birmingham's sign describes it as a “Great City”. Glasgow has a slogan “Smiles Better”.

No one will argue that to sum up a place and its key factors into a slogan of one or two words is a difficult task. The slogan has to reflect different characteristics of the city. “Like a piece of architecture, the city is a construction in space and city design is therefore a temporal art” (Lynch, 1960). This suggests that a symbol, logo and slogan as part of the place image are temporary as well and will eventually change when circumstances change. In fact, this can be noticed easily analyzing the story of Manchester city branding (see Chapter 2).

In practice, a brand name, according to Tasci and Kozak (2006) is based on the level of satisfaction, past visits and word-of-mouth recommendations which seem to be very important particularly for tourist destinations as the majority of the tourists receive the information mainly from their friends or relatives and only minority from other media. According to Visdeloup (2010) distinctive characteristics make cities as well as places in general attractive to businesses and people. Vandewalle (2010) calls this phenomenon an “emotional bond”. Cai (2002) describes the image of a destination brand “as perceptions about the place as reflected by the associations held in tourist memory”. Place image and identity is subject of next section.

3.2.4.2 Place image and identity

Warnaby *et al.* (2002) argue that “image is a key theme in the place marketing literature, particularly the “re-imaging” of old industrial cities which have sought to transform themselves from centres of production to centres of consumption in the wake of global economic restructuring over the last 25 years”. According to Cai (2002) studies on destination image go back to the early 70s. Place image, together with place identity, is one of the nine success factors in the place marketing framework developed by Rainisto (2003) among other eight success factors: planning group, vision and strategic analysis, public-private partnerships, political unity, global marketplace, local development (presented with global marketplace), process coincidences and finally leadership.

The definition of place as a product largely depends on place image (Ashworth and Voogd, 1990) which consists of a selection of characteristics. "Destination image is a critical stimulus in motivating the tourist" (Cai, 2002). According to Tasci and Kozak (2006), positive image is vital for the creation of a strong position and success in the market. Merrilees *et al.* (2008) state that existing city branding literature is focused on comparing various methods cities use to position their brand image; it is also looking for original positioning solutions in an attempt to make place attractive for its residents, visitors, businesses, etc.

In order to create an image for the place a concept of its identity must be clearly described. Identity is a set of characteristics identified to distinguish place from other places and make it different; it shows how place wants to be perceived whilst place image is "the outcome of the marketing communication" (Rainisto, 2003) (Figure 3.4), "the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that people have of that place,", "product of the mind trying to process and pick out essential information from huge amounts of data about a place" (Kotler *et al.*, 1999). Similarly Pereira *et al.* (2012) state that "when "brand" is associated with "image" it relates to the set of feelings, ideas and attitudes that consumers have about a brand".

Zenker (2011) describes place identity as "the visual, verbal and behavioural expressions of a place, which are embodied in the aims, communication, values and general culture of the place's stakeholders and the overall place design". Govers, R. and Baker, B. (2011) argue that there is a strong link between the identity of the city and its brand. Visdeloup (2010) compares city branding with corporate branding when it comes to creating distinctive identity, process of which "begins with an understanding of what it wants to be and what it has to offer" (Visdeloup, 2010). Baxter *et al.* (2013) argue that places have multiple identities. Place image is delivered through variety of transmission channels to receivers who decode it (Figure 3.4). Sinek (2009) talks how important is to communicate effectively, Stevens (2011) also stresses the importance of promotion and communication of the developed brand (through traditional media, specific events, ambassador networks and/ or social media). Bjorner (2013) considers online branding as an essential tool in city branding that is important to international positioning.

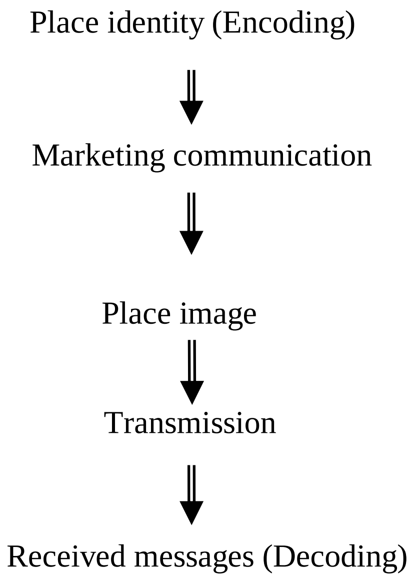


Figure 3.4 A process of place identity transmission to users (modified from Ashworth and Voogd, 1999)

Medway and Warnaby (2008) assert that the creation of an attractive image for the place is a vital task in the branding process. Riza *et al.* (2012) suggest that city image is part of both, city brand and city identity, and has influence on quality of life. New place images are being created to eliminate and replace existing negative images as well as perceptions about places; it is common that new images are published in various media. In other words, this process can be called "re-imaging". As part of this image changing process, more often places are perceived as brands (Hankisnon, 2004). However Cai (2002) argues that image is very important but is only a part of whole branding process.

It is important to understand brand associations because according to Hankinson (2005) they "play a central role in brand strategy development". For this reason he classified them into four categories (see Table 3.4).

Table 3.4 Models of brand image (Hankinson, 2005)

Author(s)	Functional associations	Symbolic associations	Experiential associations	Brand attitudes
Hankinson and Cowking (1993)	Functional attributes	Symbolic values	-	-
De Chernatony and McWilliam (1989)	Functional dimensions	Representational dimensions	-	-
Park et al. (1986)	Functional needs satisfaction	Symbolic needs satisfaction	Experiential needs satisfaction	-
Keller (1993)	Functional benefits	Symbolic benefits	Experiential benefits	Brand attitudes: overall brand evaluation

Brand is multidimensional and can be viewed as (de Chernatony and McDonald, 2003): a functional device; a symbolic device; a shorthand device; a legal device; a strategic device; a differentiating device; a risk reducer; and a sign of ownership (by an organisation). The majority of these dimensions are directly relevant to places and may play role in promotional activities. Medway and Warnaby (2008) give an example; an iconic element of the place (for instance, a piece of architecture) contributes to image creation and at the same time may act as a symbol or shorthand for the place. Some of these examples are presented in the following section.

3.3 Examples of branding

There are plenty of place branding examples to date in the context of city, region or country branding. To illustrate theoretical implications, some empirical cases of urban branding published in academic papers are described in this section. Some of these practices are successful and widely recognised while others result negative reactions and critics.

Cai (2002) gives an example of Old West Country in New Mexico, where in the early 1990s, 11 towns and villages along the river Des Moines in Iowa started marketing themselves as “the Villages of Van Buren” as a result of which more visitors started coming to visit several villages on one trip.

Jensen (2005) provides example about Aalborg, which is a fourth-largest city in Denmark and is located in the North of its mainland with around 162,000 inhabitants. Aalborg is another example of transformation from the industrial production to a cultural, creative and innovative city. The branding campaign for Aalborg started back in 1998 with the discussions about the future development of the city and finally action plan started in 2005. 1 million Danish Kroner per year for the next five years were commissioned by the Aalborg Municipality to support this branding activity which includes “electronic brand toolbox” on the Branding Aalborg website with design manuals, promotional videos, templates for visual conference presentations. Furthermore, a branding course was held at a local school and primary school; teaching material, photo and essay competitions are planned. The new motto and logo is “Aalborg – seize the world” (Figure 3.5) incorporating four values: diversity, wide prospects, teamwork and drive.

Figure 3.5 Logo for Aalborg – seize the world (Jensen, 2005)

According to Jensen (2005) this branding initiative was heavily criticized in public and by the media for being too generic and general, and not symbolic, values appeared to be broadly described with no guidance for future actions. The logo seems to demonstrate the outward looking and thinking in global perspective but was perceived by some as disintegrating and finally criticized for abstract graphic re-presentation.

Another place branding example from Denmark described by Jensen (2005) and later by Hospers (2006) is the Oresund region located in the centre of the capital region and across the nation state borders of Sweden and Denmark. Zealand, Lolland-Falster and Bornholm on the Danish site and Skane on Swedish site form the Oresund region which covers an area of 21,000 sq km with around 3.5million residents. The Oresund bridge (consists of a tunnel, a bridge and an artificial island), opened in 2002, links Denmark and Sweden and is a symbol of the new trans-national infrastructure. The Oresund region brand has two slogans and mottos: “Medicon Valley” and “The Human Capital”. The ideology of “Medicon Valley” is based on strong competencies of the region (from late 19th century this area has strong traditions in research and commercial activities within life science, biotech, medtech and pharmaceuticals) and associates with “Silicon Valley” which can be criticized for copying knowledge region of United States. The brand consultancy Wolff Olins developed “The Human Capital” brand for Oresund for focus on people and creation of attractive place to work, live and have a free-time; it became an official initiative. Aagaard (2006) cites Wolff Olins consultancy "the region's unique attitude to life … a place where people try to find a balance between social interests and personal ones, where things are measured in human terms." The special organisation The Oresund Identity Network was created to implement this strategy, coordinate information, and create a clear profile and image of the region (Hospers, 2006). Around 150 Danish and Swedish companies as well as public organisations are members of this network and own the rights of the trademark for the Oresund Region as well as have access to logotypes (Figure 3.6). According to Hospers (2006) “the branding of Oresund builds upon unique regional assets and is symbolised by visible objects (e.g. the Oresund Bridge and a regional logo)” and attempts to be known through various place marketing instruments, such as media including web; Oresund stands, days, events and missions.

Figure 3.6 Some symbols used in branding the Øresund (Hospers, 2006)

One of the success factors of the Oresund region strategy was "branding while building" (Hospers, 2006), suggesting that branding was used during the process of spatial-economic transformation together with the new slogan "Oresund: The Human Capital", Nordic touch by using letter "Ø" and symbolised by the Oresund Link (Hospers, 2006). In addition to this, Denmark is the happiest country in the world, based on reported happiness and life satisfaction according to World Values Surveys (subjective well-being in 97 countries, 2008). However, Hospers (2006) acknowledges that there is a gap between identity of the region and the selected brand (imagination and strategy).

New Zealand's brand created (Figure 3.7) by New Zealand Trade and Enterprise (NZTE), the country's leading trade and development agency, uses an image of a fern as a logo. It combines values of the country brand which are hardiness, honesty, friendliness and hard working (Florek and Insch, 2008). The use of the fern goes back to 1884 when New Zealand's first rugby team played against Australia in a dark blue shirt with a golden fern. The symbol of fern was also used to brand food, sporting equipment, clothing, textiles and even services like travel and education; it was also used by government organisations and institutions. Now brand New Zealand including the Fern Mark and dedicated URL (New Zealand, n. d.) is owned by NZTE and Tourism New Zealand (TNZ) through a joint venture company, The New Zealand Way Limited (TNZWL).

Figure 3.7 Fern Mark by The New Zealand Way (Florek and Insch, 2008)

NZTE use the slogan “New Zealand New Thinking” and TNZ apply the “100% pure”; they both build an overall New Zealand’s brand personality (Florek and Insch, 2008). Furthermore, The Fern Mark (logo) has been registered in New Zealand, Australia, Germany, Japan, Singapore, Taiwan and the USA to protect its use by other organisations abroad. Campelo *et al.* (2011) analysed 100% Pure New Zealand advertising campaign and discussed the importance of visual oratory advertisements giving attention to the ethics.

Jensen (2005) describes one more branding story, which is different to the one above, of a Danish city Randers (a city of Jutland) with 30,000 inhabitants. The city was dependent on industrial production, and also was overshadowed by neighbouring and the second largest city in Denmark, Aarhus; it was struggling with its negative image for many years. In an attempt to change this, the Municipality tasked a company to brand the city as a result of which an appropriate strategy of logos, fairytales, design manuals, letter-heads, and the usual merchandise were proposed. The suggested logo was the letter of the shape of a capital “R” as the name of the city begins with same letter (similar story to Manchester’s) containing a number of symbols among other things the salmon of the Randers fjord. As a counter, the alternative logo (Figure 3.8) was produced with silhouette of the raw fishbone, a junkie’s needle, beer bottles, motorbikes and stinking dog dirt. According to Jensen (2005) the local news paper explained this “anti-branding” logo as a protest against the picture that cannot be recognized by the citizens.

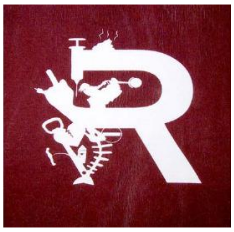


Figure 3.8 The anti-branding logo in Randers (Jensen, 2005)

The last case of place branding in contrast to the examples of strong brands above represents “anti-branding” logo as a result of differing views of citizens and Municipality in relation to band values and personality. To avoid this, Jensen

(2005) suggests that consumer of city brand and receiver of the branding message need to be defined clearly, and finally explores two sets of issues in this particular situation (Table 3.5).

Table 3.5 Practical problems and critical issues of urban branding (Jensen, 2005)

'Practical' problems

- Who are the brand consumers? Are they the city inhabitants, commuters, city users, business people or tourists?
- How to target communication, if you are not sure who your target group is?

Critical issues

- The democratically legitimate base for branding
- Identity production
- Protection of minorities
- Social inclusion
- Commodification of the city
- 'Living the brand'

Brown *et al.* (2013) analysed the Belfast city brand (logo is a proportioned capital letter be to look like a heart with the word "Belfast" written down one side and slogan consisting of the prefix "Be" coupled with prefixes such as "Be Inspired", "Be Vibrant", "Be Here Now", "Be Part of It"). Similarly like Randers logo, the Belfast logo was also strongly criticised for looking like "BSI safety kite-mark, a saggy-bottomed settee, and Dolly Parton viewed from above" or even a copy of New York's logo, alternative negative slogans like were also suggested (Brown *et al.*, 2013). Authors analysed the paradox "Bad is Good" or, in other words, when the "best" marketing strategy becomes a "bad" strategy arguing that such practices are common when it comes to place studies and made a suggestion that perhaps simple and systematic brand concepts are no longer recognised and they are no longer fit for purpose.

Bradford is a multi-cultural city in the North of England with evident poverty and decline (one of the 28 most deprived districts in the UK) and representing many stakeholders and communities with their own very different needs and perceptions affecting and contributing to city's identity. This can be seen from the following examples. Initiative "Bradford: a surprising place" is an example of transformation of former industrial city to a tourist destination for short break holidays based on themes, such as industrial heritage, mills shopping, television and films, photography, the Bronte's in the early-mid 1980s with new themes in late 1990s, such as flavours of Asia, Bradford festival, cathedral 2000 project or "City of light" (Trueman *et al.*, 2004). According to the same authors, Bradford's name was negatively affected by conflicts on streets between white and Asian communities in 1998 and 2001 and aspirations for Bradford to become a "city of culture" in 2008 were not supported by local businesses as "culture is not necessarily synonymous with commerce". To bring consistency in messages about Bradford, a strategic marketing document "2020 vision" was launched by local District Council; prior a consultation with stakeholders was organised which revealed a common opinion that there was a need "to improve its image and restore pride in the city" with focus on improvement of urban environment (Trueman *et al.*, 2004). However Trueman's *et al.* (2004) analysis by using AC2ID test (described in section 3.4.4) revealed some negative implications, for example, the 2020 vision is not supported by visual evidence of changes, perceptions of stakeholders in relation to city of culture initiative were not taken into consideration and, finally, communicated identity does not mach actual identity.

Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2007) give an example of Amsterdam which, is believed, had too many slogans, such as "Amsterdam Has It", "Small City, Big Business" or "Cool City", that did not represent the whole city with its values and there was no guidance for brand usage. The latest branding campaign was launched in September 2004 as a result of new marketing strategy aimed at improving of Amsterdam's attractiveness. The main coordinator of this activity is a newly created Public–Private Partnership "Amsterdam Partners". The proposed slogan for the city to represent it to the world is "I amsterdam" (Figure 3.9) for the reason that it is short, clear and easy to remember.

I amsterdam®

Figure 3.9 The new logo for Amsterdam (Kavaratzis and Ashworth, 2007)

This slogan seems to have been developed having residents in mind, however Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2007) criticise brand of “I amsterdam” in that it does not express the main values of the city and is simply used as another promotional tool; they also acclaim a confusion of the terms of “image”, “brand” and “logo”. The same authors have doubts whether the latest slogan reflects all the selected target groups and do not see evidence that it expresses creativity, innovation or spirit of commerce.

Greenberg (2008) reports that the fiscal crisis in New York in the 1970s inspired the launch of a new brand for the city in 1977 “I love New York” (Figure 3.10), as probably one of the most successful urban branding campaigns. In 1971, Alitalia, the Italian Airline, published a series of shocking advertisements with the Statue of Liberty with a tear sinking into the ocean and announcing that New York will disappear in such a way announcing non-stop flights to the United States without stopping in New York City. They strengthened already existing disturbing images in media (especially television and film industry) “portraying New York City as a sinking, dying metropolis” (Greenberg, 2008). The city was still in post-industrial era when the first official marketing campaign “I love New York” was launched and later became a global success. According to Greenberg (2008), it was “a new and hegemonic, convincing and enticing vision” of New York, “upheld as a symbol for the nation”. In 1978, New York started recovering. Prior to this, New York magazine was founded in 1967 presenting city as “a hip place to live, work, and shop for young, social climbing urbanites” (Chan, 2008) and in 1971 a tourism marketing campaign “Big Apple” was created which was not successful.

Figure 3.10 Logo for New York designed by Milton Glaser (Chan, 2008)

According to Chan (2008), Greenberg described the “I love New York” campaign as very successful, at least in cultural terms because local talent was used to design the logo; furthermore, it was not only the transformation of the image from a dirty working class city; the new brand represented the real and symbolic transformation as well as the restructuring of political and economic relations which became more business and tourist-friendly (Chan, 2008), in other words, had consumer and investor-oriented vision (Greenberg, 2008). The same author supports the criticism of Greenberg that for at least 15 years the new brand affected business elite and people from outside the town but not working-class residents or the poor; moreover it has had “negative effects on the diversity and the affordability of the city; the dynamic mix of the economic base of the city; and the resilience of the city in response to crisis, because it is so dependent now on finance, real estate and tourism” but “empowered a new class of service workers, like hotel workers and security guards, and residents more broadly” (Chan, 2008).

The story of Oldham re-branding (Figure 2.10) presents some issues concerning branding success as well. The consultant, Hemisphere, was commissioned to organise the renewal of Oldham which was meant to “usher in a new era for the town and the borough at large” (Kadembo, 2010). The Hemisphere established existing perceptions of Oldham and identified the image that Oldham wants to portray – brand, and developed the written and visual methods of communication as well as marketing strategy. The consultant recommends an image for Oldham as a better place to live with easily accessible services and different stakeholders working in cooperation and, finally, ensuring that Oldham is a better place. Kadembo (2010) discusses Oldham’s attributes (cultural diversity, a young population, 50% of the countryside is green, has a strong heritage, easily accessible and in the proximity of growing Manchester), personality (caution, innovation and constructive thinking) and brand values (friendly, inclusive, contributing, pragmatic, intelligent, wise, productive, positive, moving forward) – all contributing to Oldham’s identity. “However, the town identity on its own does not complete the true re-branding of the town, i.e. branding is not only about what the organisation or individual says” (Kadembo, 2010). According to the same author, the consultant did not tackle the key issues as well as did not address some sensitive issues despite employing the framework in developing the new brand which mirrors Ghodeswar's (2008) approach (Section 3.4.4). On top of that the logo has been suggested as a three dimensional circle representing oneness. Kadembo (2010) criticises this initiative by calling it the "answer to political whispers" and argues that it has no meaning to investor, tourist or employee and is not strong enough to sell Oldham as a tourist, investment or sporting destination, etc.; logo appears to be targeted at those who already live in Oldham.

Visdeloup (2010) gives few examples of how development "of unique style" and attractions can bring success to locations. For example, after Bilbao experienced decline in steel and shipbuilding industries in 20th century, the new Bilbao's strategy was to become "a centre for tourism and modern service industries" (Visdeloup, 2010), as a result of which Guggenheim museum was opened in 1997 and the new Metro underground railway with street-level entrances was also built. Hollywood is being associated with celebrities, stars and films; this is the result of film making activities for decades and town branding as "the home of the American movie" (Visdeloup, 2010). The same author mentions Toyota city in Japan being synonymous with Toyota car make and Wolfsburg in Germany being synonymous with Volkswagen car make and "both strongly and almost exclusively branded by their characteristic car makes" (Visdeloup, 2010). Detroit has a nickname of "Motown" (Visdeloup, 2010) for being automotive capital and home for General Motors, Chrysler and Ford. After the recent General Motors and Chrysler collapse, private investors Hantz Farms came up with an idea to transform Detroit into "the world's largest urban farm" (Visdeloup, 2010). Lindblom, F., Lorentz, E. and Pettersson, R. (2012) described how Destination Jonkoping campaign "Vi sakuar dig" (we miss you) was launched to attract primarily academic people with previous connections to Jonkoping back to this city; initiatives included messages with names on billboards in other cities, deliveries with gifts from Jonkoping, radio commercials, video greetings on internet, flights to Jonkoping. This is a fantastic example of how people (target group) were directly involved in city's marketing campaign. It also proved that with a good strategy it is possible to reach out people and be heard by them. In a sense, this is what Peter Saville was talking about in Section 2.2.5 when suggesting to tackle any shortcomings in ways other than traditional brochures, etc. Winfield-Pfefferkorn, J. (2005) explored branding of New York, Paris, San Francisco, Rochester, Berlin and Charlotte and analysed their strengths and weaknesses but did not provide any formulas or tools to help to determine success, instead suggested items that are important in the city branding. Cvijic and Guzijan (2013) discussed using cultural and historical heritage in brand creation for Trebinje city while other authors (Bodet and Lacassagne (2012), Herstein and Berger (2013), Brencis and Ikkala (2013)) analysed place branding through sporting events.

Figure 3.11 Examples of place logos

Examples of place branding (Figure 3.11) provided in the literature, some of which are described in this section, do not propose clear methodologies on how to evaluate success of branding initiatives. The examples above show that the media reviews can take precedence over its success or failure, for example, in the Randers' case. Furthermore, authors do not make any comparisons whether brands achieved what was portrayed, except Hospers (2006) who comments on the mismatch between reality and political vision based on territorial emergence. Trueman *et al.* (2004) approached this issue by using theoretical concepts of product and corporate branding.

Consequently the issues described above lead to the need to establish a framework or for evaluation of how successful branding of a place is. Zenker's (2011) findings show that it has not been widely accepted yet "what should comprise a place brand measurement". Insights of currently existing tools are described in sections 3.4 and 3.5.

3.4 Product, service and corporate brand models

As discussed in Section 3.2.3.2, product branding can give some valuable insights for place branding because it has a longer history and greater knowledge accumulated. Moreover, both of them perform the same functions such as differentiation, information, ensuring value, communication with customers via brand, etc. Places like products can have distinctive names, logos, symbols and slogans, etc. as part of their brand. Product developer needs to have a clear idea, what brand wants to achieve and where it will be in the future; the same applies to the place branding. There are differences between product and place branding as well; Section 3.2.3.2 discussed them highlighting the complexity of location branding and intangible features in relation to product branding. This particularly becomes apparent when trying to measure the success of branding. In product branding, it can be expressed in the form of sales figures or turnover while in place branding success would be regarded as acceptance and recognition of the brand by public. It should be noted that positive word-of-mouth applies to both, product and place branding.

For the reasons discussed above, it is worth observing the models and frameworks developed for products/ services or corporate brands as they might present some useful insights. In addition, many of them were used as a base to develop place brand models and some of their principles were adopted to place brands. Furthermore, Gotsi *et al.* (2011) believe that corporate images influence country image, for example, names such as "Apple, Boeing, Coca-Cola, Disney, Ford, IBM, Kodak, Levis, McDonald's and Xerox have helped shape the image of the USA".

3.4.1 A model for strategically building brands by de Chernatony (2001)

De Chernatony (2001) developed a model for strategically growing and sustaining brands (Figure 3.12), which builds on “the asset of knowledgeable and committed staff” and “encourages a holistic, company-wide perspective to be adopted” (de Chernatony, 2001).

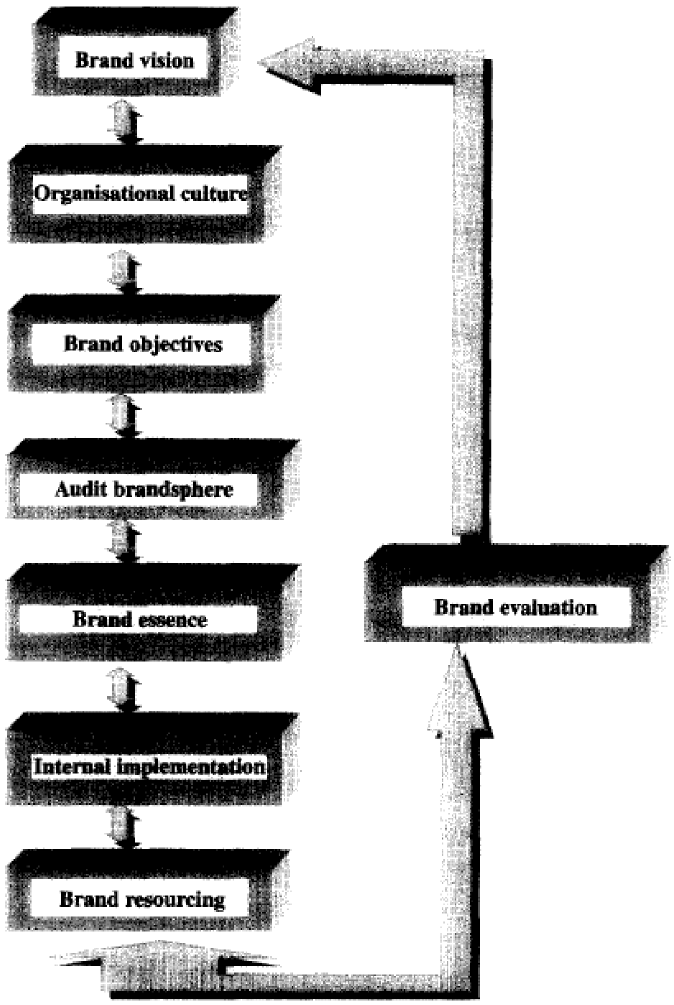


Figure 3.12 Process for building and sustaining brands (de Chernatony, 2001)

The process starts with brand vision; senior management develop it. Vision can be redefined at any time and allows reconsider ideas developed at earlier stages. According to de Chernatony (2001), the brand vision has three components:

envisioned future (what type of brand it will be in ten years time; Delphi technique (will be discussed in Section 3.5.5) can be used to make assumptions for the future), brand purpose (considers how brand will contribute to the world), brand values (they influence staff behaviour). Vision is then followed by the organisational culture (it is about "how customers receive it" (de Chernatony, 2001) and supports brand by using logo, staff wearing uniform, etc.), brand objectives (de Chernatony (2001) suggests using two-stage process, where long term objectives are set first and then broken down into short term objectives), audit brandsphere (i.e. audit of corporation, distributors, customers, competitors, macro environment – this influences stronger strategies). The next component is brand essence or promise (encompasses audit analysis and insights following it; the brand pyramid reflects the promise: attributes are on the base, followed by benefits, emotional rewards and values, personality traits are on the top). By following the flow chart in Figure 3.12, the next dimension is internal implementation (delivery of production or service) followed by brand resourcing (enables brand promise to be implemented in practice and is characterised by eight elements like sign of ownership, functional capabilities, service components, risk reducer, legal protection, shorthand notation, symbol feature and distinctive name). The last dimension in the model is evaluation; it is needed to "monitor the suitability of the internal supporting systems along with the external favourability of the brand's essence and the satisfaction" (de Chernatony, 2001). The feedback after the brand implementation gives insights into weaknesses and strengths of it as well as possible suggestions for future strategies.

3.4.2 The criteria for successful service brands by de Chernatony and Segal-Horn (2003)

De Chernatony and Segal-Horn (2003) undertook a review of the services management and branding literature following which they developed and tested a services branding model thus contributing to service branding knowledge. The authors argue that branding models developed for products are not entirely suitable for service brands because of their intangible nature, quality reliance on staff and customers and service brands interactions. The critical element in service branding is staff behaviour; however the model draws upon some of the principles of product branding.

De Chernatony and Segal-Horn (2003) explain that the process in the service brand model (Figure 3.13) originates from corporate culture, which defines the core values and influences staff behaviour. This enables the definition of the services brand's promise which is then communicated internally together with the service vision and customer expectations to staff through training, co-ordinated service delivery systems or organisational processes (e.g. staff development). Finally, the consumer receives the service brand which he/ she can then compare with the promised one. Greater consumer satisfaction depends on a "holistic brand image, which integrates entities such values, colours, name, symbols, words and slogans" (De Chernatony and Segal-Horn, 2003). The last dimension in the model closing the service delivery circle is the relationship which is based on trust between the services brand and the consumer and this influences corporate culture.

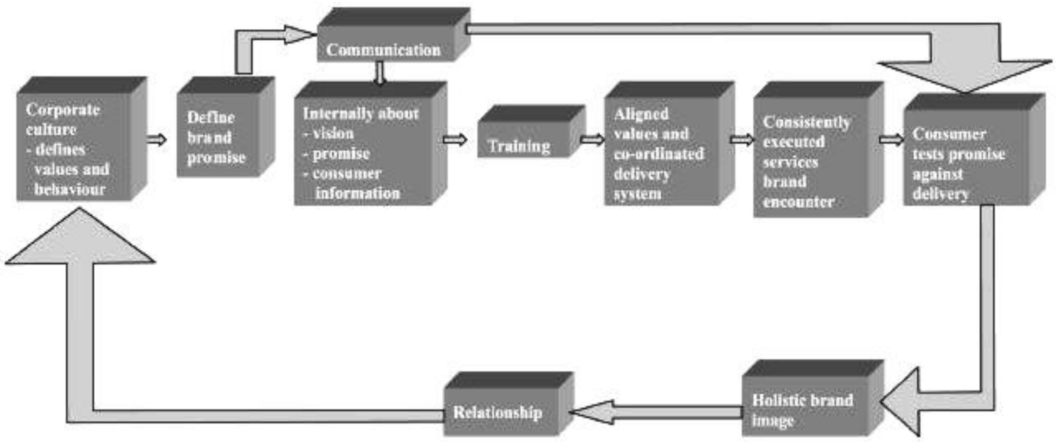


Figure 3.13 The criteria influencing the success of service brands (de Chernatony and Segal-Horn, 2003)

The model was tested using in-depth interviews with 28 leading-edge consultants based around London and selected for their high profile complemented the proposed model (de Chernatony and Segal-Horn, 2003). According to the same authors, "through shared values, there is a greater likelihood of commitment, internal loyalty, clearer brand understanding, and importantly, consistent brand delivery across all stakeholders". This study demonstrates that stronger service brand can be achieved by having the greater consistency and integration within the brand. Notwithstanding, authors suggest some future research, e.g. three main success criteria (focus, consistency and values) could be tested in different service industries with different characteristics; services brand managers could be interviewed about best practices when implementing successful services brands; the relationships between the human and non-human elements involved in achieving consistency could be also analysed.

3.4.3 The corporate brand association base model by Uggla (2006)

Uggla (2006) developed the "corporate brand association base" model which he describes as a conceptual framework for "brand-to-brand collaboration". According to the author, the proposed model will assist brand managers in "co-positioning corporate brands and assessing risks" as well as designing "strategic brand alliances" (Ugla, 2006). It links the corporate brand associations, partner associations and institutional associations (Figure 3.14). The corporate brand associations are described by Uggla (2006) as "links that a corporate brand establishes to internal and external partner associations such as brands, persons, places, product categories and institutions that add (or subtract) to end customer image and equity derived from the corporate brand". Partner associations are linked to the corporate brand and can be components, product categories, persons or places. Institutions are associated with society and culture (for example, university or church is regarded as institution). According to Uggla (2006), fair trade can be defined as an institutional association as connects with the idea of social responsibility. The same author also describes symbol, index and icon. The first one is a subjective sign (for example, Nike is a symbol of sports fashion), index is described as a special and inseparable link between the brand and the product while icon is based on similarity and looks like its object.

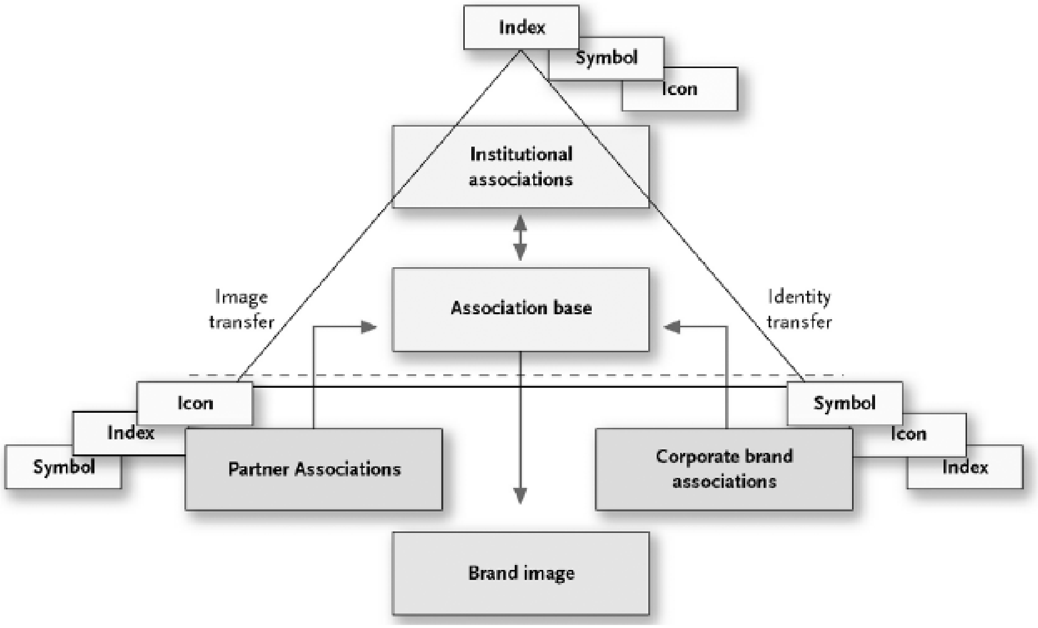


Figure 3.14 Corporate brand association base (Uggla, 2006)

The corporate brand association model portrays how a corporate brand can develop “more expansive brand architecture” (Uggla, 2006) or, in other words, brand structure. It can help improve brand relationship with customers, integrate corporate brand marketing programs as well as effectively connect internal and external marketing. According to Uggla (2006), this “model is based on the basic assumption that partner brands in the surrounding environment should and could be viewed as an inclusive part of the corporate brand’s own extended brand territory”.

Uggla (2006) admits that there are potential disadvantages of corporate brand collaboration including risks, such as of loss of control, confused positioning and lost focus in target groups; all this weakens the brand image and may result in less potential in the future, there is a risk to lose control over the corporate brand’s identity, core values and associations. Furthermore, according to Ugla (2006), positioning and identity of brand may change over time; some brands are more sensitive to brand leveraging.

3.4.4 Framework for building brand identity (Ghodeswar, 2008)

Based on extensive literature review and empirical research, Ghodeswar (2009) has developed the PCDL (positioning, communicating, delivering and leveraging) model as a guideline on how to create identity for the brand for the selected target market. This model has four main elements: positioning the brand, communicating the brand message, delivering the brand performance and leveraging the brand equity (Figure 3.15). The author describes them in detail.

Ghodeswar (2008) defines positioning as a creation of “the perception of a brand in the customer’s mind and achieving differentiation” or, in other words, “it stands apart from competitors’ brands/ offerings and that it meets the consumer’s needs/ expectations”. Positioning involves features, tangible and intangible attributes of product/ service, product functions, benefits (physical and emotional) and operational. In order to succeed, the brand needs to be appropriately communicated to the target audiences and this can be done in numerous ways as described in Figure 3.15. The third step in branding is delivering brand performance – Ghodeswar (2008) suggests that brand performance needs to be monitored: “they should track the progress as to how their brands are doing in the marketplace” as this enables influence on target customers. The final component in the model is leveraging the brand equity when brand associations can be expanded by, for example using line extensions, brand extensions, ingredient branding and co-branding, etc. (Ghodeswar, 2008). The same author argues that brands need to be positioned in the minds of consumers and therefore it is useful to know what consumer needs and preferences are. “Integrated brand communications and creative repetition through various types of media is a key to success in brand communications” (Ghodeswar, 2008). Three case studies of Indian brands (mail order poster shop, antiseptic skin cream and coconut hair oil) were undertaken in order to investigate their approach for brand building which seem to reinforce the proposed PCDL model. Ghodeswar (2008) does not analyse advantages or disadvantages of the model but suggests some important points in brand creation in general, be it product, service or corporate brand, for example “companies need to position their brands in the minds of consumers”.

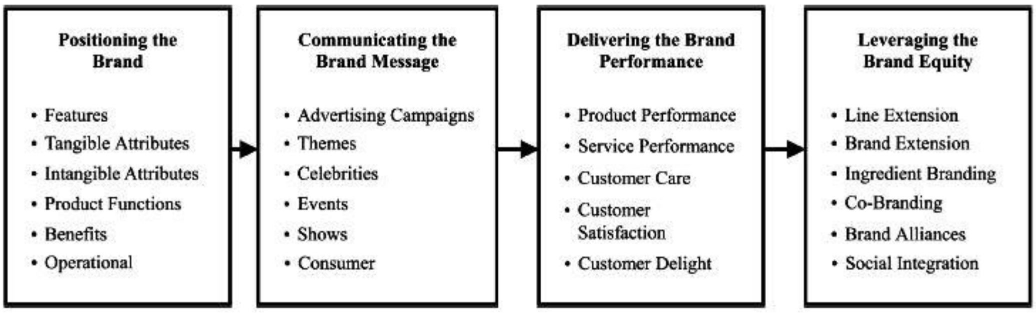


Figure 3.15 PCDL Model (Ghodeswar, 2008)

3.4.5 Types of marketing and their influence on the perceptions of the service brand by Brodie (2009)

Brodie (2009) noted that there is already a lot of research on brand image and identity and their influence on consumer behaviour; recent research concentrates on what "role brands play in the value-adding processes that lead to creation of the customers' experiences" (Brodie, 2009). As a result of this, brand interacts with end customers as well as company, its employees and stakeholder. Brodie (2009) calls this process the "service brand" and presents a theoretical framework in Figure 3.16.

The framework (Figure 3.16) presents three types of perceptions of the service brands: customers' and stakeholders', organisational and employees' that are influenced by three types of marketing which Brodie (2009) describes as following:

1. External marketing (communication between the organization and customers making promises about the service offer).
2. Interactive marketing (interactions between people working within the organization/ network and end customers that create the service experience associated with delivering promises about the service offer).
3. Internal marketing (the resources and processes enabling and facilitating promises about the service offer involving the organization and people working in the organization).

This framework analyses brands in a broader context as it includes not only customers, but company and its employees with other stakeholders. However, Brodie (2009) admits that this framework could be used more widely and applied to communities or extended into a network covering perceptions or retailers, media, government regulators, etc. The author does not provide empirical support for the theoretical framework, however states that this has been done but agrees that further research is needed to refine the theory of service brand.

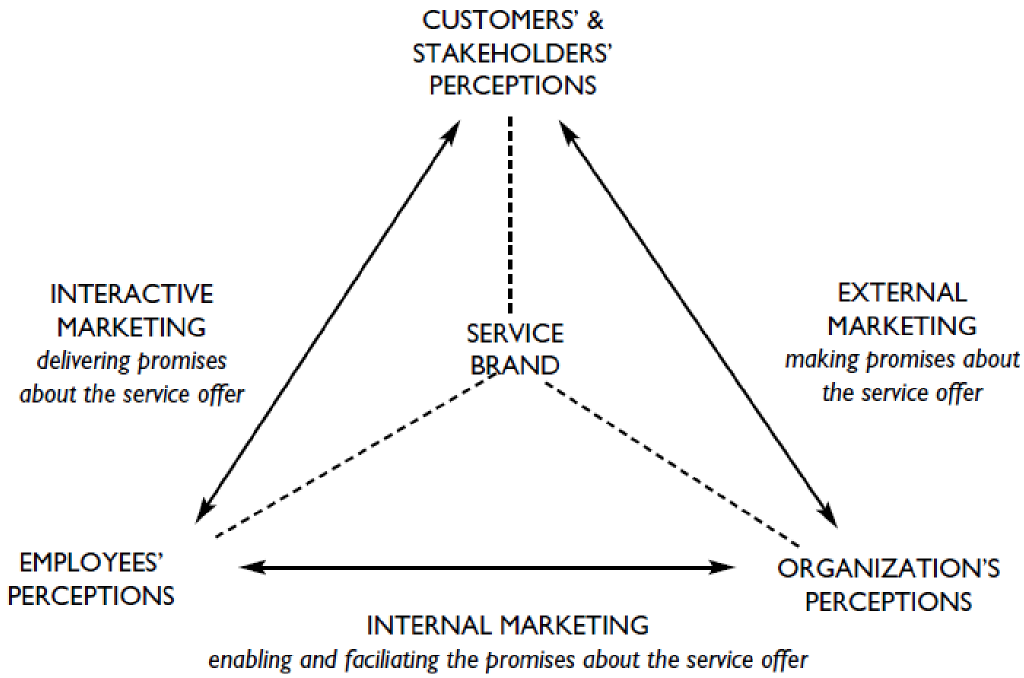


Figure 3.16 Types of marketing and their influence on the perceptions of the service brand (Brodie, 2009)

3.4.6 A dynamic model of brand architecture management by Muzellec and Lambkin (2009)

Muzellec and Lambkin (2009) examined the relationships between product and corporate brands in an attempt to "clarify the role and function of corporate branding in the context of different brand architectures". The interactions between corporate brands, product/ services brands and their audiences are portrayed in a model of brand architecture management (Figure 3.17). The focus of this Muzellec's and Lambkin's (2009) analysis is the vertical dimension of the model, i.e. interrelation between corporate images and product brand images. The model is designed to show how changes in one of the brand architecture levels are reflected in the remaining levels.

The authors explain that two broad strategic approaches can be used in the (re)branding process and they are integration and separation. The first strategy combines the corporation, its businesses and products and they come under a single name or "master brand" (Musellec and Lambkin,2009). This strategy is also known as "branded house", e.g. Virgin Cola, Virgin Music, Virgin Airlines, and Virgin Jeans (Muzellec and Lambkin, 2009). The opposite of integration is a separation strategy or "house of brands" (Muzellec and Lambkin, 2009) which separates the corporate brand and product brand hereby allowing introduce new product brand without negative associations that corporate brands might already have, e.g. P&G manages brands like Pampers diapers, Iams dog food and Tide laundry powder (Muzellec and Lambkin, 2009). As a result of strategy analysis, authors identified three possible types of corporate brand strategy: the 'trade name', the 'business brand' and the 'holistic corporate brand'.

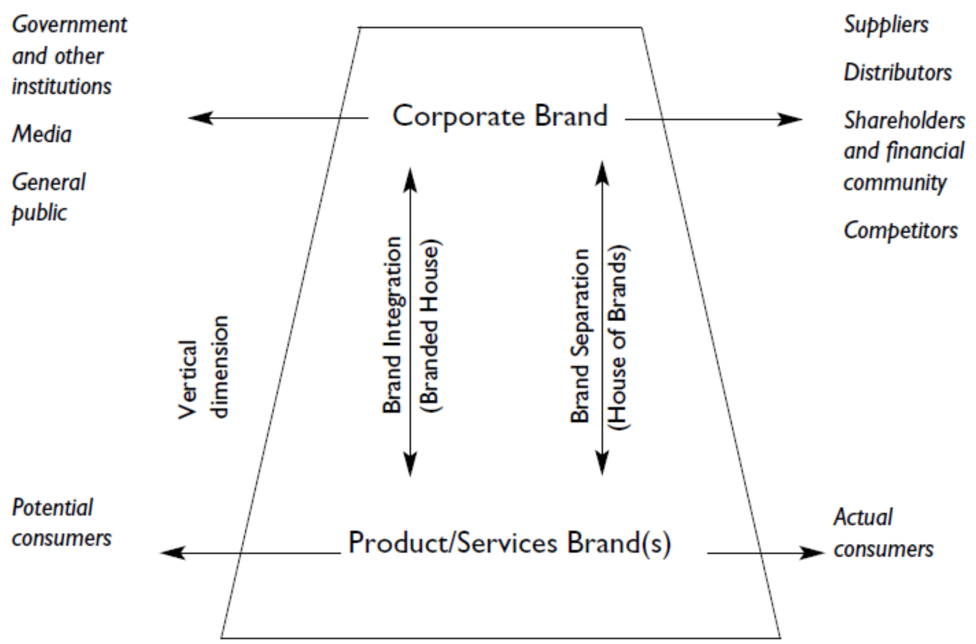


Figure 3.17 A dynamic model of brand architecture management (Muzellec and Lambkin, 2009)

3.4.7 Evaluation of models

De Chernatony's (2001) brand building model provides a comprehensive structure for building brands. Unfortunately, the author does not provide example of model testing except some examples to explain model dimensions. However, the proposed model is interesting and valuable for its focus on organisational culture and recognition of emotional and intellectual strengths of employees. The author argues that staff, or more precisely organisational culture, can strongly contribute to a brand's functional and emotional values. Similarly de Chernatony's and Segal-Horn's (2003) services brand model highlights that company culture and staff behaviour are major contributors for services brand success. Adopting these models to place brand, the critical contributors would be its people; however, external stakeholders cannot be forgotten either.

Uggla (2006) analysed brand associations and presented the model of corporate brand association which gave some useful general insights, for example, taking brand associations into account. Combining internal and external partner associations can help to improve customer satisfaction with the brand and assess the risk. It is still not very clear how the model would work in practice as the author does not present validation of it.

Ghodeswar (2008) proposes a model for building brands (the PCDL model). It consists of four consecutive stages namely, positioning the brand, communicating the brand message, delivering the brand performance and leveraging the brand equity. It is a simple model comparing to other models described in this chapter but presenting the basics of branding and therefore can be widely applicable. Obviously it could be applied not only to products or services, but places as well. Admittedly, it gives guidelines how to succeed – consistent integrated communications or messages along the brand identity and targeted towards customers contribute to the success of the brand (Ghodeswar, 2008).

Brodie's (2009) framework analyses influence by various types of marketing on the perceptions of service brands. It is important to note, that this framework recognises the social responsibility in brands. Similarly like the other three models, it focuses on the people factor and is valuable for its integrative approach to different perceptions (customers, organisation and employees).

Muzellec and Lambkin (2009) developed a dynamic model of brand architecture management. It gives some useful general theoretical insights but does not provide empirical evidence except some examples. Most importantly, the model considers actual and potential consumers on top of marketing channels and other influential bodies, such as media, government, competitors, etc.

All of these models recognised that customers are important in branding so all of them have customers' dimension, with the exception of the corporate brand association base model by Uggla (2006). However, the last mentioned model embraces the idea of social responsibility. It is interesting to note that the first model (by de Chernatony (2001)) has brand evaluation phase which ensures that customer satisfaction is supported by internal processes, in other words internal processes enable achievement of customer satisfaction. De Chernatony's and Segal-Horn's (2003) model incorporates indirect evaluation phase when customer compares the promise with the delivery and based on this defines the relationship with the service brand.

3.5 Existing place branding models

In terms of branding, a place can be analysed as a product but it is more complex comparing to product as Sections 3.2.3.2 and 3.4 discussed. It is expected that empirically testable models with integrative approach along theoretical knowledge would assist practitioners in understanding place branding phenomenon. There have been several attempts to develop a model for place branding analysing various aspects of it; they all strive to understand this feature better. Some of the models are described below.

3.5.1 Brand box model

Brand box model was originally developed for goods by de Chernatony and McWilliam (1989) and replicated later with tourism brands by Clarke (2000). Finally Caldwell and Freire (2004) have applied the brand box model to various countries, regions and cities.

3.5.1.1 Brand box model developed by de Chernatony and McWilliam (1989)

De Chernatony and McWilliam (1989) reviewed the evolution of brands developed by manufacturers as well as distributors in an attempt to understand how brand strategies originate and elaborate. They came to the conclusion that there are two key dimensions clarifying the brand: representationality (helps express something about customer, e.g. Giorgio Armani watch) and functionality (satisfies consumers' needs in terms of quality, reliability, speed, taste, strength, etc, e.g. Sony). Based on literature on brand characteristics, they established a method based on two dimensional matrix for the development of effective brand strategies; its aim is to assist managers in better understanding the nature of the brands that they are responsible for. “The brands box model” (De Chernatony and McWilliam, 1989) is a four-cell matrix based on these two dimensions (Figure 3.18).

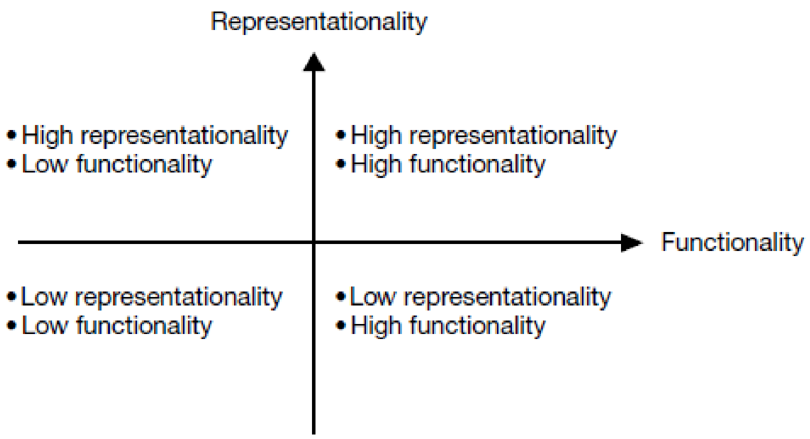


Figure 3.18 De Chernatony’s Brand Box Model (Caldwell and Freire, 2004)

De Chernatony and McWilliam (1989) describe and explain each quadrant in the brands box and also give examples from practice:

- High representationality – high functionality (such brand guarantees high quality, excellence and competence and is reflected in the high price; brand is expected to maintain these characteristics, for example, Rolls Royce, Rolex or Marks and Spencer, etc.).
- Low representationality - high functionality (brand belonging to this quadrant provides high practicality in satisfying customer functionality needs and typically having wide but distribution links, for example, Domestos).
- High representationality – low functionality (this brand reflects symbolic attributes rather than functional paying attention to representation, it needs continuous advertising and can be obtained from selected distributors, for example, Martini).
- Low representationality - low functionality (brand from this quadrant represents goods of commodity with no need for expression (this is important for high representationality – high functionality brand) or satisfaction of functional needs; usually such brand has wide distribution along competitive price, for example, Sarsons vinegar or Spar shops).

Based on this model, brand can be assigned to one of four quadrants described above; a certain set of characteristics in each quadrant provides insights for relevant strategies.

3.5.1.2 Brand box model replicated by Clarke (2000)

Clarke (2000) replicated study by de Chernatony and McWilliam (1989) and carried out an exploratory research applying the brands box model (with no intention to develop it further) to the tourism brands seeking not only "to investigate the public perception in Oxford of the representationality and functionality dimensions of six tourism brands but also to suggest possible explanations for the pattern alongside implications for marketing practice". The brands are "household names" (Clarke, 2000) from different tourism sectors assuming that they represent different target markets (British Airways, Club 18-30, the National Trust, Orient Express, Thomson Holidays and Virgin Atlantic). 26 non-tourism first-year students took part in the study. Analysis of the results revealed that all the tourism brands of Oxford are concentrated in one quadrant of the matrix that represents high representationality and high functionality.

3.5.1.3 Brand box model adapted by Caldwell and Freire (2004)

Caldwell and Freire (2004) applied the Brand box model to countries, regions and cities in order to evaluate dimensions of representationality and functionality of these geographic locations with the aim "to understand and clarify whether the same branding techniques should be applied to these three different types of places". Their study was conducted in Portugal and in the UK, two different markets, in the context of tourism destinations with ten European destinations and the USA and Miami in order to understand "how national and regional destination brands are perceived in different countries" (Caldwell and Freire, 2004). Respondents (students from London University (UK) and Universidade do Algarve (Portugal) who took part in this study are very diverse in terms of their nationalities and parts of the world they come from) had to be familiar with these destinations and have some previous knowledge about them.

Caldwell and Freire (2004) argue that destinations as brands satisfy both, intangible (reflects needs of "self-expression") and functional (represents practicality and performance, for example, architecture, sun, beaches, etc.) needs. They adapted De Chernatony's and McWilliam's (1990) attitude statements for destination brands; they are described in Table 3.6.

Summarising research on "the brands box model", de Chernatony and McWilliam (1989) state that brands exist in consumers' minds (Ghodeswar (2008) expressed similar opinion in relation to product/ service brands (see Section 3.4.4)) supporting the brands box model and its two dimensions. Caldwell and Freire (2004) remind that brands are characterised by both dimensions (a certain degree of representationality and a certain degree of functionality) and not only by one of them. Clarke (2000) analysed brands box model by de Chernatony and McWilliam (1989) and carried exploratory study by applying the model to tourism brands and raising some possible questions for future research.

Table 3.6 Adaptation of attitude statements for destination brands (Caldwell and Freire, 2004)

De Chernatony and McWilliam (1990) physical study attitude statements	Adapted attitude statements for destination brand study
Representationality	**Representationality**
This brand says something about its owner	Destination somehow defines the people who travel there
You've got to feel right among our friends owning this brand	People feel right amongst their friends because they can say that they went to [destination]
People would buy this brand because they feel it associates them with a certain group of people	People would go to [destination] because they feel it associates them with a certain group of people
Functionality	**Functionality**
You buy this brand more for its product characteristics than for its advertising	People travel to [destination] no for its publicised image but more for its actual characteristics
People buy this product because the company puts more effort into the product, rather than saying who'd be using it	People go to [destination] not because the place emphasises the sort of people who travel there but because the place puts more effort into creating a pleasant experience
This product says more about the product's characteristics than the type of buyer	When you think about [destination] you think more about the region's characteristics then the type of visitor

De Chernatony and McWilliam (1989) have made marketing recommendations for strategies of good's brands which according to Clarke (2000) to some extent can be applied to tourism brands too. As Caldwell's and Freire's (2004) research shows this method can also be adapted to place brands, i.e. countries and regions, however, Clarke (2000) did not include destinations brands in her study for several reasons:

- Places presented as brand names might confuse respondents as destinations are not perceived as brands by the general public.
- Aside from practical considerations, destination brands are more complex than product brands and are less well developed.
- Destination brands are owned by the many stakeholders within the spatial boundary and are subject to persuasion and cooperation in order to function.
- There is less management control over the destination brand than in a single organisation.

Caldwell and Freire (2004) name their research as innovative because it looks at the differences between a country, a region or a city branding if there are any. Their research shows that destination brands would it be country, region or city, can be analysed like products and their findings show that countries are "functionally diverse" so should focus on the emotional or representational dimensions of their brand while regions and cities are smaller, as well as more specific, and are perceived from a functional point of view so they should concentrate on branding their functional aspects (Caldwell and Freire, 2004). However, the authors suggest that the last-mentioned strategy should be used only in the European market.

Caldwell and Freire (2004) mention another important aspect in destination branding – it is fashion. They believe that places come in to and go out of fashion so it is important to understand reasons for this. However, it is not a focus of this study.

3.5.2 Model of destination branding by Cai (2002)

Cai (2002) analysed literature in relation to destination image and investigated the use of "cooperative branding across multiple rural communities". In order to brand a destination, Cai (2002) suggests to build an image by choosing "an optimal brand element mix and identifying the most relevant brand associations". He proposed a conceptual "model of destination branding" (Cai, 2002) but centering on building identity for destination (Figure 3.19) which is "expected to assist DMOs in aligning important marketing strategies with its image and identity building and vice versa". The base for this study is Anderson's (1983) psychological theory of adaptive control of thoughts and Gartner's framework of destination image formation process.

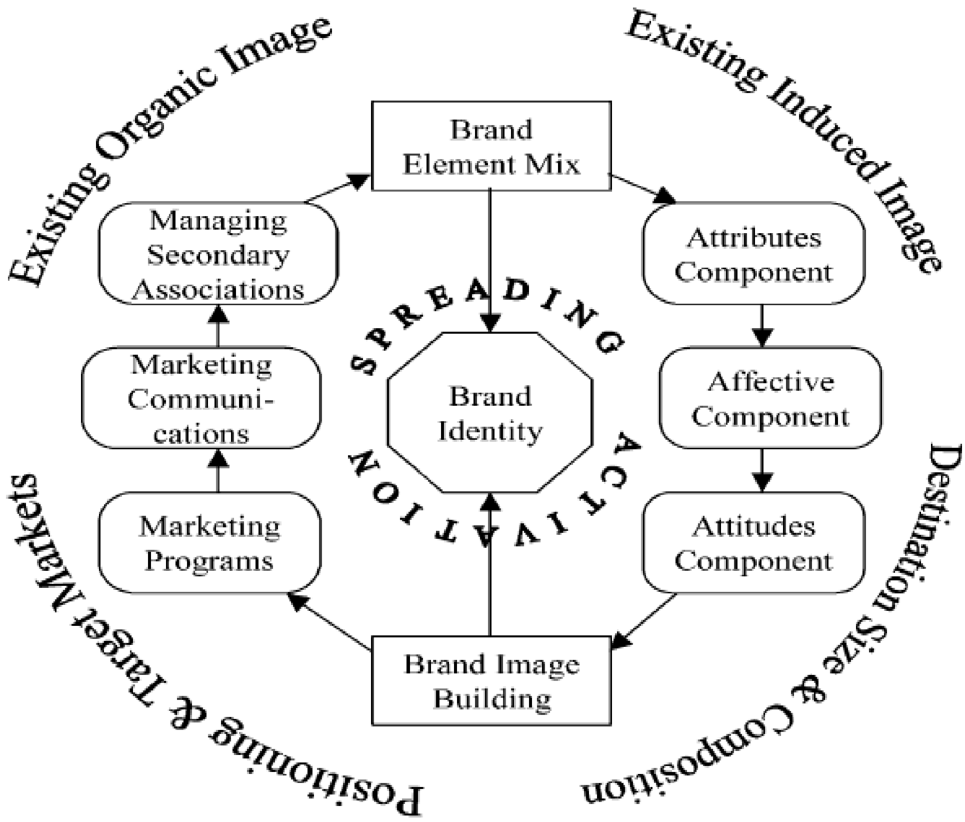


Figure 3.19 Model of destination branding (Cai, 2002)

This model demonstrates the role and position of place image in branding process. The central axis in this model is formed by brand element mix, brand identity and brand image building around which the destination branding process revolves (Cai (2002) describes it as a recursive). The author then explains that selection of one or more brand elements (slogans, logos) creates brand associations which reflect the three components (3As) on the right side in Figure 3.19: attributes (tangible and intangible characteristics of the destination), affective (personal value, desired benefits, etc.) and attitudes (reflects overall evaluation and reasons for action or certain behaviour). 3As enable evaluation of the perceived and projected images based on which a desired imaged can be created and communicated using there are 3Ms on the left hand side of the model: marketing programmes (improved visitor experiences, attractions, etc.), marketing communications (media including television, radio and magazines, etc.; advertising, promotions, etc.) and managing secondary associations (associations other than DMO's direct marketing initiatives). 4Cs surround the model (existing induced image, destination size and composition, positioning and target markets, existing organic image).

Cai (2002) illustrated the application of the proposed model to Old West Country, a destination-marketing consortium in seven counties of New Mexico in USA. Five hypotheses were tested asserting that "cooperative branding across multiple rural communities builds a stronger brand identity" (Cai, 2002). People who made enquiries and requested materials about Old West Country (during a 12-month period in 1995-1996) were randomly selected to participate in the study. Following this, two other similar studies were carried out for Las Cruces Convention and Visitors Bureau and Silver City/ Grant County Chamber of Commerce in 1998, both members of Old West Country.

This study is valuable for its comprehensive approach to destination image and the possibility to assess the gap between the perceived and projected image (Cai, 2002); another useful part of the research is that cooperative branding allows to give destination a unique name (not geographical). This study also contributes to the existing theoretical knowledge on destination image by providing empirical evidence; it presents a conceptual model and thus closes the gap between an existing destination image studies and the contemporary marketing concept of branding (Cai, 2002). Nevertheless, Cai (2002) agrees that additional empirical studies are needed to validate this conceptual model with the possibility to modify and apply to urban centres, states or countries.

3.5.3 A conceptual model of the place brand by Hankinson (2004)

Hankinson (2004) analysed literature related to classical branding theories, relational exchange and the network marketing and as a result of which he identified and described "four main streams of brand conceptualization" as follows (Hankinson, 2004):

- Brands as communicators - "a brand represents a mark of ownership and a means of product differentiation manifested in legally protected names, logos and trademarks".
- Brands as perceptual entities - "brands appeal to the customer's senses, reason and emotions", "to the consumer, the brand image is characterized by a set of associations or attributes to which consumers attach personal value".
- Brands as value enhancers – it "has led to the development of the concept of brand equity", "brands operate as risk reducers and reduce search costs".
- Brands as relationships – "the brand is construed as having a personality which enables it to form a relationship with the consumer".

Based upon his research, Hankinson (2004) then developed a general model for the place brand reflecting relationships in the brand (Figure 3.20). Core brand is based in the centre is surrounded by four categories of brand relationships: consumer, primary service, media and brand infrastructure relationships. "These relationships are dynamic" (Hankinson, 2004). Furthermore, they support the core brand and interact with each other. According to the author, all this ensures the success of a place branding.

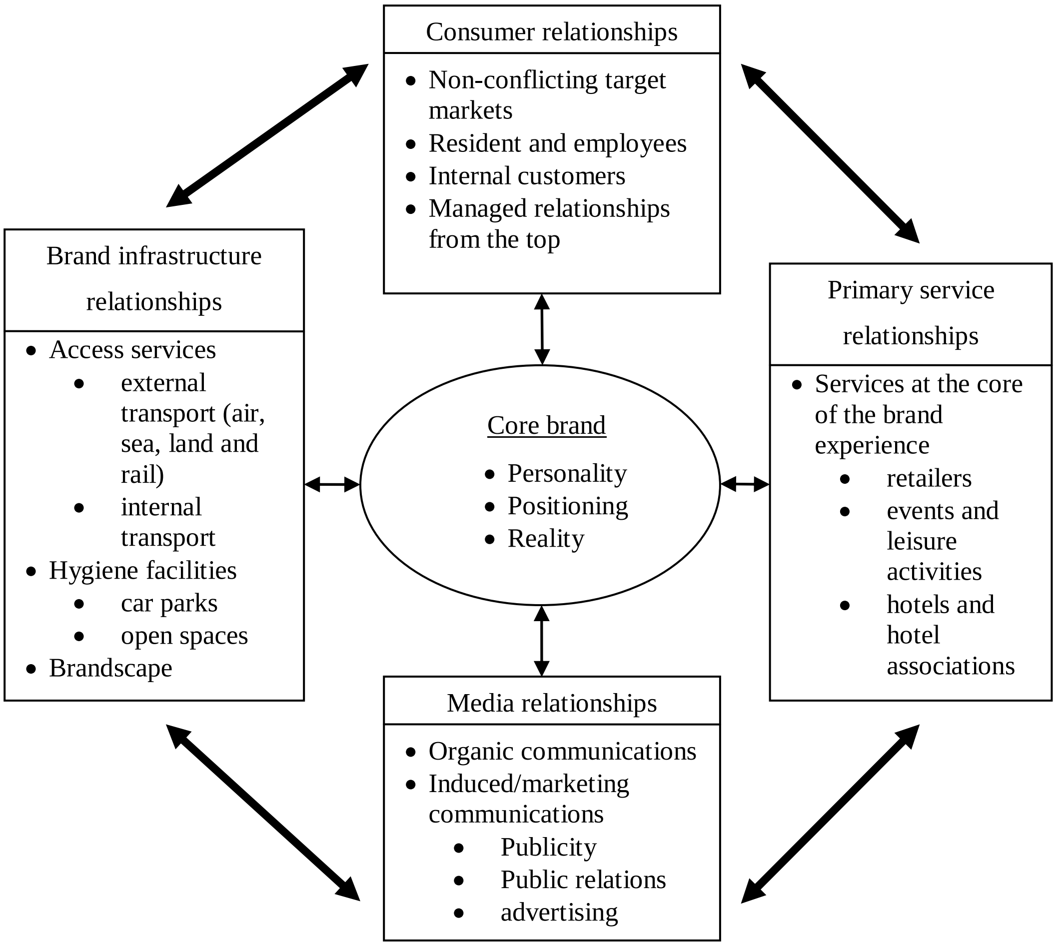


Figure 3.20 The relational network brand (Hankinson, 2004)

I. Core brand:

The core brand in the model represents identity of place; it is the vision for the city and can be described by three elements: personality, positioning and reality. Personality Hankinson (2004) characterizes by functional (tangible), symbolic (intangible) and experiential attributes (Table 3.7):

Table 3.7 Components of brand personality (Hankinson, 2004)

Potential functional attributes

- Museums, art galleries, theatres and concert halls
- Leisure and sports activities and facilities
- Conference and exhibition facilities
- Public spaces
- Hotels, restaurants, night clubs and entertainment

- Transport infrastructure and access

Potential symbolic attributes

- The character of the local residents
- The profile of typical visitors (i.e. age, income, interests and values)
- Descriptors of the quality of service (provided by service contact personnel)

Potential experiential attributes

- How the destination will make visitors feel (i.e. relaxed, excited or fascinated)
- Descriptors of the built environment (i.e. historic, modern, green and spacious)
- Descriptors related to security and safety

2. Positioning consists of (Hankinson, 2004):

- Attributes making city similar to other places
- Attributes making city a unique city.

3. Brand reality means that personality and positioning have to be real, not only a vision, so that "promised experience is to be fulfilled" (Hankinson, 2004). Further, branding relies on relevant investments or facilities, etc.; success of the brand depends on relationships with stakeholders that are divided into four groups.

II. Four categories of relationships: primary service, brand infrastructure, consumer and media (Hankinson, 2004):

1. *Primary services* include:
    - Retailers and retailer associations
    - Hotels and hotel association
    - Events and leisure organisations
    - Organisations responsible for the management of historic monuments and buildings.

According to the author, this category reflects the expected behaviors, ways to communicate the brand values or manners in dealing with enquiries and complaints, etc.

2. *Brand infrastructure*:

Access services:

- external transport (air, sea, land and rail)
- internal transport (park-and-ride, walkways)

Hygiene facilities:

- car parks
- toilets
- baby-changing facilities
- street cleaning

Brandscape (refers to the built environment)

3. *Media and communications:*

Organic communications (arts and education)

Induced/ marketing communications:

- publicity
- public relations
- advertising

4. *Consumer groups:*

- Non-conflicting target markets
- Residents and employees
- Internal customers
- Managed relationships from the top

According to Taszi and Kozak (2006), Hankinson (2004) analysed destination brands as relationships summarising them as the match between destination image and image held by visitors, in other words a match between the brand and consumers. For the success of the place brand, it is important that there is a match between needs of the consumer and values of the brand as well as functional attributes (Tasci and Kozak, 2006). It is worth noting that this model needs to be tested in practice.

3.5.4 AC2ID test of corporate identity adopted by Trueman *et al.* (2004)

Trueman *et al.* (2004) argue that corporate identity practices can be applied to city as brand. To demonstrate this, they applied Balmer's "AC2ID test of corporate identity management" (Balmer, 2001 in Trueman *et al.* (2004)) (Figure 3.21) to Bradford in an attempt to identify the mismatch and variances between official strategies by local government and stakeholders' perceptions about the city. Ofori (2010) used the same model to analyse effectiveness of Manchester brand identity communication.

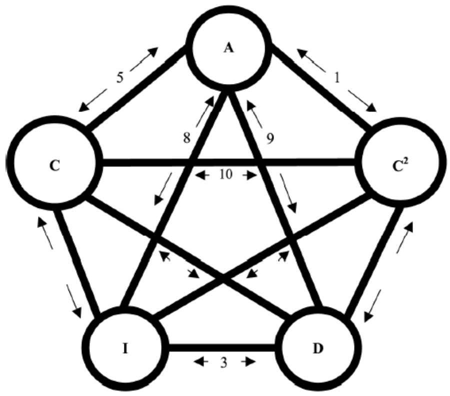


Figure 3.21 The AC2ID TestTM of corporate identity management (Balmer (2001) in Trueman et al. (2004))

The framework comprises of five identities: actual identity (A), communicated identity (C), conceived identity (C2), ideal identity (I) and desired identity (D); together they lay the foundation for the development of the place image and related strategies. They are explained in Table 3.8. It is important to understand each one of these identities. According to Trueman *et al.* (2004), the presence of any discrepancies between these identities indicates the existence of weaknesses in current strategies.

Table 3.8 The five identities ((Balmer and Greyser (2002) in Trueman et al. (2004))

Actual identity	The actual identity constitutes the current attributes of the corporation. It is shaped by a number of elements, including corporate ownership, the leadership style of management, organisational structure, business activities and markets covered, the range and quality of products and services offered, and overall business performance. Also encompassed is the set of values held by management and employees
Communicated identity	The communicated identity is most clearly revealed through "controllable" corporate communications. This typically encompasses advertising sponsorship, and public relations. In addition, it derives from " non-controllable" communication, e.g. word-of-mouth, media commentary and the like
Conceived identity	The conceived identity refers to perceptual concepts – corporate image, corporate reputation, and corporate branding. These are the perceptions of the company – its multi-attribute and overall corporate image and reputation – held by relevant stakeholders. Management must make a judgement as to which groups' perceptions are most important
Ideal identity	The ideal identity is the optimum positioning of the organization in its market (or markets) in a given time frame. This is normally based on current knowledge from the strategic planners and others about the organization's capabilities and prospects in the context of general business and competitive environment. The specifics of a given entity's ideal identity are subject to fluctuation based on external factors – e.g. the nuclear power industry after Chernobyl; and industries (such as travel, transport equipment, and security systems) affected negatively and positively by the 11 September World Trade Centre catastrophe
Desired identity	The desired identity lives in the hearts and minds of corporate leaders. It is their vision for the organization. Although this identity type is often misguidedly assumed to be virtually identical to the ideal identity, they typically come from different sources. Whereas the ideal identity normally emerges after a period of research and analysis, the desired identity may have more to do with a vision informed by a CEO's personality and ego than with a rational assessment of the organisations actual identity in a particular timeframe

Although study leaders acknowledged that each topic was not fully explored and analysed due to various limitations, this study still proved effectiveness of the AC2ID framework as it gave insights into what public perceptions are as well as captured inconsistencies between identities, especially between perceived identity by stakeholders and proposed identity by the local Council. Ofori's (2010) findings also revealed discrepancies between Manchester's communicated and conceived actual and conceived identities.

3.5.5 Delphic brand vision model proposed by Virgo and de Chernatony (2005)

Virgo and de Chernatony (2005) propose using the Delphi process in the creation of "multiple stakeholder buy-in to a single brand vision" in order to create a strong and cohesive brand. Brand vision model was initially created for product and service brands but Virgo and de Chernatony (2005) decided to apply it to city branding as "the concept of city branding covers similar concepts as conventional branding". This means that models created for product branding can be adapted to cities as well.

Figure 3.22 presents a process of how to *buy-in* from the "brand steerers" to a consistent and unifying city's brand vision (Virgo and de Chernatony, 2005). The top of the model reflects a range of different views and perceptions about the city's brand vision using the structure of future, purpose and values. Based on the Delphi technique, the range of comments about the brand's vision (zone of malleability) narrows down at each round of the process and it should be repeated as many times until all the steerers agree on single unifying vision (*buy-in* zone).

The below described model was applied to the city of Birmingham, a big post-industrial with multiple brand steerers and various stakeholders, active agency responsible for its marketing. Vision for Birmingham was described by steerers as follows (Virgo and de Chernatony, 2005):

- **Birmingham's Envisioned Future:** In a time of globalised competition and choice people will pick Birmingham for its excellent reputation as a vibrant and pleasant European place to do business, find specialist skills and connect as a gateway to the world.

- **Birmingham's Brand Purpose:** To give citizens confidence and pride (confidence and pride in their own brilliance; confidence and pride in creating a sustainable economy; confidence and pride in their city & its environment; confidence and pride to participate on a world stage).
- **Birmingham's Brand Values:** Connected, International, Creative, Young and Brilliant.

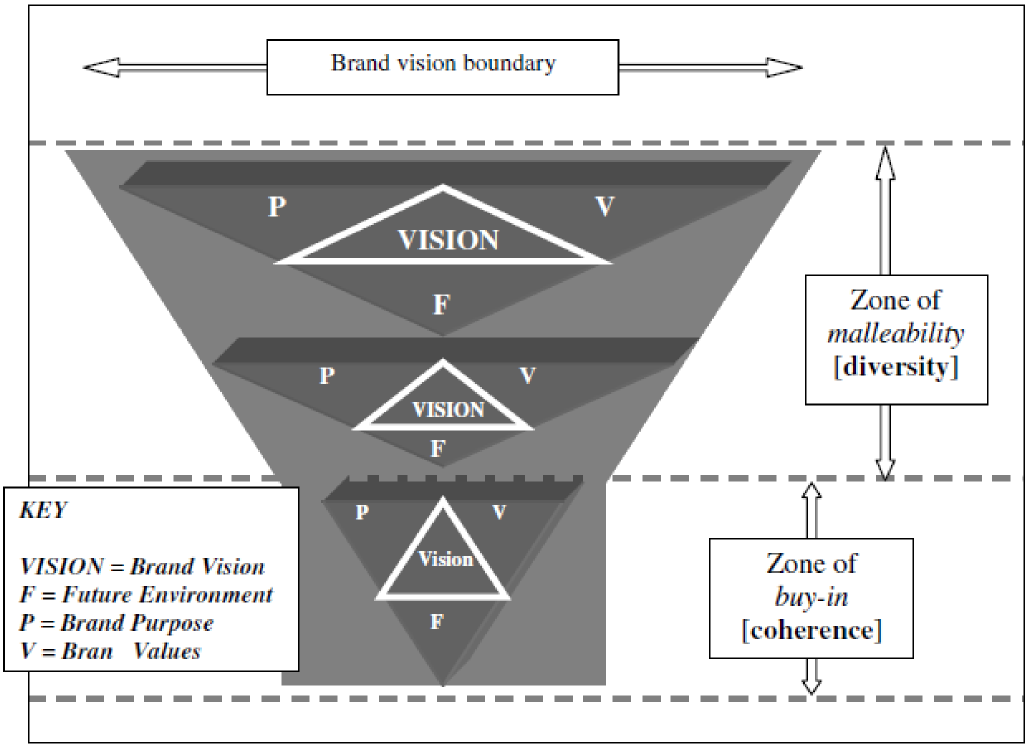


Figure 3.22 Delphic brand vision buy-in model (Virgo and de Chernatony, 2005)

Only diverse steerers (top-level managers) were interviewed in this study, however stakeholders like residents should not be excluded because they also influence values of the city thus the validity of this research would increase involving other stakeholders as well. Virgo and de Chernatony (2005) acknowledged this reasoning financial limitation. Nevertheless, empirical research proves that the Delphic brand vision model can be useful as a tool in processes aimed at unifying brand vision, especially where a number of brand steerers takes part.

3.5.6 A model of destination brand, destination image and ramifications and interrelationships between them by Tasci and Kozak (2006)

Tasci and Kozak (2006) carried out the study "to explore how experts perceive the meaning of destination branding and its main characteristics" in an attempt to clarify any confusions that still exist in the literature in relation to the concept of a "brand", in the tourist destination context. Tasci and Kozak (2006) argue that success of brand development is influenced by the accuracy of brand or image definition. Based on their study (a group of 86 academics, researchers and practitioners from the travel and tourism sector (from USA, European, Asian and Middle Eastern countries) was surveyed in relation to brand in the context of tourist destinations) and existing academic literature a model of branding in the tourism destination context was proposed (Figure 3.23).

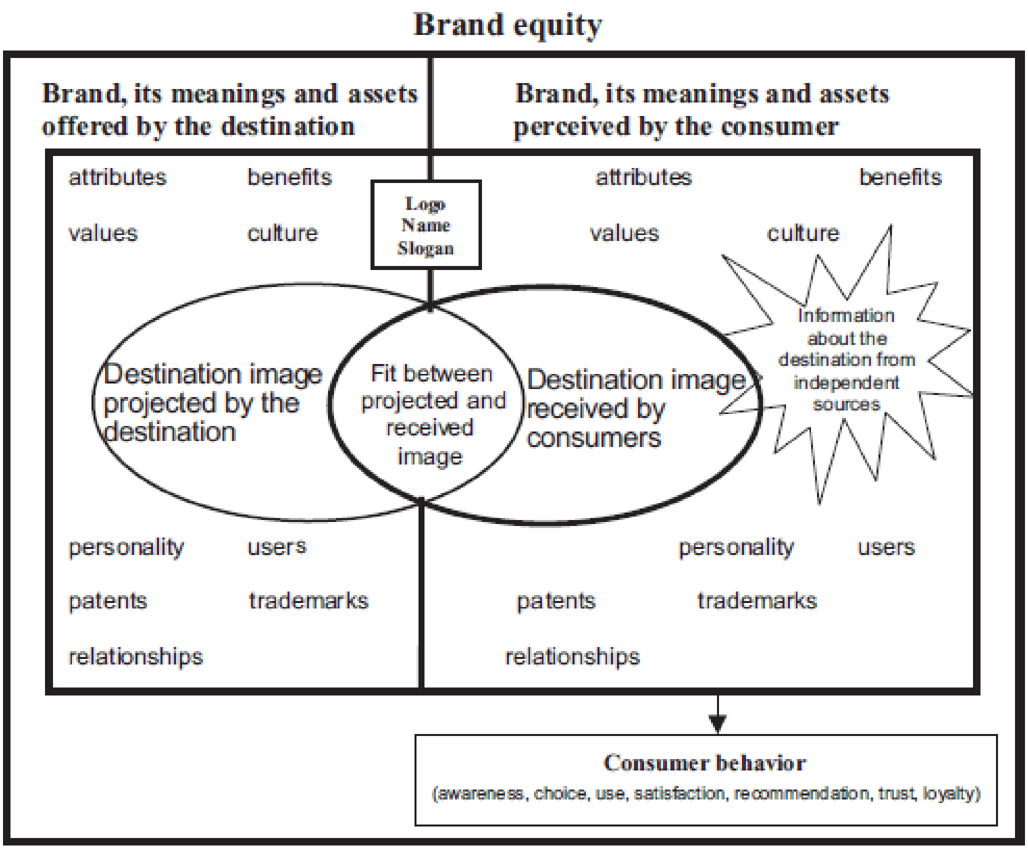


Figure 3.23 A model of destination brand, destination image and ramifications and interrelationships between them (Tasci and Kozak, 2006)

The proposed model consists of two different images: offered (projected) and received (perceived) brand including their meanings and assets. The projected image once perceived by the consumer will be likely different from the projected one (Figure 3.4 demonstrates transmission process) due to potential influence of information from various sources like media, word-of-mouth, etc. Based on this model, the level of discrepancies or fit between the projected and received brand defines success of destination marketing activities.

Visual triggers like logo, name and slogan are placed in a common area of the model as they remain the same for both projected and perceived brand. Brand perceived by the consumer would influence his/ her behaviour (awareness, choice, use, satisfaction, recommendation, trust and loyalty).

The results of Tasci's and Kozak's (2006) study revealed that "a lack of conception and consensus" on "branding" concept still exists. Furthermore, their work supports Cai's (2002) arguments that image is very important but is only a part of branding process. The proposed model defines destination brand and its image. Tasci and Kozak (2006) suggest that the developed model could be applied to destinations in order to validate described concepts and evaluated by experts, e.g. using the Delphi study. The same authors also recognised several limitations in their study. For example, responses of 19 experts from 86 (some countries did not respond at all) and a lack of anonymity could result in less valid results. For future studies, Tasci and Kozak (2006) also suggested involving larger numbers of respondents as well as utilising other qualitative research methodologies, conducting face-to-face interviews instead of emails, etc.

3.5.7 Structural model of city branding by Merrilees *et al.* (2007)

Merrilees *et al.* (2007) argue that "the residents are a major stakeholder in tourism and their perspective has been overlooked". To address this, they developed a "structural model of city branding" (Merrilees *et al*,. 2007) (Figure 3.24) where focus is on brand attitudes of residents (they are defined by community attributes). Merrilees *et al.* (2007) also studied the "behavioural consequences of these attitudes" and "the antecedents of brand attitudes". The proposed model consists of three equations as below:

1. Occasional tourism intentions (OTI) = f(Brand; Shopping)
2. Brand = f(Social)
3. Social = f(Nature; Vibrancy; Recreation)

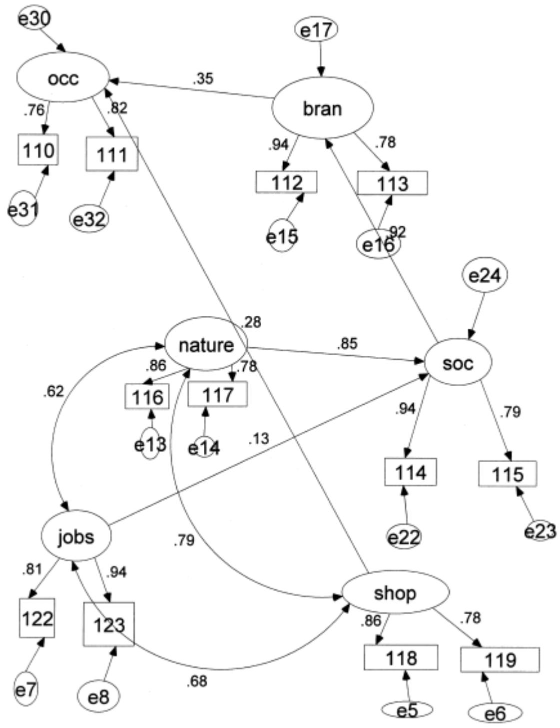


Figure 3.24 Structural model of city branding (Merrilees et al., 2007)

Merrilees *et al.* (2007) define brand as city brand attitudes of residents; social relates to social capital as well as social or interpersonal relationships; nature portrays natural landscape; vibrancy reflects business vibrancy, growth of jobs, and finally recreation represents activities/ facilities for enjoyment. The authors also explain that variables such as social, nature and vibrancy are considered as community variables while brand attitudes reflect specific features. The first link in the model above demonstrates connection between brand attitudes and behavioural intentions.

Merrilees *et al.* (2007) tested the proposed on residents of Cairns in Queensland, Australia where eight suburbs were selected with diverse groups and self-administered surveys distributed directly to households. Survey variables were measured in two phases using 7-point Likert scales with 1 being equal to “strongly disagree” and 7 – “strongly agree”.

Research conducted by Merrilees *et al.* (2007) is innovative because is focused on the city brand attitudes of residents. Research findings show that social capital influences city brand attitudes and nature has the main influence on social capital, community satisfaction and occasional tourist activity. Merrilees *et al.* (2007) suggest that structural model of city branding presents “tourism authorities with the opportunity to develop tourist destination brands that reflect contemporary society” as well as “maintain a fresh image and evolve together with the changing needs of visitors”. In the later paper Merrilees *et al*., (2013) present a detailed list of city attributes upon which city brand attitudes can be measured. Similarly, Hildreth (2010) also presents ten city image defining criteria (pride and personality of its people; distinctive sense of place (on the ground); ambition/vision (policy) and business climate; current recognition and perceptions; worth going to see; ease, access and comfort; conversational value (the ‘cocktail party’ factor); locational context and value (how much is it worth simply because it is where it is?); attractions and anomalies; “Ooh, I could live here!” (the Barcelona effect)).

3.5.8 Branding framework for designing successful destination strategies by Balakrishnan (2009)

Balakrishnan (2009) reviewed literature in the fields of place marketing, destination marketing, services, product and corporate branding as well as case studies of destinations in an attempt to identify and define key factors in strategic branding of destinations; as a result of this a framework for strategic branding of destinations is presented in Figure 3.25.

Based on literature review, Balakrishnan (2009) described five stages relevant to strategic destination branding:

1) Vision and stakeholder management.

2) Target customer and product portfolio matching.
3) Positioning and differentiation strategies using branding components.
4) Communication strategies.
5) Feedback and response management strategies.

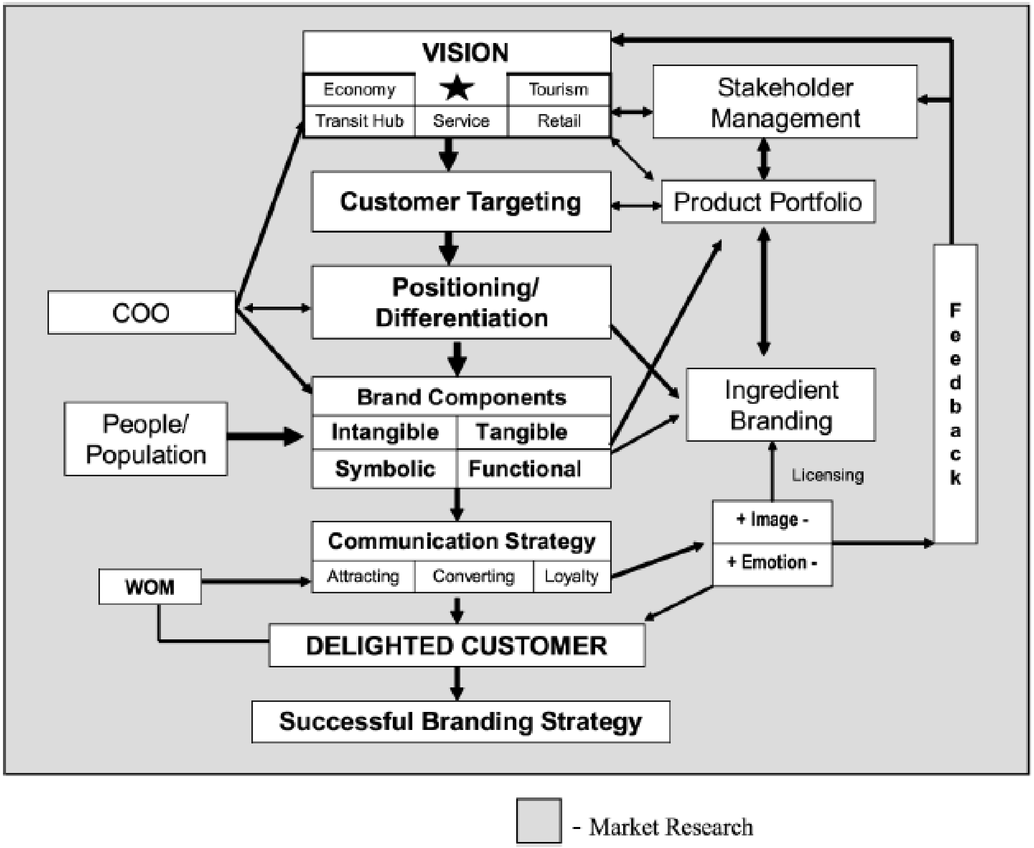


Figure 3.25 Branding strategy for a destination (Balakrishnan, 2009)

The starting point in the framework and branding strategy is vision including six areas for drive: economic considerations, services, transit hub, retail, trade and tourism. According to (Balakrishnan (2009), the success of branding strategy depends on relationships with target customers (both internal and external), products on offer, differentiation along a unique image as well as consistency in positioning and communication, brand components that attract customers. Feedback is also important.

Balakrishnan (2009) suggests using the proposed framework when planning and projecting destination branding strategies as it serves as a guideline. This approach differs from conventional branding which is focused on brand elements. When implementing city branding in practice, Braun (2012) suggests that city branding and city governance need to be combined, however Balakrishnan (2009) does not seem to consider this. The branding strategy framework was validated using a case study of Dubai.

As a result of own research, Balakrishnan (2009) proposes developing a survey tool for gathering customer perceptions and further research on duties of government along their impact on tourism or business. In addition, Balakrishnan (2008) developed the checklist to assist in defining strong brand strategies for destinations:

1) Purpose of the destination brand design and promise.
2) People that will be affected, influencers and target of branding.
3) Performance expected after a realistic audit.
4) Products offered under the destination portfolio and their management.
5) Positioning expected and ways to reinforce it.
6) Process of ensuring the brand promises are delivered as effectively and efficiently as possible.

3.5.9 City identity communication framework by Ofori (2010)

As mentioned in section 3.5.4, Ofori (2010) analysed communication of Manchester brand identity by applying Balmer's (2001) AC2ID Test of Corporate Identity Management (see Section 3.5.4) and found that Manchester's communicated identity (official identity) matches the actual identity (reality), but mismatch exists between the actual and conceived (reputation, image), and communicated and conceived identities. Ofori (2010) provided her recommendations for practitioners in the form of detailed "city identity communication framework" (Figure 3.26) which should serve as a guide.

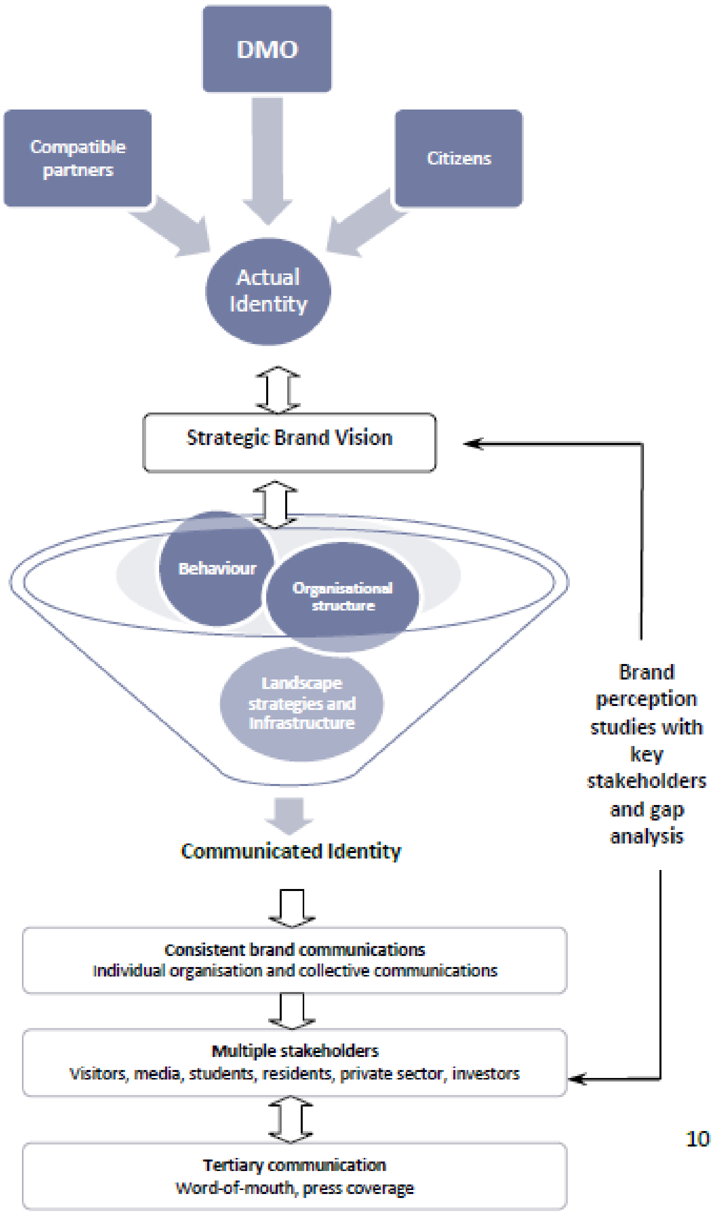


Figure 3.26 City identity communication framework (Ofori, 2010)

According to the above framework, destination marketing organisation (DMO) or other relevant organisations should work in partnership with compatible partners (city council, development agencies, etc.) and citizens in order to establish and define the identity after which strategic brand vision reflecting the actual identity can be determined. Research conducted by Klijn *et al.* (2012) proves that stakeholder involvement in branding matters because “it leads both to a clearer brand concept and to increased effectiveness in terms of attracting target groups such as new inhabitants, visitors and firms”. Changes and initiatives in the city (related to city's behaviour, landscape and infrastructure) must match the desired identity. To ensure consistent and successful brand communication to multiple stakeholders, DMO needs to work in line with partnership organisations. At this stage, Ofori (2010) suggests conducting brand perception studies as well as communication gap analysis and acting upon any discrepancies. Continual feedback in this process would also help to meet expectations. Similarly, Baxter *et al.* (2013) suggested identifying an identity set, assessing it and selecting a competitive identity that is designed and implemented; however, evaluation needs to be carried out to show any changes over time. It is worth mentioning that Ofori (2010) used contents analysis to determine identity while Saez *et al.* (2013) used contents analysis to analyse city branding development and orientation (of 18 Spanish cities).

3.5.10 The model of place brand perception and dimensions of brand evaluation (Zenker, 2011)

After conducting an extensive literature review in place brand measurement Zenker (2011) developed "the model of place brand perception" (picture on the left side of the figure below) as well as identified the need for brand measurement and presented three dimensional model for brand evaluation (picture on the right hand side in Figure 3.27). According to the author process of brand measurement starts with the identity of the place (it reflects physical attributes and in the given model incorporates place communication, physics and word-of-mouth); to measure these, author suggests using quantitative methods while brand perceptions/ associations should be measured using qualitative methods and mixed methods to combine the two.

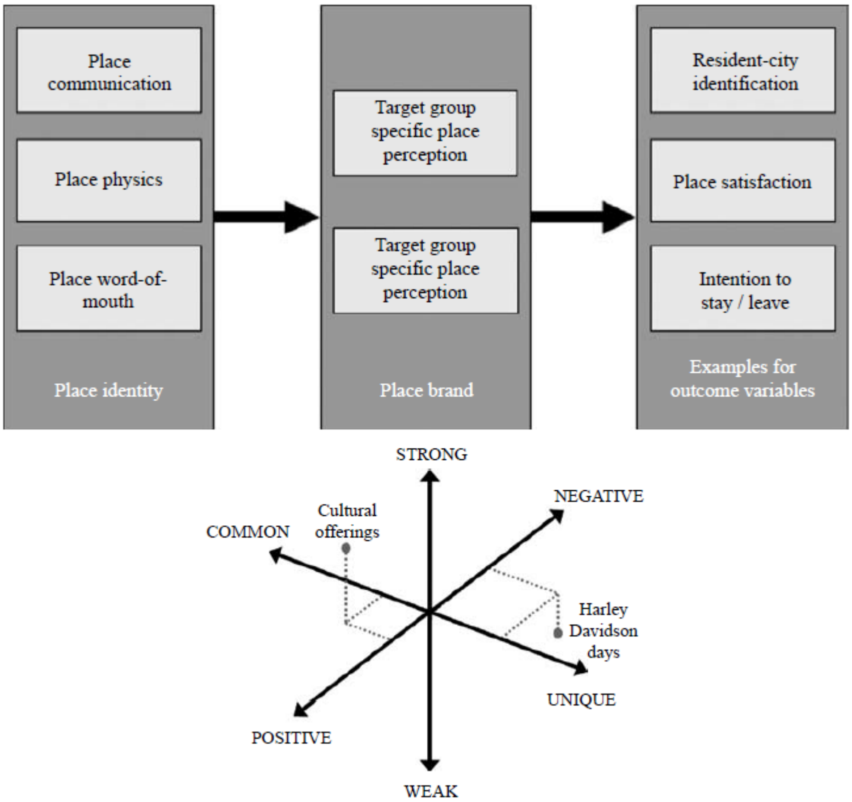


Figure 3.27 The model of place brand perception and dimensions of brand evaluation (Zenker, 2011)

According to the dimensions of brand evaluation model, place elements can be described as positive or negative, strong or weak, common or unique. Zenker (2011) also analysed elements and categories of a place brand. He did not provide a list of elements for the place brand measurement but analysed and summarised categories (place characteristics, place inhabitants, place business, place quality, place familiarity, place history) elements from which should be taken into account. Author does not provide an example of testing this model on a particular place but acknowledges issues of complexity, inefficiency and accuracy when measuring all aspects of the place brand. In addition, Zenker (2011) suggests choosing a group of elements for brand measurement and does not seem to consider vision or values but highlights importance of perceptions/ associations.

3.5.11 Strategic place brand-management model by Hanna and Rowley (2011)

Hanna and Rowley (2011) analysed current models and their components in place branding and brand management, compared their findings identifying gaps and proposed, as it looks, the overall "Strategic place brand-management model" (SPBM) (Hanna and Rowley, 2011) with ten components (Figure 3.28). This represents the whole process of the place branding and is intended to assist brand managers in understanding most important stages in the branding process.

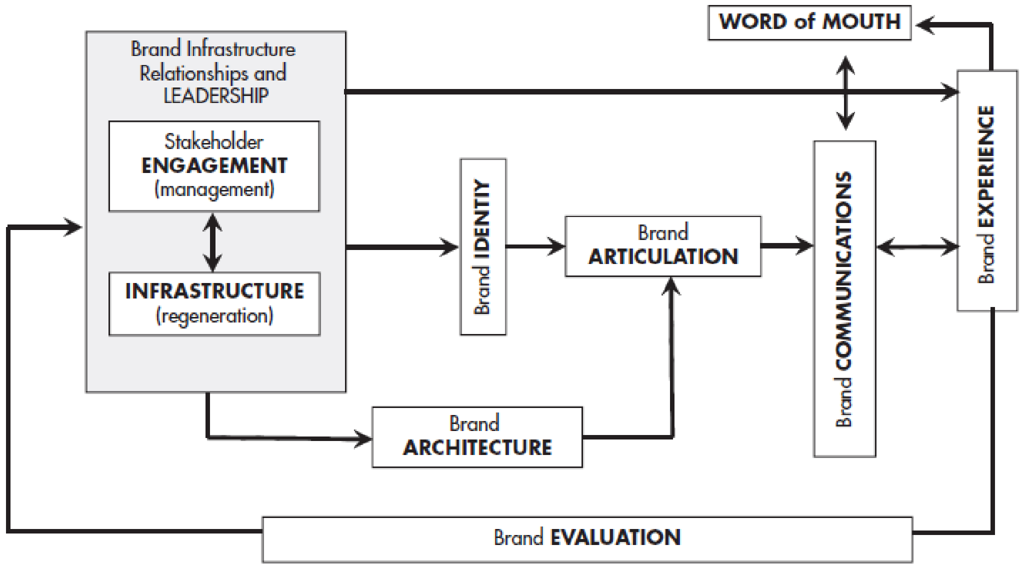


Figure 3.28 Strategic place brand-management model (Hanna and Rowley, 2011)

Hanna and Rowley (2011) state that the main outcome of the branding process is brand experience (but not the image) which authors describe as "a consumer engagement with the brand creating brand perceptions". Brand infrastructure comprises tangible/ functional and intangible/ experiential place attributes. According to Hanna and Rowley (2011) place brand infrastructure and stakeholder engagement (management) "distinguish place branding from product and corporate branding models". Evaluation is feedback on brand experience and it influences brand identity (Hanna and Rowley, 2011). In turn, brand identity reflects the desired image. Hanna and Rowley (2011) state that places comprise of sub-brands, thus there is a need to identify brand architecture. Brand articulation (in the model) reflects the link between identity and communication and comprises brand attributes like logo, slogan, etc. Brand communication directly influences brand experience. Communication and experience generate word of mouth or informal communication. Two-headed arrows reflect the ongoing interaction between components.

Hanna and Rowley (2013) tested the relevance of the above model with various practitioners and confirmed a number of aspects of the proposed model; however, similarly like Zenker (2011) they do not include vision in their model.

3.5.12 Evaluation of models

All the models explored have their strengths and limitations. Cai's (2002), Hankinson's (2004) and Tasci's and Kozak's (2006) models are similar in terms of possibility to test the match between projected and received brand images while brands box model and Delphi process explain more generic branding implications.

The Brands box model covers some important aspects, such as two dimensions of representationality and functionality as well as people's perceptions of destination brand. Caldwell and Freire (2004) proved in their study that places, despite being more complex, can still be branded as products and suggested that functional aspects of regions and cities should be accentuated in branding initiatives as they are smaller and more specific. However, these dimensions do not form an overall understanding about the place brand and cannot be used for evaluation which is a focus of this research. In contrast, Hanna and Rowley (2011) by describing place brand infrastructure and stakeholder engagement demonstrated that place brand differs from product or corporate brand.

Cai's (2002) destination branding model is more inclusive and gives the possibility to assess the difference between perceived and projected image. He explains the process of brand image building which is based on brand element mix and band associations but does not describe brand components in detail unlike Hankinson (2004). Through the results of multidimentional scaling perceptual mapping and ANOVA, Cai (2002) explained the match between what is projected by OWC and what is perceived by its tourists, however it is not clear how to build and develop a brand identity for a particular destination.

Hankinson's (2004) and Taszi's and Kozak's (2006) models seem to be most inclusive but Hankinson's is probably the most user friendly model with elaborated dimensions and "warts and all" approach; however how to measure the fit between brand and its consumers is not clear.

Trueman *et al.* (2004) analyse five types of identity in comparison with other authors who distinguish only two but they do not elaborate elements of each identity; they only list them in the Bradford analysis. The authors name the techniques used for the research but they do not describe the process step-by-step and it is not clear how the interpretations of identities were made. Similarly, the study of Merrilees *et al.* (2007) can be criticised for the lack of explanation how the city branding model works; the authors explain variables, describe two phases of measurement and briefly explain results but it is not clear how the interpretations were made.

Virgo and de Chernatony (2005) employed the Delphi process, originally designed for products and services, and demonstrated its suitability for creation of strong cohesive brand vision for place through practical research on the Birmingham brand. This example demonstrates that the Delphi process by "filtering" ideas suitable for the creation of an imaginary brand but it does not describe components of brand in detail. It also could be used to test the fit between projected and received band image and applying separately for each of these images.

Tasci's and Kozak's (2006) model similarly to Cai's model (2002) allows the evaluation of the difference between the offered and perceived image, but in fact is designed to test how experts perceive destination branding. Protection seems to be one of the most important steps in brand creation, but only Tasci and Kozak

(2006) include trademarks and patents in their model which are absent from other models. Balakrishnan (2009) recognises the importance of the destination brand name protection because it is an intangible asset. However, the lack of guidance applies to measuring the fit between the offered and perceived image, thus contributing to the research aim of this thesis.

The City branding model developed by Merrilees *et al.* (2007) is valuable for its focus on residents (but not visitors as it is usually in the literature), i.e. their intention to choose their home town for occasional tourism and this intention is influenced by city brand attitudes. Furthermore, according to the same authors, this research applies a holistic approach to social capital which was not highlighted in previous destination studies and claim that people make the biggest difference in the city. Merrilees *et al.* (2007) do not consider involving visitors in their study and analyse city branding from the perspective of tourism (occasional tourism) which limits the versatility of the model. However, it contributes to the knowledge for the attempt to understand better “what makes a city livable and, by inference, visitable” (Merrilees *et al.*, 2007).

Balakrishnan (2009) designed a development framework serving as a guideline for destination branding which is valuable for its focus on strategical branding rather than conventional brand describing elements. As Merrilees *et al.* (2007), Balakrishnan (2009) recognises the importance of people’s role in brand; people in terms of stakeholders and target customers. Moreover, Braun *et al.* (2010) claim that people participation is “absolutely necessary for a successful place marketing strategy”. The model is all about people: target customers, relationships with them, combination of brand components for attracting customers, creating positive experience for visitors, etc. Authors propose to focus on service experience and all “customer touchpoints” (Braun *et al.*, 2010) because they create positive word of mouth which in turn influences choices. Unlike other models and frameworks described above, this framework seems to be clear and user friendly with well justified components. However, Balakrishnan (2008) suggests developing customer perception survey tool; people’s perceptions is the focus of this research.

Similarly as Balakrishnan (2009) and Braun *et al.* (2010), Ofori (2010) emphasise people involvement in the branding process (section 3.2.3 outlines different roles of people in the place branding process) from the very first stage, i.e., identity determination. Framework visualising complexity of place branding (Ofori, 2010) is user friendly but, similarly as Balakrishnan's (2009) model, does not describe brand elements of design. This framework emphasises importance of partnerships and achievement of promise. Ofori (2010) suggests measuring perceptions of all the key stakeholders (external and internal), this is one of the objectives of this research.

Zenker (2011), Hanna and Rowley (2011) and Baxter *et al.* (2013) emphasised the need to evaluate the place brand. Hanna and Rowley (2011) proposed a full model representing place branding process while Zenker (2011) gave an insight what elements could be measured and what kind of dimensions could be used along three approaches to measure them (by using qualitative methods for perceptions and quantitative methods for place attributes and combining the two), but did not apply it in practice. However, vision seems to be missing in both models. Further, Zenker (2011) highlighted that "insufficient agreement about what should comprise a place brand measurement" still exists despite all the accumulated knowledge. Hanna and Rowley (2011, 2013) tested their model and suggested that further research is needed, for example on place brand evaluation measures. Measurement of place brand effectiveness is the aim of this study.

None of the above mentioned models except the models developed by Merrilees *et al.* (2007), Balakrishnan (2009), Ofori (2010), Zenker (2011), Hanna and Rowley (2011) mention involvement of local people in the brand design process. Baxter *et al.* (2013) also suggest first of all revealing existing identities held by residents. Despite the fact that brand is created to target visitors, inhabitants should recognize their brand and be proud of it, otherwise anti-branding campaigns might be run (e. g., such as Randers). In addition, they are all development and descriptive models, and fail to evaluate the success of a brand. Only recent models consider evaluation of brands (Balakrishnan, 2009, Ofori, 2010, Zenker, 2011, Hanna and Rowley, 2011) as part of brand management process but they do not analyse evaluation in great detail nor provide measures. Further, these models consider public perceptions but they do not consider involving people in the evaluation process. Notably, they all describe the development of branding in differing ways, supporting the need in that there is no universal model which brings together all the aforementioned elements in the evaluation of branding, thus, the need for this research.

3.6 Conclusions

Chapter 2 reviewed Manchester's branding initiatives throughout its history. The question on how to measure the effectiveness of these initiatives emerged. In this chapter, the phenomenon of "place branding" is explained, describing the main concepts and characteristics as well as attributes. By exploring reasons for branding and existing practices, this chapter argued for an understanding of the contemporary place and its branding activities. The ultimate aim is to create a unique identity which then can be promoted using various marketing techniques, yet brand has to be recognisable (Visdeloup, 2010).

The examples of branding in section 3.3 illustrate how "urban interventions are dependent on a specific representational logic" (Jensen, 2005). Oresund is a good example of how branding builds upon unique regional assets and is symbolized by visible objects (Hospers, 2006) while story of Randers represent the outcomes of mismatch between Municipality and inhabitants suggesting the need to understand brand and its consumers. Jonkoping used innovative strategy to attract certain group of people back to the city and succeeded. Questions like what and why ensures success of one or the other campaign arise. Models and frameworks can assist here.

Product/ service and corporate brand models were analysed and remarks done, for example, they recognise the importance of customers. De Chernatony's (2001) model is focused on growing and sustaining brands so has evaluation phase. Existing models from place branding field were also discussed. All of them present some interesting findings which form base for this research. The described models did not demonstrate the evaluation of a particular brand except Ofori's (2010) model designed to guide communication of place brand identity. They are development and descriptive models, whereas this research is focused on the evaluation of brand. Hanna's and Rowley's (2011) model considers evaluation but seems to be missing vision as well as evaluative model proposed by Zenker (2011). Furthermore, none of them, excluding the models of Merrilees *et al.* (2007), Balakrishnan (2009), Ofori (2010), Zenker (2011), Hanna and Rowley (2011) included local people in brand design process which seem to be important dimension in product/ services and corporate branding in the context of employees. These authors also mention the need of brand evaluation, hence the aim of this research. Findings in this chapter will assist in the development of the evaluative model for place branding. The methodology used to achieve this is described in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

Our values can have an important impact on the research we decide to pursue and the way in which we pursue it.

Saunders et al. (2006)

4.1 Introduction

Chapters 2 and 3 reported on a need for the evaluation of the outcome of place branding activities, thus, exemplifying the research need of this thesis. Therefore, the aim of this chapter is to discuss the research strategy for the development of a framework that will aid the evaluation of place branding initiatives using Manchester as a case study, and to justify the decisions made in the development of the research design.

The aim of any research is to gather data, produce new knowledge, test it and generate new theories "that are more appropriate for human living than previous theories" (McNiff and Whitehead, 2003). In order to understand the research problem and to achieve results, "substantial research investigation must be based on a rigorous scientific methodology" (Lee, 2002). Depending on the purpose and scope of the study, various authors use different methodologies and various tools to achieve these results, for example, interviews or desk research, surveys or participant observation, in-depth or semi-structured interviews with stakeholders or decision makers, review of documents, reports or various publications in media, etc. A combination of methods may also be used to conduct a particular study to get reliable results.

In considering the above, the appropriate methodology has to be identified and used in this research in order to enable the development of a framework and subsequently its validation. This chapter begins by describing and justifying the research philosophy followed by literature review and a case study as a strategy. The research approach in this study involves the general understanding and interpreting; data is both, qualitative and quantitative. Techniques used for data collection, analysis and study validation will be also discussed.

4.2 Research philosophy

Research plays an important role in academia and business but there is no common definition for it in the literature according to Amaratunga *et al.* (2002). However the same authors summarised the existing definitions and came to a conclusion that research:

- is a process of enquiry and investigation;
- is systematic and methodological;
- increases knowledge.

The aim of research is to provide needed information and it can be described as an "organised, systematic, data-based, critical, objective, scientific enquiry or investigation into a specific problem or issue with the purpose of finding solutions to it or clarifying it" (Cavana et al., 2001). Research according to Phillips and Pugh (2000) is "finding out something you don't know" and is based on the question "why". A research methodology describes this process; it has to be relevant to the issues investigated and should consider various types of philosophies as they help to understand the nature of the particular research. In other words, the term "methodology" refers to the overall approach to the research process (Collis and Hussey, 2003). However, according to Eldabi *et al*, (2002), there is no "perfect" research methodology or universally agreed methodology so far.

Research philosophy relates to "the development of knowledge and the nature of that knowledge" (Saunders *et al.,* 2009). It indicates the way to "view the world" (Saunders *et al.,* 2009); research philosophy provides assumptions on how to approach a particular phenomenon, thus it impacts on the selection of the research strategy and methods in the research process. Paradigm (or typical model) defines research philosophy and enables the application of the scientific practice that is based on people's philosophies and assumptions about the world and the nature of knowledge (Collis and Hussey, 2003). In other words, paradigm provides guidelines how research should be conducted. Saunders *et al.,* (2009) describe paradigm as "a way of examining social phenomena from which particular understandings of these phenomena can be gained and explanations attempted".

Collis and Hussey (2003) define two main research paradigms/ philosophies: positivist and phenomenological. Positivist research is mostly used in natural sciences (biology, botany and physics) so uses precise and objective techniques for data collection following rigorous steps (Cavana *et al.*, 2001). According to Cavana *et al.* (2001), good positivist research is replicable (other researchers would be able to carry out the same research) and deductive (moves from theoretical position to empirical evidence). Phenomenological paradigm on the other hand tries to understand human behaviour and is focused on the meaning of social phenomena but not the measurement (Collis and Hussey, 2003). The phenomenological philosophy is sometimes regarded as interpretive. However, Collis and Hussey (2003) invite not to mistake it for a research methodology known as phenomenology and interpretive paradigm which has a broader philosophical perspective. According to Cavana *et al.* (2001), an interpretivist researcher tries to understand "the lived experience of human beings" so produces comprehensive analysis of how people think, react and feel under certain circumstances.

Research methodology depends on research paradigm; it is useful to know the main characteristics of these paradigms (table 4.1).

Table 4.1 Features of the two main paradigms (Collis and Hussey, 2003)

Positivistic paradigm	Phenomenological paradigm
Tends to produce quantitative data	Tends to produce qualitative data
Uses large samples	Uses small samples
Concerned with hypothesis testing	Concerned with generating theories
Data is highly specific and precise	Data is rich and subjective
The location is artificial	The location is natural
Reliability is high	Reliability is low
Validity is low	Validity is high
Generalises from sample to population	Generalises from one setting to another

The different paradigms have different aims, and therefore they use different research methods, see table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Research methods and types of analysis for each paradigm (Cavana et al., 2001)

Positivistic paradigm	Interpetivist paradigm
Experiments	Ethnography
Questionnaires	Participant observation
Secondary data analysis	Interviews
Quantitatively coded	Focus groups
Documents statistical analysis	Conversational analysis
	Case studies

Saunders *et al.,* (2009) describe three major approaches to research: epistemology (investigates “what constitutes acceptable knowledge in the field of study”); ontology (is focused on the nature of reality) and axiology (investigates the assumptions about values). Collis and Hussey (2003) summarized these three assumptions including rhetorical (concerned with the language of research) and methodological (concerned with the process of research) of the two main paradigms in table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Assumptions of the two main paradigms (Collis and Hussey, 2003)

Assumption	Question	Quantitative	Qualitative
Ontological	What is the nature of reality?	Reality is objective and singular, apart from the researcher	Reality is subjective and multiple as seen by participants in a study
Epistemological	What is the relationship of the researcher to that researched?	Researcher is independent from that being researched	Researcher interacts with that being researched
Axiological	What is the role of values?	Value-free and unbiased	Value-laden and biased.
Rhetorical	What is the language of research?	Formal Based on set of definitions Impersonal voice Use of accepted quantitative words	Informal Evolving decisions Personal voice Use of accepted qualitative words
Methodological	What is the process of research?	Deductive process Cause and effect Static design – categories isolated before study Context-free Generalisations leading to prediction, explanation and understanding Accurate and reliable through validity and reliability	Inductive process Mutual simultaneous shaping of factors Emerging design – categories identified during research process Context-bound Patterns, theories developed for understanding Accurate and reliable through verification

Since the nature of this research is to understand the phenomenon of place branding and to analyse people's perceptions on brand values, it will use the interpretivistic approach. Brands may contain several potential meanings (Kates, 2006); furthermore consumers and brand designers may have different perceptions about the same brand and therefore "interpretation of brands and marketing promotions is a problematic issue" (Kates, 2006). According to Saunders *et al.* (2009), interpretivism seeks to understand "differences between humans as social actors". Therefore, interpretivistic research will be used to analyse and understand perceptions that various individuals have. The researcher aims to explore the perceptions and views of Manchester residents as well as visitors and people who have never visited Manchester and may have not experienced the latest branding initiative for it in an attempt to assess whether they match the projected vision. This will present validation stage in Figure 4.1 (it outlines the stages and their interconnection in the research process). Semi-structured interviews will be carried out with people involved in branding initiative for Manchester creation while workshops will be carried out with Manchester residents and survey questionnaires will be used to investigate opinions of former visitors or individuals who never visited Manchester. These factors will help to validate an evaluative framework for the place branding developed in exploratory stage (Chapter 5). The researcher will be involved in interpretivist research through above mentioned interviews and workshops/ surveys, it is anticipated that rich and complex descriptions will be produced in order to achieve full understanding of research subject, i.e. place branding (Cavana *et al.,* 2001).

This research will also use ontological and epistemological assumptions: reality is subjective as people including the researcher have their own world of reality; furthermore, the researcher interacts with that being researched through being involved in participative enquiry (Collis and Hussey, 2003).

4.3 Research approach

A variety of research methods exists and they can be classified as qualitative or quantitative (Cavana *et al.*, 2001). Qualitative methods are often associated with the "interpretive worldview" (Daymon and Holloway, 2002) and they emphasise the processes and meanings (Sayre, 2001); in contrast, quantitative methods produce evidence (Sayre, 2001). As mentioned in previous section, positivist research uses quantitative methods and interpretivist uses qualitative methods. The two approaches, their characteristics, strengths and weaknesses are discussed in the following sub-sections.

4.3.1 Qualitative research

Qualitative methods tend to be associated with the analysis of words whereas quantitative methods provide numerical overview (Daymon and Holloway, 2002). In other words quantitative methods collect objective data answering questions, such as "who, when, where or how" while qualitative methods try to answer question "why" and concentrates on process as well as meaning (Sayre, 2001) and are associated with face-to-face contact with persons in the research setting. According to Amaratunga *et al.* (2002), qualitative research is conducted through an "intense and/ or prolonged contact with a "field" or life situation" and it became particularly popular in social sciences (Travers, 2004). Qualitative data is subjective and can be interpreted while quantitative techniques provide evidence and can be used for statistical purposes as well as to support qualitative findings. Both categories can be combined to achieve a comprehensive approach (Sayre, 2001).

The main characteristics of qualitative research, according to Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), are induction, discovery, exploration, theory/ hypothesis generation, the researcher as the primary "instrument" of data collection, and qualitative analysis. Amaratunga *et al.* (2002) describe other features of qualitative research, such as view on what "real life" is, richness and holism of qualitative data, strong potential for revealing complexity; qualitative data is useful when there is a need to supplement, validate, explain, illuminate, or reinterpret quantitative data. Other characteristics of qualitative research are described below by Daymon and Holloway (2002):

- Words (focuses on words rather on numbers).
- Researcher involvement (researcher closely engages with the people being studied).
- Participant viewpoints (subjective perspectives of participants explored and presented).
- Small-scale studies (small samples because of the deep exploration which provides rich and detailed description).
- Holistic focus (a wide range of interconnected activities, experiences, beliefs and values related to context are studied – multiple dimensions in the context).
- Flexible (research procedures may be unstructured, adaptable and sometimes spontaneous due to new information that emerges from participants' understandings and views).
- Processual (captures processes that take place over time).
- Natural settings (investigations very often are carried out in natural environments such as offices or where people shop or at least researcher tries to engage about natural settings of participants).
- Inductive then deductive (ideas are gathered from collecting and analysing data (inductive move from specific data to more general patterns) which then are tested by relating them to literature and further data collection and analysis (deduction); the literature review).

Daymon and Holloway (2002) also identified issues in qualitative research which have to be considered when carrying out the analysis for this thesis:

- Too subjective.
- Difficult to replicate.
- Problems of generalization (provide rich descriptions).
- Lack of transparency (not always clear the procedures followed to select samples, collect and analyse data, how conclusions were made, etc.).

Nevertheless, qualitative research has strengths as well, for example, according to Rainisto (2003), qualitative research focuses on events in natural settings, data are collected in close proximity to a situation emphasising a specific case, local context and its impacts are also considered; qualitative studies are flexible (data collection times and methods can vary) and are suitable in particular for investigating new areas. Collection and analysis of various types of data in various forms can be regarded as time-consuming and difficult task and subsequently can be described as one of the weaknesses of qualitative research. Notwithstanding, research becomes “powerful” as a result of data collection during the long periods of time (Amaratunga *et al.,* 2002).

4.3.2 Quantitative research

As discussed in previous chapter, qualitative methods are subjective and help to interpret/ understand the relationship, for example, between consumer and product while quantitative methods help to determine the extent of “the relationship between cause and effect” (Sayre, 2001). The same author states that quantitative researchers seek objectivity. According to Daymon and Holloway (2002) quantitative research is associated with realist worldview. It analyses numbers that represent opinions. Whereas Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) state that quantitative research is focussed on deduction, confirmation, theory/ hypothesis testing, explanation, prediction, standardized data collection, and statistical analysis. Daymon and Holloway (2002) describe some other characteristics of quantitative research:

- Tend to be largescale/
- Focus on specific factors which are studied in relation to specific other factors.
- Tent to be structured.
- Procedures and questions are determined before primary research begins, so theory is tested out through research rather than emerging from the research.

Quantitative research enables measuring of variables such as a quantitative assumption (Amaratunga *et al.,* 2002). Quantitative methods are not suitable for providing descriptions; however they may support findings of qualitative study. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) list below a number of strengths that quantitative research has:

- Testing and validating already constructed theories about how (and to a lesser degree, why) phenomena occur.
- Testing hypotheses that are constructed before the data are collected. Can generalize research findings when the data are based on random samples of sufficient size.
- Can generalize a research finding when it has been replicated on many different populations and subpopulations.
- Useful for obtaining data that allow quantitative predictions to be made.
- The researcher may construct a situation that eliminates the confounding influence of many variables, allowing one to more credibly assess cause-and-effect relationships.
- Data collection using some quantitative methods is relatively quick (e.g., telephone interviews).
- Provides precise, quantitative, numerical data.
- Data analysis is relatively less time consuming (using statistical software).
- The research results are relatively independent of the researcher (e.g., effect size, statistical significance).
- It may have higher credibility with many people in power (e.g., administrators, politicians, people who fund programs).
- It is useful for studying large numbers of people.

Although quantitative research has many advantages, it also has some weaknesses. Amaratunga *et al.* (2002) describe them as follows:

- Fails to ascertain deeper underlying meanings and explanations.

- Quantitative methods can be used to measure psychological or motivating factors, however their appropriateness in explaining them in more detail is limited.
- A tendency to take a "snapshot" of a situation (to measure variables at a specific moment of time).

In addition to the above, there are other weaknesses in quantitative research as described by Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), for example, it may not reflect perceptions and understandings of local people, produced knowledge may be too abstract and general, and they supplement the list above.

4.3.3 Combining qualitative and quantitative research

According to Sayre (2001), research literature suggests employing both, quantitative and qualitative research methods. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) use a special term "mixed methods research", which is defined as "the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study". The same authors also suggest that the use of multiple approaches in research is validated through the use of mixed methods. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) argue that very often research questions are answered better when using mixed method research. Further, Amaratunga *et al.* (2002) believe that quantitative data can help with the qualitative side of a study, i.e. by finding a representative sample, while qualitative data can supplement quantitative research by providing conceptual and contextual understanding.

In this study, the researcher will combine qualitative and quantitative research approaches for the various reasons which relate back to the strengths of each approach (Amaratunga *et al.,* 2002) and also the strengths of using them together as described above.

For the reason that in-depth knowledge and contextual understanding are needed in this study, qualitative research will be applied in this research as the place branding concept is still relatively new; furthermore it will involve various players (public and private organisations/ firms and various people from different groups). This study has the following characteristics of qualitative research:

- The purpose of the study is to describe, understand, evaluate and assess the phenomenon of place branding in the context of city.
- This study employs various research methods as well as data sources along different forms to describe the subject of the study with a holistic focus.
- Data to be collected in natural settings, considering participants' viewpoints.

Various authors (for example, Rainisto, 2003; Bengtsson and Ostberg, 2006) in place marketing and branding fields believe that qualitative methods, connected with a case study research structure, can better understand the complexity of place marketing and place branding phenomenon (having in mind there has been little research in this area). It is worth noting that Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2007) in particular considered the qualitative approach and interviews as the only appropriate methodology when researching place branding because "first, it allowed respondents to identify significant issues and ideas themselves and attribute importance appropriately, secondly, it gave the researcher the opportunity to deal successfully with different respondents in different organizations and, thirdly, it catered for necessary explanations and clarifications in a topic". Trueman *et al.* (2004) in their study used desk research and a survey of student perceptions of Bradford using a multidisciplinary approach. In branding studies, Zenker (2011) suggests using qualitative methods for exploring customer perceptions and quantitative methods for brand attributes or mixing the two (author acknowledges though that mixed methods are not widely used yet).

Therefore, the qualitative method was chosen to carry comprehensive examination and interpretation of meaning of the phenomenon, it will enable the gathering of extensive and in-depth information about place branding phenomenon and how people understand it including "unique associations within the city or a brand in general" (Zenker, 2011). This information will assist in identification of key elements in the development of an evaluative framework for place brand as well as factors affecting the success of such initiatives and possible discrepancies.

In addition, it is useful to quantitatively supplement the research findings and thus enhancing the generalisability of the framework. Qualitative methods, such as observation or interviews will allow the researcher to understand the subject better and develop an overall understanding of the investigation while quantitative analysis will support qualitative findings by providing numerical results and it will also help to assess the behavioral and descriptive complements of the place branding phenomenon. This research involves emotional characteristics, as well as behavioral aspects, thus qualitative methods are appropriate to investigate them by examining respondents' point of views/ perceptions (Amaratunga *et al.,* 2002). This study will apply exploratory approach which supports the application of relevant qualitative methods thus various charts will be used to explore and compare the research data (Saunders *et al.,* 2009). Quantitative analysis will provide the extent of findings within various aspects of place branding and will complement research findings; statistical findings will be also useful for general observations. Finally, qualitative methods will help to understand the fundamental explanations and interpretations of data and as well as relationships, such as characteristics of place brand or objectives of the place brands, and quantitative methods will assist in statistically testing the strength of these relationships and will contribute to the verification of findings.

4.4 Research strategy and methods

Usually, research methods are determined when forming research objectives (Sayre, 2001). Research methods should "follow research questions in a way that offers the best chance to obtain useful answers" (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Research strategy can be chosen based on research aim and objectives, existing available knowledge, the amount of time and other resources available and finally own philosophical principles (Saunders *et al.,* 2006). Each strategy has own ways of collecting and analysing data (Yin, 2003), and therefore has own advantages and disadvantages. Any strategy associates with a plan of action designed to achieve desired results. A research strategy guides research indicating what actions to take with the aim to find a solution to the issue in question. Saunders *et al.* (2006) consider the following seven strategies:

- Experiment
- Survey
- Case study
- Action research
- Grounded theory
- Ethnography
- Archival research.

Case study describes the subject using multiple sources of information and analyses it in great detail as well as enables to "cover contextual conditions" (Yin, 2003) unlike other strategies listed above. The survey allows studying and analysing lots of variables at one time and most often it is used in public opinion measurement (Fowler, 2002). Action research is a particular way of researching your own learning (McNiff and Whitehead, 2003) which means that the researcher is not only analysing problem, the researcher gets directly involved in order to provide solutions as well as develop theoretical knowledge. The grounded theory is aimed at building the new theory also modifying or extending the existing theory by using a systematic and structured process of data collection and analysis (Daymon and Holloway, 2002). When using the ethnography approach, the researcher tries to understand in-depth culture (of organisation or consumer) through observations, interviews and insider testimony (Sayre, 2001). Archives provide access to the thinking of people who are unavailable for direct questioning without great physical or financial costs and there is no risk of unnatural behaviour of respondents (Hoyle *et al.* 2002).

As mentioned before, this research uses exploratory approach; usually exploratory studies use three methods: literature review, expert interviews and case studies (Smith and Albaum, 2012). Case study has been chosen as the most suitable research strategy in this study as it allows studying a complex case and analysing phenomenon in-depth, it also considers a wide spectrum of issues such as perceptions, etc. This will be discussed in more detail in sections 4.4.3 and 4.4.3.1.

Figure 4.1 outlines the main phases of the research strategy of this thesis in terms of qualitative and quantitative approaches, each of which were discussed in detail in sections 4.3.1 and 4.3.2. Literature reviews are carried out in phase 1 to review existing knowledge and establish the research need as well as research aims and objectives are formulated. To address them, an appropriate approach together with methods to conduct the research is chosen in order to identify the most appropriate research strategy. Literature reviews will also contribute to the development of an evaluative framework as well as design of questionnaires for interview and workshops/ surveys. Phase 2 will systemise and combine the findings of the literature reviews in order to develop framework while phase 3 will test the created framework using in-depth qualitative and quantitative investigation of the place branding phenomenon using Manchester as a case study; semi-structured interview and workshops/ surveys will be employed to gather data. An interview will reflect the client/ demand side findings of which will be compared with the workshop/ survey (reflects the customer side) findings. Finally, data will be analysed and summarised and conclusions drawn regarding the applicability and validity of the framework as well as research methodology with recommendations for future research.

	Explanation	**Method**
Identify research aim, define aim and objectives	Identification and description of the problem to be researched	Literature review including internet reviews
Research design	Design of the initial research strategy to achieve research aim and objectives	Literature review
Review existing literature	Review of the literature to confirm gaps and the need along knowledge building	Literature review including place branding and Manchester case
Develop research methodology	Development of most appropriate research methodology to achieve aims and objectives	Review appropriate research approaches as well as methods
***Phase 1** (Explanation, Chapters 1, 2, 3 and 4)*		
Develop framework	Combination of relevant literature findings in the form of evaluative framework	Combine findings from literature reviews to develop evaluative framework
***Phase 2** (Exploratory, Chapter 5)*		
Validate framework	Testing and evaluation of the proposed framework	Framework application to Manchester as a case study using interview, workshops and surveys to collect data
Draw conclusions	Summary of research findings	Analysis of the results from the study including validity and research methodology. Recommendations for future research
***Phase 3** (Validation, Chapters 6, 7 and 8)*		

Figure 4.1 The main phases of the research strategy of this thesis

4.4.1 Literature review

Literature reviews allow studying available information about the research subject in order to review existing knowledge and to support the identification of the specific research questions (Rowley and Slack, 2004). In other words, literature review enables the evaluation of the existing knowledge and identification of research gaps. Literature reviews summarize the information in the subject field which can be obtained from various sources, such as journal (academic and professional) and newspaper articles, documents, books or web-based sources, etc. Rowley and Slack (2004) give several reasons to why literature reviews are important:

- Support the identification of a research topic, question or hypothesis.
- Identify the literature to which the research will make a contribution, and contextualising the research within that literature.
- Build an understanding of theoretical concepts and terminology.
- Facilitate the building of a bibliography or list of the sources that have been consulted.
- Suggest research methods that might be useful.
- Analyse and interpret results.

The literature review in this study provided general information and helped to understand the subject under investigation. By exploring a wide range of data sources including books, journals, public and promotional documents, brochures, conference proceedings, newspapers, PhD theses and the Internet, it also assisted in the identifying gap in existing knowledge in the field, which then became the focus of this research study. The following literature reviews were produced in this thesis: -

- Chapter 2 reviewed relevant historical events in Manchester and branding initiatives identifying the need for its evaluation.

- Chapter 3 investigated the field of place branding and reviewed existing models and frameworks, identifying a lack of coherent framework and a lack of guidance for brand evaluation.

The literature also provided some examples of place branding and information on how several place branding models were created. This allowed the identification of good aspects of practice as well as gaps, which therefore will be used to develop a framework that enables evaluation of branding initiatives for the place and possibly assist in creation of such initiatives in the future. Literature review also allowed choosing the most relevant research methodology.

4.4.2 Framework development

As mentioned in previous section, analysis of the findings of the literature reviews revealed that there is a lack of coherent model for place branding, there is no guidance how to create or evaluate model. Furthermore the existing models are descriptive or are focused on certain aspects of branding, and they also have weaknesses; the need for evaluation of place branding initiatives was also highlighted, which is the subject of this research. Findings of previous literature reviews, including the best practice elements from each model, will be combined in order to develop the evaluative framework. It will analyse brand elements and compare the official place vision and brand vision with perceptions of public (residents, visitors and people who never visited) in order to rate their match and overall brand performance.

Branding is well researched in product design or corporate world; brand valuation topic has received also a lot of attention to date. Product brand value mainly reflects financial aspects which make it "relatively easy to measure its strength and potential" (Sampson, 1997) or quantities sold. Place brand, by contrast, embodies intangible and dimensionless values. Nevertheless, product branding as well as corporate branding provide some good insights and some of these practices and principles should be applied to place branding, for example, Trueman *et.* al. (2004) suggests that corporate identity methodology can be used in place branding.

The developed framework will be tested on Manchester. Interview with brand representatives will help to sketch what brand developers wanted to portray while workshops/ surveys will report people's views on it. Recommendations and further research will depend on findings of the study.

4.4.3 Case study

A case study provides a comprehensive analysis of the research subject, using multiple sources of evidence (qualitative, quantitative or both); the "case" may be organisation, a set of people, community, event, process, issue or campaign (Daymon and Holloway, 2002). Yin (2003) describes a case study as "an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident". According to Daymon and Holloway (2002), the purpose of the case study is to increase knowledge about the research subject in its context and thus it tries to answer questions like "how" and "why". As a research strategy, case study comprises an "all-encompassing method – covering the logic of design, data collection techniques, and specific approaches to data analysis" (Yin, 2003). Characteristics of case study approach are listed below by Daymon and Holloway (2002):

- deep, narrow exploration;
- focus on real events in their real-life context;
- bounded in place and time;
- either a snapshot, or a longitudinal study of events with a past and a present;
- multiple sources of information and multiple viewpoints;
- detailed and descriptive;
- holistic view, exploring relationships and connections;
- focus on the taken-for-granted as well as the significant and unusual;
- useful for theory building and theory testing.

A case study can be viewed as an "experiment" to generate or test a specific theory; it is especially popular in fields of studies such sociology, anthropology or organization studies where a theory is used as a template to guide the research development (Daymon and Holloway, 2002). However, empirical findings in such studies, i.e., from interview or survey questionnaires, can, in some cases, support and supplement theories while in other cases deny them. From the literature Eisenhardt (1989) distinguishes three types of case studies in terms of the aim: to provide description, test theory and generate theory. Descriptive study illustrates or challenges a specific theory or model (Daymon and Holloway, 2002) while evidence in theory building case is compared with theory and data closely matching with theory results in empirically valid theory (Eisenhardt, 1989). Aim of the theory testing research is to generate a theory, i.e., to create a theoretical framework because such a model has not been developed so far.

Amongst the advantages of using case study, Sayre (2001) highlights the following benefits:

- Possibility to describe a situation faced by a user.
- The application, testing or generation of a theory (the question that researcher has may or may not change in the course of case analysis).
- Incorporation of variety of data collection and analysis activities (single or multiple researchers, qualitative or quantitative data, archival information provides triangulation).

Limitations and disadvantages of a case study must be also recognized and taken into consideration. Sometimes it is difficult to recognize when a case study begins and when it ends which also contributes to the difficulty in deciding what aspects and sources of data to use (Daymon and Holloway, 2002). In some cases, case studies also might be too descriptive. They can be criticized for the generalisability; "generalising to theoretical concepts or propositions" however is more acceptable comparing to "generalising to a universe" (Daymon and Holloway, 2002; also Yin, 2003). To overcome the limitations in case study research methods, it is proposed to use the triangulation techniques (Yin, 2003) (see Section 4.4.3.3.1). Case studies are unique so it is difficult to find similar cases to analyse the data. Also various researchers may interpret data differently, thus making case studies incomparable. Finally, Yin (2003) criticizes the lack of rigor in case study research and case study results being massive and unreadable documents.

Multiple sources of information are used in case studies in order to provide a full and rich picture of a specific situation, problem, organisation or phenomenon (Sayre, 2001; Yin, 2003). To achieve this, various types of information should be collected including observations, interviews, documents, financial statements, etc. The evidence may be qualitative (e.g., words), quantitative (e.g., numbers), or both. This research combines qualitative data from various sources of evidence, such as books, documents, academic papers, internet and interviews, with quantitative evidence form surveys and workshops. Qualitative data will be used to support findings and for statistical purposes.

The multiple case study method helps to reduce the bias in data collection (Lee, 2002) and multiple-case designs may be preferred over single-case study as they lead to success (Yin, 2003). However, a single case study method was used in this thesis due to the complexity of the case (Section 4.4.3.1). Despite there has been some research in the area previously, the researcher is not aware of existing thorough and commonly accepted evaluative models for place branding which means that it is a theory building research and the case study is regarded as the most acceptable method in this situation (i.e. Yin, 2003). It will build theory and subsequently will test it (Daymon and Holloway, 2002). In addition, Zenker's (2011) findings show that qualitative (measuring perceptions) and quantitative (for attributes of the place) methods are used widely while mixed methods have not been as popular so far despite their advantages (see Appendix D). Mixed methods will be employed in this study; answers to "how" and "why" questions will help to understand the nature of the situation and processes, answering question "how to" will assist in interpretation of collected data.

Case study design can be holistic or embedded (Rainisto, 2003; Daymon and Holloway, 2002). The holistic approach was chosen in this study. A case has multiple variables (for example, brand elements, etc.) which will be analysed separately by multiple participants (i.e., brand representatives, various stakeholders, etc.).

4.4.3.1 Single case study

Yin (2003) compares a single case study with a single experiment because they have many characteristics that are the same, for example, author describes five rationales:

- Critical case (tests a well-formulated theory).
- Extreme case or unique case (determines and ascertains research object as well as analyses negative and positive aspects).
- Representative or typical case (represents a typical project by capturing common circumstances and conditions).
- Revelatory case (observation and analysis of a phenomenon previously inaccessible to scientific investigation).
- Longitudinal case (studying the same single case at two or more different points in time).

There might be also other reasons for doing single case study. In any case, investigation must be carried out carefully and fully to avoid misinterpretation and to maximise reliability. It can be argued that single case study does not provide enough rigour to the framework; however it adds new theory to the existing knowledge.

Manchester has been chosen as a single case study for this research for several reasons:

- The complexity of issues in one case.
- It will be a validation case study rather than developmental in nature.
- Branding initiative including reasons for it will be evaluated rather than visual triggers.
- Attempts to validate a concept of framework but not visual triggers.

- Multiple data collection methods will be used in order to ensure research validity.

Single case study enables to undertake deep and comprehensive exploration of the research subject (Daymon and Holloway, 2002), i.e. phenomenon of place branding and also allows gaining the in-depth understanding which is vital in the development of a framework for the assessment of the effectiveness of implemented place branding initiatives. In the context of this research, Manchester is considered to be a particularly good case because of its history of branding initiatives going back to the 19th century (see Chapter 2) and inspiring a debate about the evaluation of such activities. In addition, Yin (2009) describes four tests (construct validity, internal validity, external validity and reliability) used in order to ensure quality of empirical research. Use of multiple sources of data increase the validity of the construct (Yin, 2009) because "the results can be crossed-checked" (Ofori, 2010). This study will be comparing data collected using multiple methods in this way ensuring validity. Issues of the internal validity do not apply in this research as it is considered to be an exploratory case study (Yin, 2009) analysing place branding and its success. The same author compares case study with experiment stating that the purpose of it is to provide a theoretical generalisation rather than statistical; this is what this study is trying to achieve (it will create an evaluative framework and will test it on Manchester in order to support theory). Reliability means that case study should be replicable, i.e. produce the same results after following the same set of steps as in previous research; however Ofori (2010) argues that it is not always possible as situations change for various reasons.

A generic framework will be created with a potential to be applied to other cities as well. Furthermore, this research intends to develop a framework for place brand evaluation by giving consideration to people's perceptions about the place. Since this research is associated with "how" type of question (how new branding initiative for Manchester fits with people's perceptions**)** it adopts exploratory case study as research strategy. The objective of this single case study is to explore the perceptions and views of Manchester by internal and external (visitors and people who have never visited) customers (Balakrishnan, 2008) about the latest branding initiative for the city. The results will be used then to compare with official objectives by Manchester City Council and Marketing Manchester. These findings will also contribute to the validation of an evaluative framework.

4.4.3.2 Data collection

Usually data is collected from many sources of evidence. Use of different strategies, approaches and methods for collection of multiple data increases possibility that sufficient and comprehensive information will be gathered. Smith and Albaum (2012) emphasise two data collections methods in marketing research, i.e. interviews and observations. In Table 4.4, Yin (2003) has described the strengths and weaknesses of six major sources of data.

Yin (2003) argues that information necessary for the case study is collected following a formal plan. However, not all the data for the case study might be predictable as data is collected from various sources such as media, people and organisations in their everyday situations or some documents and may be not accessible from some sources. Further, not all the needed information might be available or it can be in different formats.

According to Eisenhardt (1989), theory-building researches use multiple data collection methods. Yin (2003) suggests using multiple data collection methods for a case study, so a mix of methods will be used in this study to get an overall picture of research topic, i.e. place branding phenomenon. The types of data collection methods that will be used in this study in order to understand Manchester’s brand and gather relevant information will include review of various documents and publications, interview and workshops/ survey questionnaires.

Table 4.4 Sources of evidence; Strengths and Weaknesses (Yin, 2003)

Source of evidence	Strengths	Weaknesses
Documentation	- stable-can be reviewed repeatedly - unobtrusive – not created as a result of a case study - exact – contains exact names, references, and details of an event - broad coverage – long span of time, any events, and many settings	- retrievability – can be low - biased selectivity, if collection is incomplete - reporting bias – reflects (unknown) bias of author - access – may be deliberately blocked
Archival records	- [same as above for documentation] - precise and quantitative	- [same as above for documentation] - accessibility due to privacy reasons
Interviews	- targeted – focuses directly on case study topic - insightful – provides perceived causal inferences	- bias due to poorly constructed questions - response bias - inaccuracies due to poor recall - reflexivity – interviewee gives what interviewer wants to hear
Direct observations	- reality – covers events in real time - contextual – covers context of event	- time-consuming - selectivity – unless broad coverage - reflexivity – event may proceed differently because it is being observed - cost – hours needed by human observers
Participant observation	- [same as above for direct observations] - insightful into interpersonal behaviour and motives	- [same as above for direct observations] - bias due to investigator's manipulation of events
Physical artefacts	- insightful into cultural features - insightful into technical operations	- selectivity - availability

One of the features of interpretivistic research approach is rich data (Table 4.1) which can be achieved through workshops with various groups of stakeholders (brand developers/ representatives, residents, visitors, etc.). However, because of the small numbers of brand representatives and their availability to take part in this research by attending the same workshop, it was deemed to use interview technique (Section 4.4.3.2.1) to get their views on Manchester brand because it enables collection of the direct and most relevant data and therefore is considered to be suitable method in this research. Workshops (Section 4.4.3.2.2) will provide perceptions of representatives of the general public, however not everybody will be available to attend them due to the physical location, etc., therefore, survey questionnaires will be sent to respondents who previously visited or never visited Manchester and cannot attend workshops while representatives of residents will take part in workshops. Survey and workshop participants will be asked the same questions following format of interview questionnaire. This will not only provide views of different stakeholders but also allow comparison of them identifying gaps. Finally, greater numbers will provide statistical generalisation.

4.4.3.2.1 Interviews

Interview is one of the most popular and useful methods for data collection. By asking relevant questions, interview provides the most appropriate and direct information in order to fill in the gaps, for example, found in literature reviews. Interviews not only help to understand people's behaviour and attitudes, but they allow discussions. Sayre (2001) even names an interview as "a complement of observations". Yin (2003) regards interview as one of the most important sources of information for the case study. According to Daymon and Holloway (2002), it explores perspectives and perceptions of an interviewee and can be defined as a guided and structured conversation (Yin, 2003; Daymon and Holloway, 2002).

Hoyle *et al.* (2002) describe several advantages of interviews including the ability of the interviewer "to notice and correct misunderstandings, to probe inadequate or vague responses and to answer questions and allay concerns". Interview research allows clarifying ambiguities or uncertainties as well as not only controlling the order of questions but the context of the whole interview. Possibility to control ensures quality and coherence of information and increases response rate. As a key feature of interviews, Daymon and Holloway (2002) name their flexibility in terms of answers which not only allow gather necessary data along understanding the perspectives of interviewees but also may point conversation into a particular direction or provide supplementary information. Interviews are not restricted so additional questions may be asked to clarify particular points, etc. The same authors describe one more benefit of interviews, i.e. the data collected is situated within respondents' "social context" and very often would be expressed in their own words. However, it should be noted that interviewees may not do, think or mean what they say they do, think or mean. This could be regarded as one of interview weaknesses and it is out of interviewer's control. Further, interviews might be time consuming and, finally, the "interviewer effect" (when interviewer wants to be acknowledged) may exist (Daymon and Holloway, 2002).

Yin (2003) describes three types of interviews: open-ended, focused and survey. Survey; it asks a number of respondents the same set of questions thus allowing to present quantitative data along qualitative findings. Open-ended interview not only gathers required data, but may also provide/ suggest additional information and/ or data, etc. Focused interview lasts for short periods of time and might be focused on obtaining certain facts.

Semi-structured interview, questions asked following guide but not schedule, will be used in this study. According to Daymon and Holloway (2002), semi-structured or focused interviews are often used in qualitative research. The researcher intends to interview representatives from the organisations involved in the Manchester brand creation and representation, such as Manchester City Council and Marketing Manchester, in order to elicit their views on the vision for the city as well as in the proposed branding initiative, and to understand what they are trying to sell/ achieve by developing it. It is anticipated that this will clarify misunderstandings and misinterpretations and will fill in the gaps found in literature. The questions for the semi-structured interview will be developed based on the findings of the literature reviews. To enhance the validity and reliability of the interview questions as well as test terminology and clarity of questions, feedback from people who have background in design will be obtained. A supervisor, co-supervisor and advisor, who have more expertise in designing questionnaires, will also be consulted. It is considered to interview only personnel who are involved in decision making in order to get in-depth and clear information. Low numbers (3 respondents) are intended to be involved in this process mainly due to the character and scope of interview. Respondents representing Manchester's brand will be interviewed. The results of the interview will be used to determine key elements represented in the Manchester brand. Interview time is thought to be no longer than 1 hour. All interviews will be reported by note taking.

4.4.3.2.2 Surveys and workshops

Survey questionnaire is one of the methods to collect data in research. Fink (2003) describes survey as "a system for collecting information from or about people to describe, compare, or explain their knowledge, attitudes, and behaviour". Fowler (2002) gives an example of public surveys during which their opinion is measured for newspapers or magazines, "measurement of political perceptions and opinions" or market research when consumer needs and interests. In these cases, findings present qualitative characteristics of the phenomenon under investigation and indicate their quantitative values. Survey allows opinions and perceptions to be taken into consideration (suggestions can be formed then) rather than considering them as measures of success. Survey process has three stages, such as sampling (a small subset of the group to represent it), question design (specific wording for questions so that they are understood and provide meaningful answers) and data collection (Fowler, 2002).

Survey in this study will be used to explore people's perceptions and views about Manchester and the latest branding initiative for the city; they will be then compared with the outcomes of interview. The survey questionnaire has been chosen to use in this study for the reason that it enables data collection from multiple respondents from various locations about the place branding phenomenon and associations with it. However, there are some critical features in using a survey which have to be taken into consideration; they include survey sample, time issues and costs, confidentiality, response rates.

Self-administered survey, when respondents complete questions by themselves, will be used in this study to survey former visitors or people who have never been in Manchester because of the issues like time or availability of respondents; further, it is anticipated that respondents will also better understand the purpose of this research. Workshops will be organised with respondents who live and work in Manchester using questions of the self-administered survey to make sure the same type of data is collected. It is anticipated that workshops will enable discussions in between respondents and will also ensure the response rates along reliability and will give a chance to explain the purpose of the research as well as answer arising questions. The findings that emerged from the initial analysis of the literature reviews will form the basis of the workshop/ survey questionnaire (Appendix G). As with interviews, people with design background will be asked to review the questionnaire to avoid misunderstandings and misinterpretation. The structure of the questionnaire will also be discussed with a supervisor, co-supervisor and advisor. A test questionnaire will be developed first before it is presented to the public. Workshop is thought to take up to 1 hour; notes will be taken by the researcher and workshop participants.

In terms of the design, open and closed questions will be used. As suggested by Fowler (2002) the questions should be clearly worded without using, for example, jargons or hypothetical questions, in order to be understandable to respondents and thus avoid misinterpretations which later will invalidate results. Questions will be also categorised with relevant headings. This will be useful later when analysing and summarising findings. The sample audiences (30 people) in this study are chosen from different subsets of the Manchester population, such as residents and visitors as well as people who have never visited; people from different age and sexual groups to represent the core of Manchester strategy. It is anticipated that this will help reinforce positive brand elements (Balakrishnan, 2008).

4.4.3.3 Data analysis

Data needs to be analysed after collecting it. Data analysis, according to Yin (2003), "consists of examining, categorising, tabulating, testing or otherwise recombining both quantitative and qualitative evidence to address the initial propositions of a study". In other words, it is "a process of bringing order, structure and meaning to unstructured data" (Daymon and Holloway, 2002). Data analysis helps to detect patterns or problems, explore associations that exist, and generally see if the data are "consistent with their hypothesis and theories" (Hoyle *et al.*, 2002). According to Yin (2003), it is difficult to analyse case study evidence because it is one of the least developed, furthermore, strategies and techniques are not well defined.

Analysis of interviews and surveys is mainly examination of qualitative data and the overall purpose of this is to understand phenomenon being studied (Cavana *et al.*, 2001) while statistics helps to organise and interpret quantitative information (Fink, 2003). As it is in the form of numerical values, some form of statistical analysis should be conducted (Collis and Hussey, 2002) possibly using specialist programs. There are no strict and clear stages or rules for qualitative analysis unlike for quantitative (Daymon and Holloway, 2003). According to the same authors, data reduction (coding and summarising) and interpretation (theory-based generalisations) are the most common types of qualitative analysis. Statistical and qualitative methods are used to analyse survey findings (Fink, 2003).

As it is the qualitative research, analysis will start when data collection starts. The process will involve evidence examination in the literature in first phase followed by analysis of interview and workshops/ surveys (reviewing notes taken during interview and workshops and discussing findings with research supervisors). Manual coding of key themes, search segments and variables should be sufficient for analysis of interview and workshops/ surveys. Variables will be categorised in interview and workshops/ surveys separately so that the several items measuring one concept are grouped together (Cavana et al., 2001). Material will be also tallied, i.e. frequency counted (Fink, 2003) (for example, how many people share the same values). The researcher decided not to use computerised tools for data analysis in this study for the reason that interview and workshops/ surveys are planned to be small in quantity and relatively short. Excel will be used instead. Data gathered from interview will be compared with workshops'/ surveys' findings and interpreted, i.e. assessed by the researcher what findings mean in relation to existing knowledge. In qualitative research, this also means generating theory, new conceptual models or making theory-based generalisations (Daymon and Holloway, 2003). Finally, graphs, charts and tables will be used to provide visual aids. Theoretical propositions will assist in data collection and analysis. Quantitative and qualitative results will be triangulated (Section 4.4.3.31) as to draw final conclusions.

Because the qualitative approach was used to collect the data in this study, an appropriate qualitative analytical technique was needed for the analysis of the collected data. Sandelowski (2000) defines content analysis as "reflexive and interactive" further explaining that researchers continuously supplement data by adding new information or insights; if researchers use the qualitative content analysis with coding systems developed in advance, these systems can be modified during the analysis. In other words, this approach is described as template analysis. Template analysis has been applied to rich unstructured qualitative data following data collection phase in this research. According to Waring and Wainwright (2008), the template approach involves coding a large volume of text and then codes are gathered in one place to create a full picture. In other words, template analysis provides a framework which helps to organise the collected data into a structure (King, 2007) According to the same author, template analysis works particularly well with small data sets and when comparing 2 or 3 data sets which is the subject of this research. However, it is not intended to provide here a detailed description of this method; this is covered in the subsequent chapters as the reported results emerge.

4.4.3.3.1 Triangulation

In order to achieve reliability and accurateness in the case study, triangulation of data will be used. Amaratunga *et al.* (2002) describe triangulation as combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon. In triangulation, facts are supported by multiple sources of evidence. It is assumed that weaknesses of one method will be balanced utilising strengths of another method (Jack and Raturi, 2006). According to Amaratunga *et al.* (2002), triangulation is generally used to combine qualitative and quantitative techniques in the study as this helps to gain insights as well as draw conclusions, as illustrated in Figure 4.2.

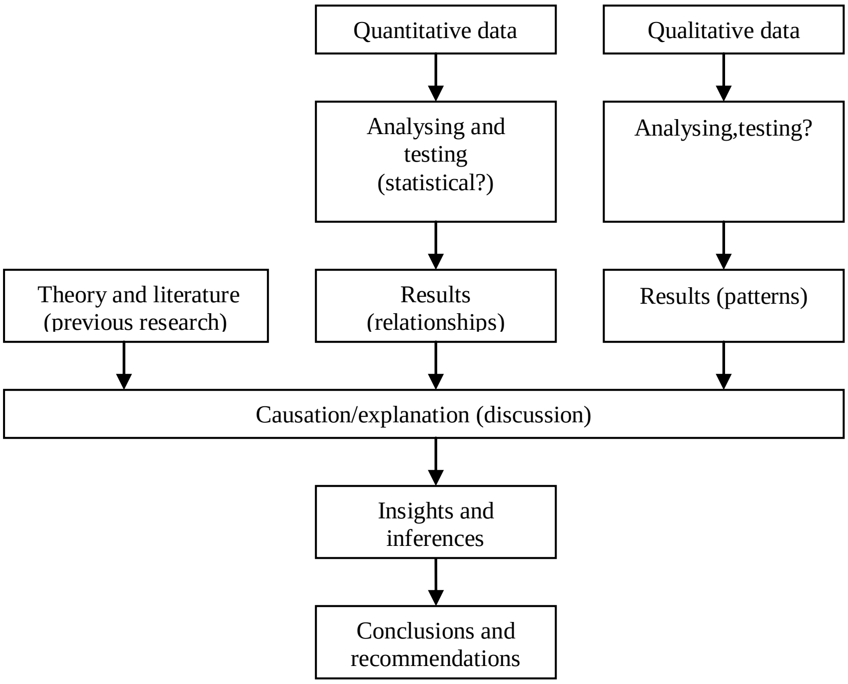


Figure 4.2 Triangulation of qualitative data (Fellows and Lui, 1997 in Amaratunga et al., 2002)

Jack and Raturi (2006) describe three rationales when using methodological triangulation: completeness (qualitative and quantitative methods complement each other providing richness or detail), contingency (there is a need for insights into how and why particular strategy is used) and confirmation (combination of multiple data sources or methods enhances more robust findings).

As already mentioned in previous sections, information will be collected from various sources that is aimed at "corroborating the same fact or phenomenon" (Yin, 2003) and enhancing construct validity (Yin, 2003). Triangulation or multiple methods will be used in this study for the purpose that quantitative methods will support the findings of the qualitative research.

4.5 Conclusions

A literature review in chapter 2 and chapter 3 provided general information and helped to better understand the subject of study. It also assisted in identifying a gap in existing knowledge in the field, which then became the focus of the research study. Chapter 2 reviewed relevant historical events in Manchester and branding initiatives identifying the need for evaluation of branding process and its outcomes. Chapter 3 investigated the field of place branding providing some examples and reviewed existing models and frameworks, identifying a lack of coherent model.

This chapter presented the research methodology that will be used to undertake the research in this thesis. It began by clarifying some of the terminology involved in research, explaining the philosophical underpinnings as well as research methods adopted in this study along researcher's justification in relation to the particular choices made. The research has been identified as taking the phenomenological approach due to the nature of the study and the real life context of the work. It aims to collect people's views on Manchester and the latest branding initiative for the city in order to understand their perceptions and to compare with the projected vision. Research is considered in interpretivist paradigm, utilising a mixture of interview, workshop/ survey and case study approaches.

For this thesis, the multiple sources of evidence were chosen in order to help to deal with the issues of validity and reliability of the case study. A single case study approach is used to examine the applicability of the evaluative framework as well as test the effectiveness of it. The next chapter will discuss development of the framework.

CHAPTER 5: FRAMEWORK DEVELOPMENT

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the development of an evaluative framework for place branding which will be tested on Manchester in an attempt to assess the effectiveness of Manchester's brand and associated latest initiative. It is based on the literature and empirical findings established thus far in this thesis. The literature review in Chapter 2 identified the need for analysis of branding initiatives, whilst Chapter 3 reviewed the field of place branding including product/ corporate along already existing place branding models and provided examples, which accumulated to the need for an evaluative framework for place branding. Chapter 4 described the methods applied to fulfil the aim and objectives of this research. This chapter aims to provide technicality of brand development and evaluation. It starts by reviewing the need for an evaluative framework, and continues by describing processes in the context of city branding. The development of a framework for evaluation of place branding is finally presented.

5.2 The need for an evaluative framework

Sections 1.2 and 3.2.1 highlighted the growing popularity of place branding. Due to various reasons (Figure 3.1, Section 3.2.1)), such as global competition, investment or tourist attraction, revival of outdated or poor pre-existing image, differentiation from other places or becoming better known, etc.; it is becoming increasingly common for places to try promote themselves. Branding helps to inform the world. However, place branding as a relatively new phenomenon has its associated problems and areas for development. One of them is the growing need for the evaluation of branding initiatives for places including cities; this is also acknowledged in the literature, for example, by Zenker (2011). There is currently a lack of a coherent model on how to evaluate brands as well as sparse guidance on how to create an evaluative framework for place brand; finally, it is not clear what to measure (Section 1.2). Existing branding models are mainly development or descriptive models or analyse specific aspects of branding (Section 3.5.9).

Other potential areas for research discussed in the literature could be promotion of locations as brand (Hankinson, 2001), branding of tourist destinations in the general field of destination marketing (Cai, 2002), testing of the application of branding concepts to different cities (Trueman *et al.*, 2004), branding of places as centres for business tourism (Hankinson, 2005), consensus of branding concept in destination branding (Tasci and Kozak, 2005; Blain *et al.*, 2005), management of place marketing and in particular of the branding of places (Hankinson, 2007), processes involved in successful destination branding (Balakrishnan, 2009), and identification of most important elements in the place brand (Zenker, 2011), etc. Notably, Balakrishnan (2008) suggests developing a survey tool on customer perceptions as it would help enormously when projecting branding strategies for cities.

The focus of this research is place branding success. Place branding examples described in Chapter 3 clearly demonstrate how important it is to measure and justify the effectiveness of branding activities; currently, place brands are being judged all too quickly by the public or media, and the success or failure of a brand is generally left open to much interpretation. It has not been formalised previously how people evaluate, what are the criteria for their judgement. Obviously, they judge intuitively and based on their personal knowledge and experiences or word-of-mouth. This study tries to understand how people evaluate and capture their feelings on paper. Evaluative framework will be developed as a tool to help understand people's judgement. Furthermore, some places have long-lasting and successful brands (for example, New York (Section 3.3)) while others are struggling to find their base (for example, Manchester (Chapter 2)). The question is: why? What determines and influences the success of such initiatives? It became clear in Chapter 3 that this is a difficult question to answer because each place is unique with its own vision and complex of constantly changing branding variables. More too, over time places are constantly evolving themselves. Evaluation could inform brand developers whether the branding initiative is successful enough to be implemented; however there are no clear methodologies on how to do this.

The review of the literature presented (see Section 3.5) several attempts to create a model for city branding but they appear to be descriptive or developmental or focused only on certain processes and majority of them do not encompass the need for the evaluation of branding success; importance of evaluation is discussed only in the recent research (Balakrishnan, 2009, Ofori (2010), Zenker, 2011 or Hanna and Rowley, 2011). The Brand box model (Section 3.5.1.1), for example, originally developed by de Chernatony and McWilliam (1989) for products and was later adapted to places by Caldwell and Freire (2004) (Section 3.5.1.3), evaluated two dimensions of representationality and functionality but these were found to be not sufficient for place brand evaluation. Cai's (2002) model of destination branding (Section 3.5.2) is focused on place image and its role in the branding process, however, it is not clear from this model how to develop a brand identity for particular destination. Hankinson's (2004) model (Section 3.5.3) seems to be most inclusive by providing the most comprehensive set of parameters to evaluate brands, but how to measure the fit between brand and its consumers' perceptions is not made clear. Trueman *et al.* (2004) presented a model of five types of identities (Section 3.5.4) but they do not provide any guidance through the process and do not explain the interpretations of identities. In the Delphic brand vision model (Section 3.5.5), Virgo and de Chernatony (2005) proposed using to buy-in from the multiple stakeholders into a single vision for a city but they don't describe components of a brand. A model of destination brand, destination image and the ramifications and interrelationships between them (Section 3.5.6) created by Tasci and Kozak (2006) was designed to test how experts perceive destination branding, but it lacked guidance on how to evaluate the fit between the offered and perceived images. Similarly to Trueman *et al.* (2004), Merrilees *et al.* (2007) (Section 3.5.7) do not explain how their model's work but they do try to understand city branding from the perspective of the resident (but not visitors). Ofori (2010) tested Balmer's (2001) AC2ID model (Section 3.5.9) and measured mismatch between objective and subjective identities as a result of which suggested city identity communication framework;

however it is aimed "to guide the communication of brand identity" but not evaluate although includes dimension of gap analysis. Zenker's (2011) model is designed to illustrate brand perception but it does not seem to consider vision (starting point of any such activities) or values. The same author also presented a three dimensional evaluation model, however it is not clear how to use it. Hanna and Rowley (2011) developed a model for strategic place brand-management; it includes brand evaluation stage but misses vision. In summary, none of the earlier models investigated in Section 3.5, include people in the branding process; again only later models consider human capital, for example, Merrilees' *et al.* (2007), Balakrishnan (2009), Ofori (2010), Zenker (2011), Hanna and Rowley (2011). In contrast to this, authors of product, service and corporate brand models (described in Section 3.4) recognise the importance of the human factor, i.e. they acknowledge that staff and customers (consumers) are important in branding so all of them have customers' dimension, with the exception of the corporate brand association base model by Uggla (2006) in Section 3.4.3. Furthermore, de Chernatony's (2001) model (Section 3.4.1) has a brand evaluation element in it in order to monitor the satisfaction and de Chernatony's and Segal-Horn's (2003) model (Section 3.4.2) incorporates indirect evaluation phase when customers can compare the promised with the delivered. In summary, the models proposed in the literature are mostly development and descriptive models or focused on certain branding processes, and there is generally no universally accepted model. They do add value to the existing knowledge base, as each of them, provide a unique perspective on branding but the question that still remains is: is there a comprehensive way to measure the success of place brand? The existing models do not provide clear suggestions on what to measure. Thus, a need for a new framework emerges – a framework which would address this issue.

The paragraph above highlighted the lack of social capital in the existing branding models which is probably the most important factor in branding. Merrilees *et al.* (2008) state that city branding is targeted at the residents of the city (and potential residents) as well as businesses to inform them that it is a place to live and invest (Table 3.2). Despite the fact that Hankinson (2004) and Haigh (2007) recognised this issue and analysed brands from the relationship between the brand and the customer point of view, Merrilees *et al.* (2007) argued that in general residents' perspectives have been overlooked in literature. For example, in the Manchester case, Mancunians do not feel they were involved in the development of the latest branding campaign for Manchester despite some research was done to establish attributes of city identity based on which values were identified (Ofori, 2010). AGMA (n. d.) claims that people are at the heart of the vision. This occurrence raises all sorts of questions, such as: what is people's role in branding, can they help in deciding brand for the city and influence/ contribute to the success of place brand, how success can be measured, etc. Only recent studies emphasise stakeholder involvement in the branding process (Ofori, 2010, Hanna and Rowley, 2011, Klijn *et al.,* 2012).

The proposed brand evaluation framework should help to answer some of the rhetorical questions raised. It could be useful for place brand practitioners be it clients/ designers or developers to evaluate the success of the newly designed brand idea or alternatively could be used as a consultation guide before designing a new brand. It is anticipated the framework would help designing more targeted campaigns.

5.3 The development of the framework

The brand evaluation framework (Figure 5.1) is proposed to measure the success of place brand. According to Miles and Huberman (1994) a conceptual framework "explains, either graphically or in narrative form, the main things to be studied - the key factors, concepts, or variables - and the presumed relationships among them". Maxwell (2013) uses a broader term referring "to the actual ideas and beliefs that you hold about the phenomena studied". Nilsen (2015) states that framework indicates "a structure, overview, outline, system or plan consisting of various descriptive categories". Chapter 3 reviewed various branding models and frameworks but they appear to be a "simplification of a phenomenon or a specific aspect of the phenomenon" (Nilsen, 2015) therefore this thesis is proposing a framework for measurement of place brand success. It will serve as a guidance tool in the process of evaluation with the potential to be amended to suit particular situation; the same cannot be said about models. Accordingly, framework in this particular research can be described as a set of constituents forming place branding with the correlation between them reflecting success.

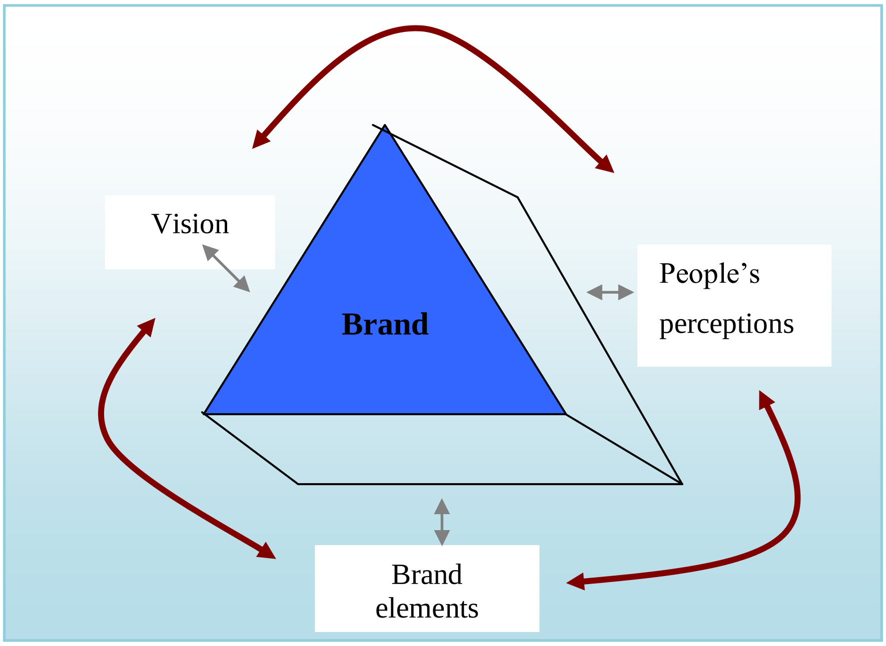


Figure 5.1 Brand evaluation framework

As Figure 4.1 indicated that framework development is based on findings from literature review with regard to its main facets and their elements. The three constituent components in the proposed framework are vision, brand elements and people's perceptions. They are common themes in the place branding literature (Table. 5.1). All three elements are integral in place branding and place brand would not be possible without one of the components. Place needs to know its direction and aspiration along what it can offer to the world and considering people (brand consumers (Jensen, 2005)) therefore their perceptions are important. Each facet will be discussed in more detail in the following section.

Table 5.1 Framework components in the literature

Component	Author
Vision	Balakrishnan, 2008; Trueman *et al.*, 2004; Hankinson, 2004; Rainisto, 2003; Virgo and de Chernatony, 2005; Ofori, 2005; Hildreth, 2010 See also Table 5.2 and Appendix A
Brand elements/ attributes	Ashworth and Voogd, 1990; Hankinson, 2001; 2003; 2004; 2005; Merrilees *et al.*, 2007; Balakrishnan, 2008; 2009; Trueman *et al.*, 2004; Cai, 2002; Tasci and Kozak, 2006; Gnoth, 2002; Zenker, 2011; Hanna and Rowley, 2011; Hildreth, 2010 See also Appendix C and D
Perceptions/ stakeholders/ people	Ashworth and Voogd, 1990; Trueman *et al.*, 2004; Kadembo, 2010; Ofori, 2010; Merrilees *et al*., 2012; Kotler *et al*., 1999; Pereira *et al*., 2012 Balakrishnan, 2008; 2009; Leadbeater, 2009; Merrilees *et al.*, 2007; Zenker, 2011; Hannah and Rowley, 2011; Braun *et al.*, 2010; 1013; Cvijic and Guzijan, 2013; Jensen, 2005; Cai, 2002; Tasci and kozak, 2006; Hankinson, 2004; Klijn *et al*., 2012; Hildreth, 2010 See also Appendix A

The brand evaluation framework adopts a similar structure to Andy Neely's performance prism (Neely and Adams, 2002) which represents five perspectives on performance and guides which metrics to measure in business performance. Similarly as in the performance prism, the brand evaluation framework demonstrates the complexity of brand elements and is designed to help understanding what could be measured. It also incorporates the idea of the feedback after the brand is developed, similarly as in de Chernatony's (2001) model "Process for building and sustaining brands" (Figure 3.12), Balakrishnan's (2008) model "Key components for destination branding" (Figure 3.3), Ofori's (2010) "City identity communication framework" (Figure 3.26) or Hanna's and Rowley's (2011) "Strategic place brand-management" model (Figure 3.28).

Zenker's (2011) model (Figure 3.27) proposes similar principle of perception measurement but does not take vision into consideration. Evaluation/ feedback is important in order to sustain brands which is the aim of any place practicing such activities.

The framework could be implemented as soon as new brand for a place is created; it could be also used as a consultation tool when preparing to design a new brand. Use of the framework after the brand was implemented and then later, for example after 2 or 3 years would enable comparison of findings and detection of any changes. It can be used by anyone involved in place branding initiative, but it is primarily targeted as a guide for brand representatives and clients. It is anticipated that the brand evaluation framework will assist place brand practitioners in assessing whether the newly created brand is successful; whether it is recognised, relevant and acceptable to general public. By auditing the new brand using this framework, practitioners can better appreciate its strengths and weaknesses. This analysis can indicate areas of concern and those responsible for the brand then can start to consider how this brand can better protect its market position and realise the appropriateness of created strategies. It should help to establish whether people performing different roles in the place (e. g., living or visiting, never visited) have the same understanding about the brand. The brand evaluation framework is valuable for its ability to take views of various groups of customers in terms of age, gender, their status in the city, etc, and to help these users, whom will have very little or varied knowledge on what to measure in assessing brands.

The proposed framework incorporates the key components for destination branding from Figure 3.3. Vision is the starting point in any branding initiative. People (stakeholders/ customers) should recognise and accept the brand. In any case, they have their own attitudes and perceptions which should be considered as a key element in the place brand success measurement. Framework also combines two types of characteristics (amenity and perceptions) as suggested by Ashworth and Voogd (1990) (see Section 3.2.4).

Levels of place marketing in Figure 3.2 could be compared with three vertical facets of the brand evaluation framework. The people's dimension is equivalent to target markets in Kotler's *et al.* (1999) figure, while brand elements from literature are equal to marketing factors, and finally city governors and relevant organisations project plans for positioning of the place including vision which is the third facet in brand evaluation framework. As discussed in section 3.2.2, the difference between place marketing and branding is that the first one creates a positive image and the second one builds the identity. The brand evaluation framework reflects the idea of place identity and image from Figure 3.4, a process of place identity transmission to users. Place identity is the existing characteristics that distinguish particular place from other places while place image is influenced by marketing communication. According to Medway and Warnaby (2008), the creation of an attractive image is the most important stage in the place branding process. In this framework (Figure 5.1), the vision reflects how a place wants to be perceived and represent the identity (Hankinson, 2004). The brand is communicated through marketing channels which is then decoded by people having their own perceptions and attitudes. In essence, the brand evaluation framework is designed to measure the performance of a place brand; it enables practitioners to check whether the brand vision coincides with the opinion of the public by providing clear guidance on how and what elements to assess.

5.3.1 The framework elements

The framework to evaluate place branding consists mainly of four elements: brand itself, vision, brand components and people's perceptions.

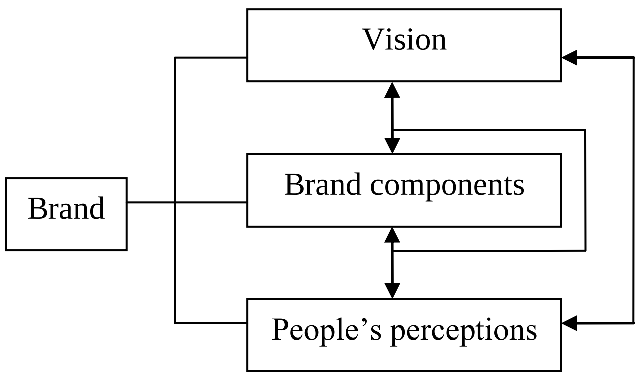


Figure 5.2 The framework elements

Place brand is the subject of this research, the starting point of which is the vision (similarly to the model designed for strategic growth and sustaining of brands in Figure 3.12 or model reflecting branding strategy for destination in Figure 3.25) because each place needs to know where it is going and what aims to have, achieve, etc. Place brand consists of a number of different variables and various authors suggest using a combination of them. As a brand name, as stated by Tasci and Kozak (2006), emerges from the level of satisfaction, past visits and word-of-mouth recommendations (this is especially important for tourist destinations), people’s perceptions need to be observed as well as they might provide useful insights into brand development. The framework elements are explained and described in detail in the sections below.

5.3.1.1 Brand

Brand is the key component in the proposed framework. Any place, be it city, region or country aspiring to be successful within today's environment must have a clear picture of what it wants to achieve and how it wants to be perceived, which is reflected in place brand. This should be done in a unique and memorable way in order to leave good impression because the main aims of branding are to increase attractiveness and inform the world, for example, the branding initiative for Aalborg was criticised for being too generic, with broad values and no future actions while “Medicon Valley” for the Oresund region associates with “Silicon Valley” for knowledge region in the US (Section 3.3). De Chernatony (2001) in Section 3.4.1 described in total eight components of the company brand resourcing: distinctive name, sign of ownership, functional capabilities, service components, risk reducer, legal protection, shorthand notation and symbol feature. The same author also explained that brand essence or its core is based on brand promise using the brand pyramid:

- Personality traits (on top of the pyramid)
- Emotional rewards and values
- Benefits
- Attributes (at the bottom of the pyramid).

The above could be also applied to places. Brand creates the identity for the place. It can be expressed in various formats, such as logo, slogan, strategy document, and other graphics but has to differentiate, create memorable and positive experiences, and improve emotional connection (Blain *et al.,* 2005) (Section 3.2.3). Vandenwalle (2010) uses term "emotional bond". As to be clear about the difference about logo and brand, logo is just a part of brand, symbolic attribute, a summing up device and graphical representation of the brand. The key stakeholders and target markets should be able to recognise this brand including its logo and slogan. For this reason, brand evaluation framework has been created. It is aimed at gaining people's perceptions on the brand which will provide then brand practitioners with an insight whether people can recognise and accept it. The framework could be used when a new brand has been developed (or perhaps prior to it as a consultation measure), whether in draft form or final version. It might be good practice to use the same framework after few years again as this will show changes over time. Each brand needs to have a vision which is the subject of the next section.

5.3.1.2 Vision

Vision is a key parameter in brand. It can be described as a long-term goal which translates desires into the brand promise (Balakrishnan, 2008). A vision for a place describes its aspirations and is very often aimed to be attractive depending on the target market. According to Balakrishnan (2008), the vision must balance all stakeholder needs "to make the destination branding strategy a success" (for example, the idea of Bradford as "city of culture" was not supported by local businesses (Section 3.3)). A vision dictates the strategy for a place and is the starting point in place development as well as the marketing process. Balakrishnan (2009) argues that a vision is the starting point of designing a branding strategy. Sometimes it can also prompt ideas for the brand of place or its visual triggers (logo, slogan, symbol). Destination limitations must be considered in the vision (Balakrishnan, 2008) as well as practical problems and critical issues as suggested in Table 3.5 by Jensen (2005). Hankinson (2004) suggested that the brand essence may reflect the vision and it represents “a place’s identity, the blueprint for developing and communicating the place brand” (Hankinson, 2004).

Vision for the place is fundamental in the branding process and competitive environment. Each place must clearly know which direction it is going to. It is believed that it is impossible to develop a successful brand for the place as well as define its aims and strategies without a consistent and comprehensive vision. The “vision must embrace existing culture and work to balance any negative effects” Balakrishnan (2009). A strong vision would be based on history and incorporate geographic areas as well as make it more accessible by building infrastructure (Balakrishnan, 2008), for example, the branding of the Oresund region is built upon unique regional assets and is symbolised by visible objects such as the Oresund bridge (Figure 3.6; Hospers, 2006). Furthermore, de Chernatony (2001) in Section 3.4.1 describes three components of brand vision which obviously can be adopted to place vision as well (de Chernatony, 2001):

- envisioned future (assumptions for the future);
- brand purpose (considers how the place is going to be better because of the brand);
- brand values (drive people’s behaviour).

Virgo and de Chernatony (2005) and Balakrishnan (2008) recognised the importance of vision in the branding process and analysed it in detail providing practical examples of Birmingham and Dubai. Ofori (2010) also incorporated vision into her framework. Virgo and de Chernatony (2005) proposed using the Delphi process to create a single brand vision which enables to define future for the city, brand purpose and values (Section 3.5.5). It was tested on Birmingham; the vision for Birmingham was defined as well as some discrepancies and areas for improvement discovered, for example, the gap between the “poor image and the reality of an economically sound, forward-looking and positive city” needs to be eliminated while “value to employment in the city” to be added (Virgo and de Chernatony, 2005). It is not enough to have a strong vision; it also has to integrate and consider the speed of progress and changes in between components in the vision (described in Section 3.5.8).

In Section 3.5.4, Trueman *et al.* (2004) also analysed vision but in the form of desired identity amongst other four dynamic identities in their study (Section 3.5.4). In other words it is a vision but can be sometimes compared with ideal identity which comes out from research and analysis. Both identities can be compared with conceived identity that reflects stakeholders' perceptions. The other two identities are actual (constitutes the current attributes) and communicated. Similarly, brand identity in Hanna's and Rowley's (2011) model reflects the desired image. Trueman *et al.* (2004) suggest using various sources (official documents, community publications, media coverage, consultations, etc.) to describe each identity. It is what this research is trying to do.

Balakrishnan (2008) argues that people need to own the vision because they are the key drivers of the place brand, but this seems to be a challenge for many places. Furthermore, when developing a vision, Balakrishnan (2009) suggests that city governors should consider what relationships they want to develop with customers (internal and external) and what products /services they want to offer, identify key target customers (for example, Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2007) criticised "I Amsterdam" in Section 3.3 for not reflecting all the selected target groups as well as not expressing the core values). Relationship with customers was also mentioned in de Chernatony's and Segal-Horn's (2003) model (Figure 3.13) as well as in Muzellec's and Lambkin's (2009) model (Figure 3.17) proving to be important part of the branding process. Muzellec and Lambkin (2009) divided the relationships between product and corporate brands and their audiences which could be also applied to places respectively (Muzellec and Lambkin, 2009):

- Product/ services brand:
  - Potential consumers
  - Actual consumers
- Corporate brand:
  - Government and other institutions
  - Media
  - General public
  - Suppliers

- Distributors
- Stakeholders and financial community
- Competitors.

Jensen (2005) suggests describing consumers of city brand and receivers of the branding message clearly to avoid "anti-branding" campaigns as happened in the city of Randers as described in Section 3.3. Virgo and de Chernatony (2005) argue that the brand values of brand steerers must be incorporated and acted on in a co-ordinated manner in order to succeed. In the case of product branding (Section 3.4.1), de Chernatony (2001) suggests auditing corporation, distributors, customers, competitors and microenvironment in order to create more powerful strategies. The same idea should obviously be applied to place branding.

Balakrishnan (2009) summarised the literature on vision in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2 Vision in the Literature (Balakrishnan, 2009)

Component	Sub-categories	Author
Vision	Vision, mission, heritage and culture, people and values, philosophy	Balakrishnan, 2008; Rangan et al., 2006; Wong et al., 2006; Aaker, 2004; Trueman et al., 2004; Davis, 2002; Javalgi and White, 2002; Balmer, 2001; de Chernatony, 1999; de Chernatony and Riley, 1998
	Country of origin/reputation/ credibility of brand (destination) name, tourism quality	Balakrishnan, 2008; Eraqi, 2006; Rangan et al., 2006; Trueman et al., 2004; Thakor and Lavack, 2003; Beverland, 2001; de Chernatony, 1999; Herbig and Milewicz, 1997

Table 5.2 above lists the sub-categories of vision which gives a sketch of what could be included in it and will be adopted in the proposed framework. Obviously this list could be used as a guide when developing a vision for a place. These elements put in context could be incorporated in any vision. Uniqueness should

also be mentioned here. As discussed in section 3.2.4.1, a unique offering can help to attract relevant target markets. The full list of components for destination branding including vision can be found in Appendix A.

After examining various destination case studies and academic articles, Balakrishnan (2009) outlined six key drivers which motivate vision:

1) Economic (from economic prosperity of individual citizens, to businesses or the overall prosperity of destination).
2) Services (personal, consumer, business and government).
3) Transit hub (transiting of goods, information and people).
4) Retail (focus on both domestic and international tourists; shopping is becoming more and more popular).
5) Trade (results economic growth so has led to government investments in logistics, transportation and global policies and free trade zones).
6) Tourism (growing industry so destination promotion has become important).

The drivers described above outline the character of a vision. They can be inter-related or mixed and can be used as a guide when choosing the tendency for the vision. In other words, a vision of any place can look at these drivers and incorporate them in its branding strategy. The detailed description of key drivers and list of references can be found in appendixes (Appendix B). The list of possible elements to consider when determining vision is as follows:

- Future (assumptions for the future (de Chernatony, 2001))
- Purpose (how place is going to be better (de Chernatony, 2001))
- Values (what values brand portrays, e.g. stability, safety or quality (Randall, 1998))
- Vision (starting point of branding strategy (Balakrishnan, 2009)
- Mission (aim of the brand/ what brand tries to achieve)
- Heritage and culture (incorporates existing assets (Balakrishnan, 2009))
- People and values (incorporates existing assets (Balakrishnan, 2009), who stakeholders are)

- Philosophy (branding principle, e.g. combination of business and vacation portfolios (Balakrishnan, 2009)
- Country of origin/ reputation/ credibility of brand (destination) name, tourism quality (country of origin is important for destinations/ differentiation and representation, service experience (Balakrishnan, 2010))
- Uniqueness (unique offering or cahracteristics (Visdeloup, 2010))

As described in Chapter 4, semi-structured interview along literature review will be used to describe the vision in the case of Manchester. Interview with brand developers/ representatives will also help to understand the purpose of the existing place branding initiative as well as reasons for it.

5.3.1.3 Brand components in the literature

It is difficult to evaluate place brand because of the number of different variables associated. As suggested in Section 3.2.4, there are more variables that are not only the symbol, logo and slogan for creating the place brand; they are tangible and intangible. All of them, according to Gnoth (2002), contribute to the determination and shape of the identity. Furthermore, it is not clear what to measure. People's opinions differ on how important each element is. A thorough review of the literature can provide guidance. Brand components found in the literature is not an exhaustive list but will serve as a guideline for the interviewer and the interviewees in workshops/ surveys. A list of elements can also be used by brand client/ designer as a guideline what can be incorporated in vision and brand itself.

In the literature review (Sections 3.2.4 and 3.5), the broader spectrum of brand elements (term used by Ashworth and Voogd, 1990) or attributes (term used by Hankinson, 2003; Merrilees *et al.*, 2007) and general brand strategies were analysed and should be considered when defining place brand. Various authors suggest using combinations of attributes when creating brands, for example, Balakrishnan (2008; 2009) suggests choosing a combination of brand components for attracting customers, the components that would help customers make a decision to visit and create loyalty. Trueman *et al.* (2004) proposes using an integrated "warts and all" approach because local communities, the built environment, heritage and infrastructure – all form the image of the city (Section 3.2.3.2). According to Hankinson (2001) any place brand should be designed to reflect the physical or tangible experiences of the location including visual triggers like symbol, logo, slogan, name as well as the intangible and value-based attributes (place image). In Figure 3.2 (Section 3.2.2), Kotler *et al.* (1999) describe four marketing factors for the place: attractions, infrastructure, people and image and quality of life which comprise, in essence, the brand of the place.

The list of brand elements from literature is only suggestive and may consist of:

As classified by Hankinson (2001) in Section 3.2.4:

- Visual triggers:
  - Symbol
  - Logo
  - Slogan
  - Name
- Physical and tangible experiences
- Intangible and value-based attributes like place image or in other words perception of place and the image held of it (Ashworth and Voogd, 1990, Section 3.2.4)

Amenities listed by Ashworth and Voogd (1990) in Section 3.2.4, such as:

- quality in the natural or built environment
- the physical characteristics of air
- sound and smell
- place symbolisms and associations
- architectural and morphological patterns of buildings
- spaces including access to a wide collection of urban residential, social, recreational and cultural services

Cai (2002) listed the following in Section 3.5.2:

- Brand element mix:
  - Slogan
  - Logo
- Attributes:
  - Perceptual tangible
  - Intangible elements
- Affective component:
  - Personal value
  - Meaning attached
  - Benefits desired

Listed by Hankinson (2004) in Section 3.5.5:

Potential functional attributes:

- Museums, art galleries, theatres and concert halls
- Leisure and sports activities and facilities
- Conference and exhibition facilities
- Public spaces
- Hotels, restaurants, night clubs and entertainment
- Transport infrastructure and access
- Hygiene facilities (car parks, toilets, baby-changing facilities, street cleaning, etc.)

Potential symbolic attributes:

- The character of the local residents
- The profile of typical visitors (e.g., age, income, interests and values)
- Descriptors of the quality of service provided by service contact personnel

Potential experiential attributes:

- How the destination will make visitors feel (e. g., relaxed, excited or fascinated)
- Descriptors of the built environment (e. g., historic, modern, green and spacious)

- Descriptors related to security and safety

Listed by Tasci and Kozak (2006) in Section 3.5.6:

- Logo, name and slogan
- Attributes
- Benefits
- Values
- Culture
- Personality
- Users
- Patents
- Trademarks
- Relationships

Defined by Merrilees *et al.* (2007) in Section 3.5.7:

- Social - social capital and relates to social cohesion and emphasises interpersonal relationships, social relations, friends and family, interactions and ties, and cultural tolerance
- Nature - represents natural landscape
- Vibrancy - business vibrancy in the community including growth of jobs
- Recreation – recreation facilities

De Chernatony (2001) and de Chernatony and Segal-Horn (2003) describe organisational culture in their models (Figure 3.12 and Section 3.4.1; Figure 3.13 and Section 3.4.2) which in case of place branding could be equivalent to place culture and can be characterised by:

- Visible artefacts (logo, brochures, t-shirts, etc.)
- Values (manifested by artefacts)
- Basic assumptions

Culture not only describes the core values and enables to define brand's promise, but also influences people's behaviour/ perceptions (is the subject of the next section).

Based on the literature reviews, Balakrishnan (2009) groups brand components into tangible and intangible attributes as well as functional and symbolic (Figure 5.3). According to Hankinson (2005), it is important to understand these associations as they influence the brand strategy. For example, the new brand for New York represented the real and symbolic transformation as well as the restructuring of political and economic relations (Chan, 2008). In Table 3.4, Hankinson (2005) distinguishes two more categories: experiential associations and brand attitudes.

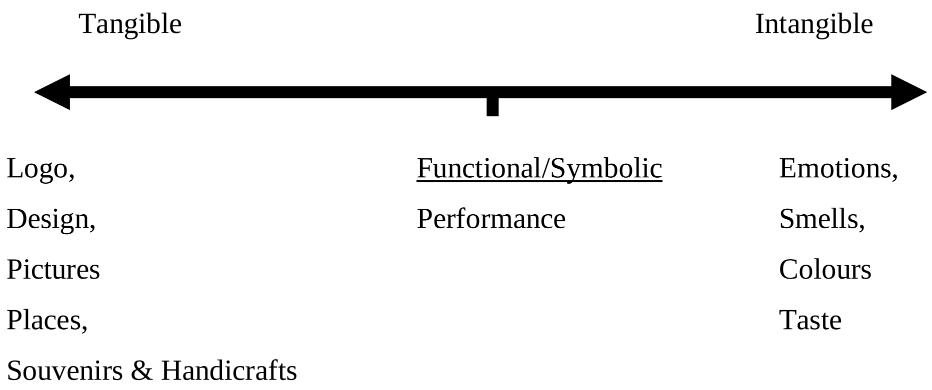


Figure 5.3 Destination brand components (Balakrishnan, 2009)

Caldwell and Freire (2004) suggest that cities should concentrate on branding their functional aspects because they are perceived from a functional point of view (Section 3.5.1.3) so the researcher felt that distinguishing functional attributes in the brand evaluation framework ads more clarity and best suits the task. Hankinson's (2004) grouping of elements is most user-friendly and detailed and thus was adopted in this study; the list of elements is as follows:

- **Visual triggers:**
  - Symbol (symbolic attribute, association)
  - Logo (graphical representation of the brand)
  - Slogan (motto, summing up device)

- Name ("intangible asset with unique attributes", "must be protected and managed strategically" (Balakrishnan, 2009)

▪ **Potential functional attributes:**
  - Urban residential services
  - Social services and relations (interpersonal relationships)
  - Museums, art galleries, theatres, concert halls and other cultural services
  - Leisure and sports activities and facilities
  - Conference and exhibition facilities
  - Natural environment, public spaces and recreational services
  - Hotels, restaurants, night clubs and entertainment
  - Architecture and quality of the built environment
  - Transport infrastructure and access
  - Hygiene facilities (car parks, toilets, baby-changing facilities, street cleaning, etc.)
  - Vibrancy (business vibrancy including growth of jobs), etc.

▪ **Potential symbolic attributes:**
  - Place symbolisms, souvenirs and handicraft
  - The character of the local residents
  - The profile of typical visitors (age, income, interests and values)
  - Descriptors of the quality of service provided, etc.

▪ **Potential experiential attributes:**
  - How the city make residents/ visitors feel (relaxed, excited, fascinated, etc.)
  - Descriptors of the built environment (historic, modern, green, spacious, etc.)
  - Descriptors related to security and safety
  - Quality of life
  - The physical characteristics of air
  - Sound, smell and taste
  - Colours, etc. (used in visible artefacts)
  - Relationships/ interactions, etc. (relationships with customers (Hankinson, 2004; Balakrishnan, 2009))

- **Other:**
  - Benefits ("value to a destination", "impact on the economic and social well-being" of not only investors but also "the locals" (Tasci and Kozak, 2006)
  - Personality (distinctive characteristics)
  - Users (e.g. potential and current visitors (Tasci and Kozak, 2006)
  - Patents (legal protection, "licensing strategy" (Balakrishnan, 2009))
  - Trademarks, etc. (legally registered logo/ symbol. etc.)

5.3.1.4 People's perceptions

People's perceptions are of no less importance. Perceptions reflect the perspective of personal satisfaction, media messages or word-of-mouth, etc. on brand performance; notably for example, citizens of Randers created an "anti-branding" logo (Figure 3.8) in their protest against the new branding campaign (Section 3.3). People's opinion is important because they are "a key driver of services and destination marketing and brand perception" (Balakrishnan, 2008). In the case of a city, associations of the brand image depend on the physical structures, services, infrastructure and the behaviour of people, the symbols that identify the city and what people say about it (Kadembo, 2010). As discussed in Section 3.3, "I love New York" was described as a successful campaign because local talent was used to design the logo. Leadbeater (2009) suggests Manchester needs to move its focus from physical infrastructure and buildings and concentrate on people and culture (Section 3.2.6). De Chernatony and Segal-Horn (2003) in their model for successful service brands (Figure 3.13) suggest communicating brand's promise together with service vision and customer expectations internally to staff through training and other organisational processes because this contributes to the success of the brand. Brodie (2009) in Figure 3.16 analyses brands in the context of customers', stakeholders', organisational and employees' perceptions. Uggla (2006) in Figure 3.14 explains that corporate, partner (internal and external) and institutional associations contribute to brand image. Trueman *et al.* (2004) tried to apply the AC2ID test of corporate identity management to city brand in an attempt to compare official city strategies and stakeholders' perceptions (Section 3.5.4) by using 5 dynamic identities (Table 3.7): actual identity, communicated identity, conceived identity, ideal identity and desired identity, where conceived identity refers to perceptions of the company held by stakeholders. Ofori (2010) tested this model on Manchester and found discrepancies between identities which suggests that perceptions are important and need to be considered. Further, Ghodeswar (2008) proposes a model for brand creation (Figure 3.15) which seems to be universal and widely applicable, but most importantly the author highlights the importance of perception of a brand in the customer's mind. In contrast, earlier place branding models (see Section 3.5) do not observe people's perceptions and attitudes; they do not suggest that local people may influence the brand. Only the most recently developed place branding models have included the peoples' factor, for example, Merrilees' *et al.* (2007) and Balakrishnan (2009) (Sections 3.5.7 and 3.5.8); Zenker (2011) and Hanna and Rowley (2011) also consider perceptions in their models (Sections 3.5.10 and 3.5.11). These authors realised that people need to recognize the brand of the place where they live or work, so can support and possibly inform the world about it. Admittedly, the general public is not necessarily aware of official vision. Furthermore, it is important to identify the issues, be it crime or deprivation, and deal with them respectively in this way securing consistent development of the place. This would give a chance to re-think or amend the brand.

In the brand evaluation framework, the "people's perceptions" parameter reflects the opinion of general public. It represents an insight into people's opinions and attitudes towards the brand identity and strategy for the plac which might be different from the desired. Merrilees *et. al.* (2007) highlighted this issue by focusing on city brand attitudes of residents in a structural model for city branding (Section 3.5.7). They state that a city has to be attractive to its local residents in the first instance in order to be attractive to external visitors and argue that there is a need to develop a comprehensive approach to understanding the attitudes of residents to their own city brand. In other words it can be called an "emotional bond" as described by Vandewalle (2010). Similarly Balakrishnan (2008) argues that branding must start with people of the destination which together with positive associations and experience strengthen the brand image. "People (through the social capital construct), not structures, that make the biggest difference" (Merrilees *et al.,* 2007). According to Balakrishnan (2009), destinations must start focusing on people because people help deliver the experience. In Section 3.2.3.2, Trueman *et al.* (2007) suggests using a stakeholder perspective to identify and differentiate city from its competitors while Hankinson (2004) is looking at place branding as a relationship with consumers and other stakeholders. Braun *et al.*, (2010, 2013) acknowledge that "residents are largely neglected by place branding practice" and demonstrate their importance by describing role of people in the branding process.

In Section 3.2.3, Balakrishnan (2008) describes stakeholders as internal (people/ citizens, business/ governing bodies, etc.) and external. Jensen (2005) uses term brand consumers: city inhabitants, commuters, city users, business people or tourists (Table 3.5, Section 3.3). In this research, a stakeholder perspective will be used representing various groups of people: who live and work in the city, visit and have never visited; people from different age, sexual and ethnic groups as described in Section 4.4.3.2.2. These groups of people are important because they represent the masses of the place. As mentioned in previous sections, branding should start with residents in order to be attractive to visitors. People, who have never visited the place, will also provide some interesting and valuable insights which should be considered.

Workshops/ surveys will be used to gather people's opinions and perceptions on the city of Manchester's latest branding initiative during the empirical research. The brand elements section of the model will serve as a guide to elicit people's perceptions of the brand and city itself.

5.3.2 The place brand evaluation framework

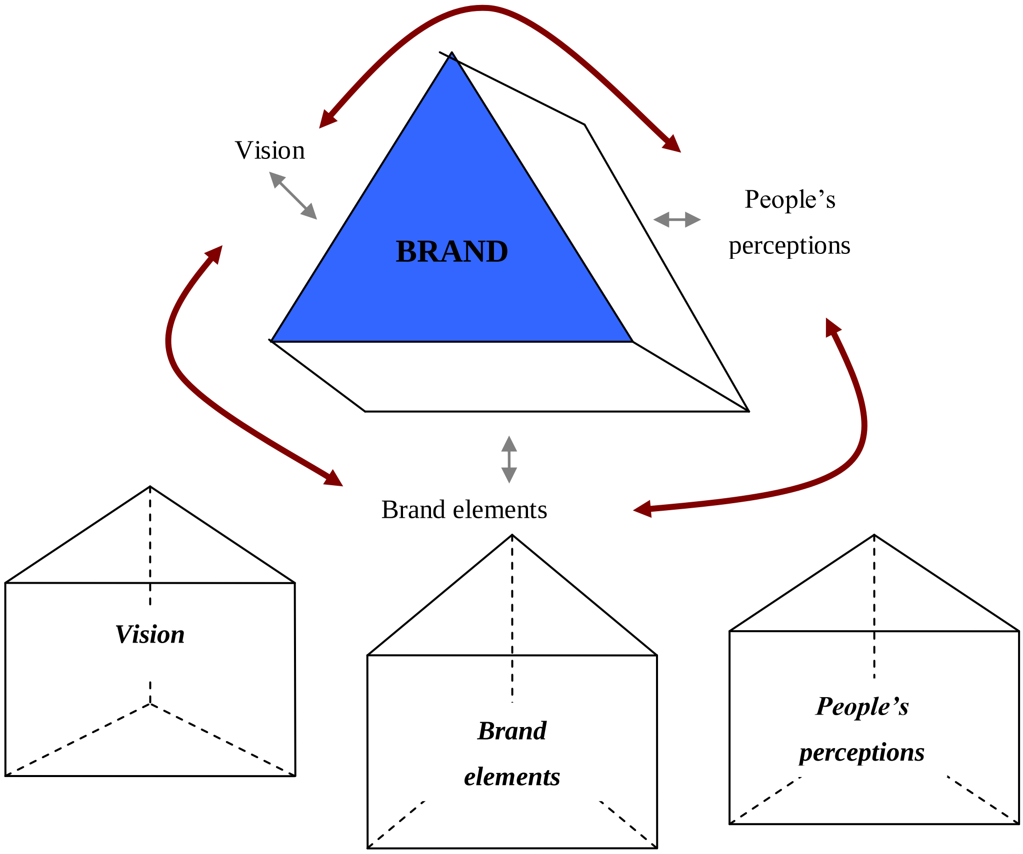
The place brand evaluation framework model is illustrated in Figure 5.4, a prism with three vertical facets as previously described in section 5.3.2, each of them comprising of a number of variables (Table 5.3) and the middle facet being the core of this framework. The level of detail each facet portrays helps to provide clarity on what can be measured and how. The researcher felt that this method of modelling the framework best suited the task. Further, it added more detail and clarification of how to design place brand evaluation measures and addressed the lack of guidance in the literature as highlighted in Sections 1.2 and 5.2 as well as Chapter 3.

Table 5.3 Framework variables in literature

Component	**Sub-categories**	**Author**
Vision	Future	Virgo and de Chernatony, 2005
	Purpose	Virgo and de Chernatony, 2005; Zenker, 2009 (aim)
	Values	Virgo and de Chernatony, 2005; Randall 1997; Tasci and Kozak, 2006; Cai, 2002; Jensen, 2005; Kavaratzis and Ashworth, 2007; Zenker, 2009
	Vision	Balakrishnan, 2008; 2009; Hildreth, 2010; Ofori, 2010
	Mission	Balakrishnan, 2009
	Heritage and culture	Balakrishnan, 2009
	People and values	Balakrishnan, 2009, Zenker, 2009 (culture of stakeholders and place design)
	Philosophy	Balakrishnan, 2009
	Country of origin/ reputation/ credibility of brand (destination) name, tourism quality	Balakrishnan, 2009; Hildreth, 2010 (locational context and value); Tasci and Kozak, 2006
	Uniqueness	Visdeloup, 2010
		See also Tables 5.1 and 5.2; Appendixes A and B
Brand elements	▪ **Visual triggers:**	Hankinson, 2004; Zenker, 2011 (visual, verbal and behavioural expression); Hanna and Rowley, 2011 (articulation)
	- Symbol	Hankinson, 2004; Cai, 2002; Medway and Warnaby, 2008
	- Slogan	Hankinson, 2004; Kavaratzis and Ashworth, 2005; 2007; Cai, 2002; Tasci and Kozak, 2006; Hanna and Rowley, 2011; Hanna and Rowley, 2011
	- Logo	Hankinson, 2004; Kavaratzis and Ashworth, 2005; 207; Cai, 2002; Tasci and Kozak, 2006; Hanna and Rowley, 2011; Balakrishnan, 2009; Hanna and Rowley, 2011
	- Name	Hankinson, 2004; Randall, 1997; Tasci and Kozak, 2006; Cai, 2002; Balakrishnan, 2009
	▪ **Potential functional attributes:**	Hankinson, 2004; 2005; Cai, 2002 (tangible attributes); Tasci and Kozak, 2006 (attributes); Hildreth, 2010 (cultural factors); Balakrishnan, 2009; Ofori, 2010 (infrastructure); Hanna and Rowley, 2011
	- Urban residential services	Ashworth and Voogd, 1990; Merrilees *et al.*, 2013 (as part of government services)
	- Social services and relations (interpersonal relationships)	Ashworth and Voogd, 1990 (social and cultural); Merrilees *et al.*, 2007; 2013
	- Museums, art galleries, theatres, concert halls and other cultural services	Hankinson, 2004; Tasci and Kozak, 2006 (culture); Merrilees *et al.*, 2013 (cultural activities); Zenker, 2011 (urbanity and diversity); Ashworth and Voogd, 1990 (cultural services)
	- Leisure and sports activities and facilities	Hankinson, 2004; Merrilees *et al.*, 2013 (leisure; shopping)
	- Conference and exhibition facilities	Hankinson, 2004
	- Natural environment,	Hankinson, 2004; Ashworth and Voogd, 1990 (social and

	public spaces and recreational services	recreational); Tasci and Kozak, 2006 (natural attractions); Merrilees *et al.*, 2007; 2013; Zenker, 2009
	- Hotels, restaurants, night clubs and entertainment	Hankinson, 2004; Merrilees *et al.*, 2013 (nightlife); Hildreth, 2010 (attractions and anomalities)
	- Architecture and quality of the built environment	Hankinson, 2004; Ashworth and Voogd, 1990
	- Transport infrastructure and access	Hankinson, 2004; Merrilees *et al.*, 2013; Hildreth, 2010
	- Hygiene facilities (car parks, toilets, baby-changing facilities, street cleaning, etc.)	Hankinson, 2004
	- Vibrancy (business vibrancy including growth of jobs)	Merrilees *et al.*, 2007; 2013; Zenker, 2011 (job chances/ business); Hildreth, 2010
	▪ **Potential symbolic attributes:**	Hankinson, 2004; 2005; Cai, 2002 (intangible attributes); Balakrishnan, 2009
	- Place symbolisms, souvenirs and handicraft	Ashworth and Voogd, 1990 (symbols and associations); Jensen, 2005; Tasci and Kozak, 2006 (symbol/ icon); Balakrishnan, 2009; Hildreth, 2010
	- The character of the local residents	Hankinson, 2004
	- The profile of typical visitors (age, income, interests and values)	Hankinson, 2004
	- Descriptors of the quality of service provided	Hankinson, 2004; Balakrishnan, 2009
	▪ **Potential experiential attributes:**	Hankinson, 2004; 2005; Cai, 2002 (visitor experiences); Merrilees *et al.*, 2007 (community satisfaction); 2013 (brand attitudes); Hildreth, 2010 (amenity); Balakrishnan, 2009 (experience); Hanna and Rowley, 2011
	- How the city make residents/ visitors feel (relaxed, excited, fascinated, etc.)	Hankinson, 2004; Balakrishnan, 2009 (emotion); Zenker, 2011 (emotion); Hildreth, 2010 (pride and personality of local people)
	- Descriptors of the built environment (historic, modern, green, spacious, etc.)	Hankinson, 2004; Merrilees *et al.*, 2013 (clean environment)
	- Descriptors related to security and safety	Hankinson, 2004; Merrilees *et al.*, 2013
	- Quality of life	Zenker, 2011 (cost efficiency/ place quality); Hildreth, 2010 (“Ooh, I could live here!”)
	- The physical characteristics of air	Ashworth and Voogd, 1990
	- Sound, smell and taste	Ashworth and Voogd, 1990; Balakrishnan, 2009
	- Colours	Balakrishnan, 2009
	- Relationships/ interactions	Tasci and Kozak, 2006; Merrilees *et al.*, 2013 (social bonding); Balakrishnan, 2009; Hankinson, 2004
	▪ **Other:**	
	- Benefits	Tasci and Kozak, 2006; Cai, 2002
	- Personality	Tasci and kozak, 2006; Zenker, 2011
	- Users	Tasci and Kozak, 2006
	- Patents	Tasci and Kozak, 2006; Balakrishnan, 2009 (licensing)
	- Trademarks	Tasci and Kozak, 2006 See also Appendixes A, C and D

In theory, those places (i.e. brand developers) aspiring to be successful in the long term in today’s world must have a clear picture of their stakeholders and customers. This should be reflected in the vision and strategies in order to deliver value as well as gain success (Figure 5.4). As suggested by de Chernatony (2001), brand vision could incorporate future, purpose and values as well as elements from literature as in Figure 5.4. The brand must be designed to "leave a clear and unique image in the target customer's mind" (Balakrishnan, 2009) but it should not dictate the measures (brand elements) as people might see other issues as well. Zenker (2011) also notes that determination of attributes and standard questionnaires may limit results as some elements may be overlooked. Measures should only help to establish if the target will be reached as set out in vision. For this reason it is suggested to look at the broader list of brand elements in the literature. The elements from the literature send client/ designer or people messages suggesting what they should consider and what can be measured. The elements' list is only suggestive and may assist when describing people's perceptions which will be then compared to vision elements. If the vision and the brand itself are consistent with people's perceptions, it means that brand initiative can be communicated and implemented, otherwise it would give an opportunity to analyse why it is not working. The consistency also reflects the degree of success and recognition which are necessary in any branding campaign. Furthermore, the brand needs to be communicated appropriately and its performance in the marketplace should be tracked as suggested by Ghodeswar (2010) (Section 3.44). Ofori (2010) also stressed the importance of communication (Section 3.5.9).



- Future
- Purpose
- Values

- Vision
- Mission
- Heritage and culture
- People and values
- Philosophy
- Country of origin/ reputation/credibility of brand (destination) name, tourism quality
- Uniqueness

- **Visual triggers:**
  - Symbol - Slogan
  - Logo - Name
- **Potential functional attributes:**
  - Urban residential services
  - Social services and relations (interpersonal relationships)
  - Museums, art galleries, theatres, concert halls and other cultural services
  - Leisure and sports activities and facilities
  - Conference and exhibition facilities
  - Natural environment, public spaces and recreational services
  - Hotels, restaurants, night clubs and entertainment
  - Architecture and quality of the built environment
  - Transport infrastructure and access
  - Hygiene facilities (car parks, toilets, baby-changing facilities, street cleaning, etc.)
  - Vibrancy (business vibrancy including growth of jobs)
- **Potential symbolic attributes:**
  - Place symbolisms, souvenirs and handicraft
  - The character of the local residents
  - The profile of typical visitors (age, income, interests and values)
  - Descriptors of the quality of service provided
- **Potential experiential attributes:**
  - How the city make residents/ visitors feel (relaxed, excited, fascinated, etc.)

For example:

- Visitors, workers etc??? Of different sex, religion...
- Etc.

- Descriptors of the built environment (historic, modern, green, spacious, etc.)
- Descriptors related to security and safety
- Quality of life
- The physical characteristics of air
- Sound, smell and taste
- Colours
- Relationships/ interactions
- **Other:**
  - Benefits
  - Personality
  - Users
  - Patents
  - Trademarks

Figure 5.4 Place brand evaluation framework model

It is recommended to use the proposed framework as a guide when evaluating place brand as it explains the brand and provides a suggestive list of elements to consider. The same framework can also be used in the brand development stage; examples such as Randers with its anti-branding campaign prove that it is important to determine perceptions of people in the early stages of branding. Various tools (surveys, workshops, interviews, perception studies, etc.) can be used for measurement of vision and people's perceptions (in Manchester case, brand developers/ representatives will be interviewed and representatives from the general public will participate in workshops/ surveys). Combinations of tools not only present an overall picture, but also enable analysis over the period of time as well as indicate any changes. Perception measurement tools will need to be adapted to suit various places because each place has a different set of brand elements with its own specific attributes. Proposed evaluative framework accommodates this by providing only suggestive list that can be customised to suit particular situation. Moreover, public may indicate elements and/ or issues that have been overlooked by others. Components of vision are considered to be more or less consistent. Finally, public represent various groups of people be it residents, visitors, etc. and respondents can be selected depending on the objectives of the evaluative study.

The satisfied stakeholders can contribute to the brand by being loyal (for example, return visits), supporting and recommending the brand, informing the world about it, spreading positive word-of-mouth, etc. (Figure 5.5). They also expect that brand would ensure certain values which drive people's behaviour (as mentioned in Section 5.3.1.2), such as stability (for example, economic), safety (physical and social), quality (of life, services), would acknowledge their presence and contribution, and guarantee values (Randall, 1998). For example, the new brand for Aalborg (Figure 3.5) incorporates four values: diversity, wide prospects, teamwork and drive (Jensen, 2005).

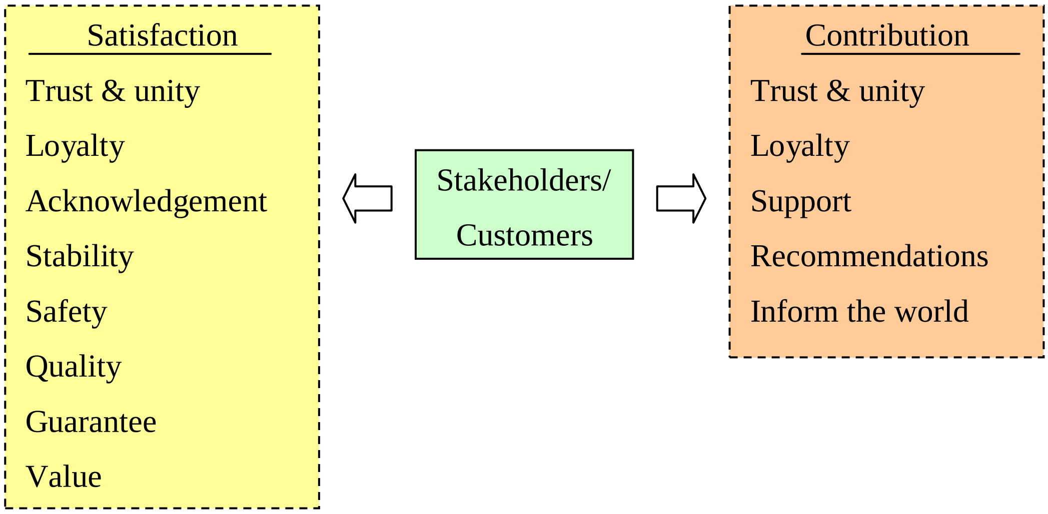


Figure 5.5 Stakeholder and customer reactions towards brand (adopted from Neely and Adams, 2002)

The question now is what is successful branding and how to measure it.

5.3.3 How to measure success?

Success is the favourable outcome of anything attempted (Dictionary and Thesaurus of Webster's Reference Library, 2005). The term "success" in corporate marketing is associated with the realisation of goals and can be expressed in the form of substantial (turnover) or abstract (corporate image) success (Rainisto, 2003). According to the same author, success can be "measured as a ratio of outcome".

In the literature, there are no well-established, commonly accepted and clearly defined criteria upon which success should be judged (de Chernatony *et al.*,1998; Rainisto, 2003), for example, Balakrishnan (2008) uses term "successful branding strategy" but does not explain the meaning of it nor how to assess if it is successful. Moreover, it is not clear how to measure success. According to Stevens (2011) and Govers, and Baker, (2011) The Shared Vision for Eurocities emphasises that "there is no single formula for success". Very often it can be a subject of own interpretation. Moreover, in the context of place branding, it is difficult to define and assess success, as each place has to decide itself what effectiveness of branding initiative means for them, for example, Hutton and Lee (2009) successful cities call the ones which have a vision aligning to stakeholders' shared goals or are able to drive growth on the basis of knowledge intensive economy (Section 2.2.7). Success or failure of branding strongly depends on the place itself. Stevens (2011) says that "cities have to respond to their own particular situation, but those which are proactive and aware of the experiences of others stand a greater chance of succeeding". According to Visdeloup (2010) use of old city's strengths such as "imposing historic architecture and long-standing traditions" enhances the new identity, for example, Rome or Paris. In the absence of rich heritage, Visdeloup (2010) suggests developing own style and attractions, like in Bilbao (section 3.3); this example shows that reasonably selected attraction guarantees success. Furthermore, the large number of variables in brand makes this task even more difficult.

People need to be inspired to use the brand, talk about it positively, and be proud of it. In this research, success means if people can recognise and accept the newly created brand. This could be expressed by the number of positive responses (people's perceptions) that agree with particular theme, for example, in vision as a way of indicating the level of coherence and then compared with the whole number of sample. The degree of match between vision and people's perceptions can give an answer whether reality reflects the vision and whether efforts (including financial) made on branding stand up. However, the number of matching elements in vision is subject to debate because five matches do not necessarily mean it is a better result than three or two matches, as it depends on the importance of the element. But what degree of match will determine the success? How to measure it? Is it success when respondents can recognise the brand vision and identity? As already mentioned, it is up to brand practitioner or client/ designer to decide what quantitative value they will regard as success. And, of course, this data needs to be acted on in order to get a real value from the whole process. The outcomes of evaluation process should also suggest further steps.

5.4 Conclusions

This thesis aims to understand success of place branding initiatives and how it can be evaluated (see Chapter 1). Moreover, Chapter 1 highlighted that there is a lack on guidance how to evaluate place brand. Chapter 2 described Manchester as in particular complicated case with its history and branding events. Chapter 3 identified the growing need for measurement of branding initiatives illustrating it with practical place branding examples as well as analysis of existing branding models. Chapter 4 described research methodology used in this research while this chapter combined all the findings thus far in this thesis to develop a framework that helps to assess the effectiveness of a new brand for place. The framework methodology consists of four elements, as outlined below:

- Brand
- Vision
- Brand elements (in the literature)
- People's perceptions

The brand evaluation framework acts as a guide for anybody concerned about place branding but is primarily targeted at place brand clients and possibly the designers. This framework was designed as comprehensive and adaptable to any place, allowing greater levels of detail if needed. It analyses people's perceptions and can further help places in developing/ improving their branding initiatives. The framework could obviously be applied to a number of other places in order to thoroughly test its workability and efficiency in the field.

It was identified in section 4.4.3.1 that single case study will be used in this research. The brand evaluation framework will be tested on Manchester (Chapter 6).

CHAPTER 6: MANCHESTER CASE STUDY

6.1 Introduction and research objectives

The literature reviews (Chapters 2 & 3) substantiated the research need of this investigation. The lack of a framework and guidance of how to measure the performance of a place brand was justified in Chapters 1, 3 and 5. Therefore, this thesis developed an evaluative framework for place branding (Chapter 5) using the findings in the literature reviews. It is the aim of this chapter to apply the developed framework on the city of Manchester, which has a long standing history of a number of place branding initiatives. In doing so, the applicability of the proposed framework will be tested, and its value confirmed or disapproved.

In the last decade, Manchester has grown in size and increased in prosperity. Today it presents itself to the world as the original modern city and uses signifier of multi-coloured “M” for national and international communications (see Section 2.2.5). The brand evaluation framework, developed in Chapter 5, was used to assess the effectiveness of the brand and the latest branding initiative for Manchester.

This chapter describes the research methodology undertaken to test and validate the evaluative framework for place branding. The validation of the framework in this case study investigation centres on the results from an interview with a representative involved in the brand creation for Manchester as well as results from workshops and surveys with various groups of people in terms of sex, age, role in the city, etc; i.e. the stakeholders identified in the framework. In doing so, this study endeavoured: -

- To understand the brand and its value for Manchester
- To identify if people (living and working, visiting or who have never visited Manchester) can recognise and accept the brand.

6.2 Case Study Background

The case study used in this research is Manchester, the fastest growing city in the UK outside London with the population of 2.5 million and its own international airport with over 190 direct routes around the world operated by more than 100 airlines (Centre for Cities, 2010b), world-class conference facilities and four universities with one of the largest student populations in Europe (MCC, n. d.).

Figure 6.1 Manchester (The Essential English Centre, n. d.)

Manchester was once known as an industrial city dependent on manufacturing which has undergone one of the most ambitious regeneration projects and transformed into a knowledge-based economy and is known now for finance, commerce, retail, culture or leisure.

Manchester is a unique city and is a particularly good example of city branding which developed together with the city. Chapter 2 reviewed the evolution of Manchester branding initiatives highlighting historical events that had an impact on city's brand during specific periods. They were summarised in Table 2.2 including landmark buildings. On one hand, this shows that Manchester keeps reinventing itself together with its ideas of how to market and position the city to the world. On the other hand however, this inspires discussions, as to why branding initiatives for Manchester keep changing? Are they not good enough? If this is the case, what is the reason for this failure; is there an issue with the design, etc.? Evaluation of branding initiatives can help to answer these questions, however, Chapter 3 identified that there is a lack of evaluative measures along a lack of clarity on what to measure; this is the focus of this study.

Today's identity for Manchester has been created by designer Peter Saville who re-interpreted Manchester's historic reputation as the "first industrial" city to the "original modern" city (Centre for Cities, 2010b) and presented the new signifier – multi-coloured "M". According to the brand developer (Bramley and Page, 2009), the concept "original modern" differentiates Manchester from other cities and at the same time shows what it gives to the world. Despite this, there are, as yet, different comments and interpretations on this initiative as well as concerns whether this brand identity is attractive enough and acceptable for residents and can well reflect the city (see Section 2.2.5.1). Thus, there is a need to determine what factors form a brand for the city and, as mentioned in previous paragraph, how this brand can be evaluated.

Accordingly, this city was deemed to be suitable for the case study in order to investigate what factors are involved in city branding as well as examine its success. In doing so, the complexity of issues was analysed in one case. It was a validation study attempting to evaluate the whole brand including reasons for it rather visual triggers and confirm concept of the framework; in order to do this, multiple data collection methods were used (Section 4.4.3.1).

The following section describes methodology undertaken for this case study.

6.3 Methodology

The research methodology of this case study followed the steps of the evaluative framework, as illustrated in Figure 6.2 and described in the following sections.

Data was collected through literature reviews, an interview with the marketing representative whom was related to organisations representing Manchester and its brand development (Section 6.3.1.1) and workshops, as well as semi-structured surveys with different stakeholder groups: people who live/ work in Manchester, tourists and people who never visited Manchester (Section 6.3.1.2); it is anticipated that the varying stakeholder groups will provide a succinct evaluation of Manchester as a brand and the latest branding initiative including concept "original modern" and multi-coloured "M" from all perspectives as well as approve or disapprove the use of the proposed framework (Figure 5.4). Questions for interview and workshops/ surveys were developed based on literature review and tested with respondents recruited through personal contacts before approaching general public.

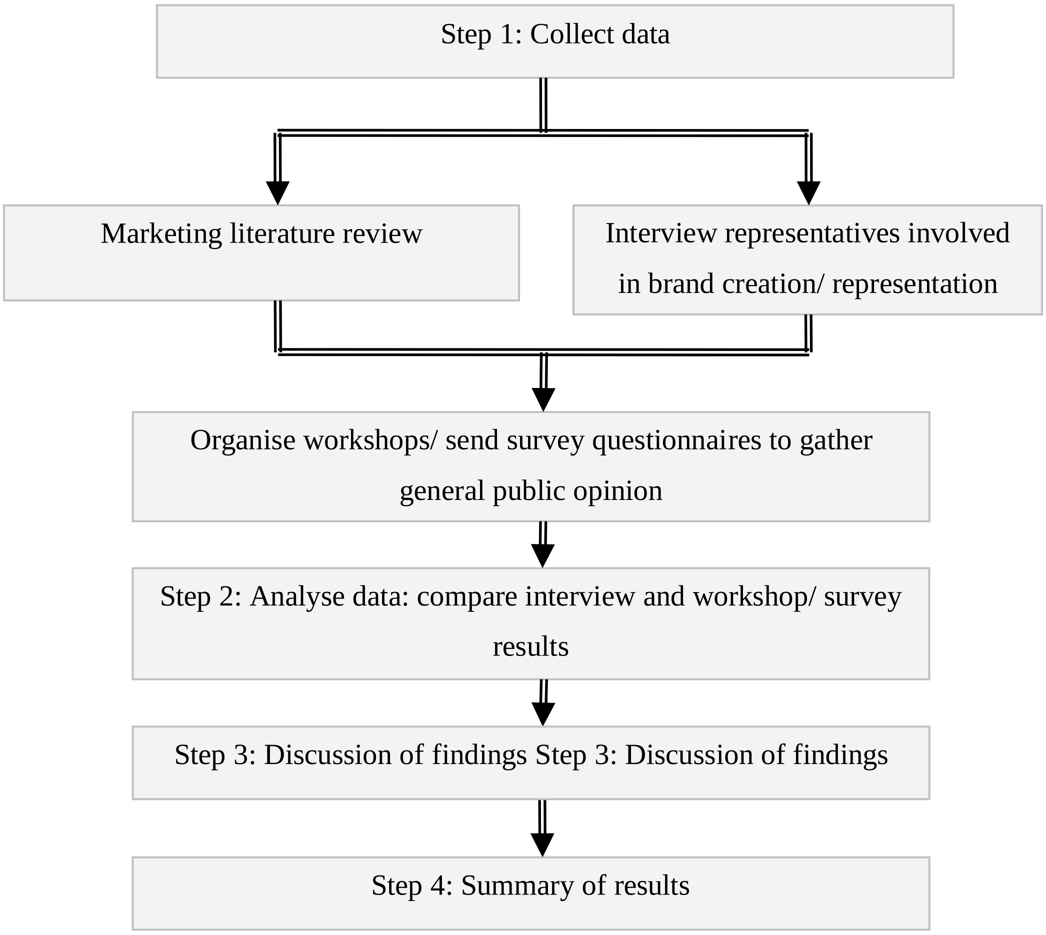


Figure 6.2 Brand evaluation framework as applied to Manchester

6.3.1 Step 1: Collect data

Data was collected in Step 1 of this case study through literature reviews, semi-structured interview as well as workshops and survey questionnaires. The later are explained below.

6.3.1.1 Interview representatives involved in brand creation

The intention was to interview representatives from the organisations involved in the Manchester city brand creation in order to elicit their views on the vision for the city as well as on the proposed brand. It was felt that a semi-structured interview technique would draw more valuable information from them and their answers would help to understand brand better as well as reasons for it, etc.

An interview questionnaire format has been developed from the literature review and framework. The questions were designed to collect the required data in relation to the aim and objectives of this research. Potential participants for interview were approached through personal contacts and contact search in relevant organisations. Participants were initially contacted via an introductory email / telephone call and asked if they are able and willing to participate. Potential interviewees were people involved in the latest Manchester brand development and representation.

Although the researcher contacted 7 persons whom were understood to have been involved in the original Manchester brand design, only one participant responded and agreed to be interviewed. The researcher felt that one interview was sufficient in this research due to their original involvement in the development of the brand, the scope and character of interview as well as extensive experience of the respondent. Furthermore, the one interviewee represented two different organisations and has been selected because of the relevance of the direct activities. This interview was conducted with the representative from the company, currently responsible for the communication of what Manchester has to offer to business; prior to this interviewee was involved in the promotion of Manchester on the national and international stage as part of the marketing team.

As discussed in Chapter 4, because of the intended number of brand developers/ representatives and their availability to participate in the workshop, interview technique was chosen as a suitable data collection method in this research because it enabled gathering of the most relevant data. Despite one interview was conducted, it reflected views of brand developers/ representatives which could be compared with perceptions of the general public identifying gaps and mismatches. To supplement interview data, researcher was suggested by the interviewee to review relevant documents (transcript of the interview with the strategic marketing representative whom researcher understands was involved in the Manchester branding initiative at a time (Ofori, 2010; Destination Branding: An Original Modern Perspective. Exploring the communication of brand identity in the city of Manchester (Ofori, 2010) contains findings from the International Passenger Survey; Greater Manchester Destination Management Plan (Marketing Manchester, 2014); Anholt's City Brand Index (Anholt, n. d.); Paul Simpson's interview with Visit England (Visit England, 2012)). Finally, data from the interview helped to achieve research aim and objectives, i.e. evaluate Manchester brand and validate the proposed framework.

The interview was conducted in order to gain in-depth knowledge on the latest Manchester's brand including concept "original modern" and signifier "M" as well as aims and objectives. This then allowed designing workshop and survey questions. The semi-structured interview followed the subsequent format as to determine vision, reasons for brand including particular summing-up device and signifier as well as descriptions and meanings and finally, validity of the framework:

- The interviewee was asked to briefly describe their role/ responsibilities in Manchester brand.
- In the second part of interview questions about Manchester and its vision were asked.

- The third part of interview concentrated on Manchester's brand including reasons for it, a set of questions about the summing-up device and signifier.
- Questions in the last part of the interview were aimed at the validation of the framework.

The interview lasted up to 1 hour. The results of interview together with notes taken during them were used to determine the deliverables of Step 1 of the evaluation framework (Figure 6.2). A copy of the interview questionnaire can be found in Appendix F.

Profile of one person who participated in semi-structured interview is shown in Table 6.1. Due to the confidentiality and anonymity issues in this study, it has been decided not to name this person, but use codes instead, for example I1.

Table 6.1 Profile of the Interviewee

Name	Position held	Role in Manchester brand
I1	Marketing Manager	Communication of what Manchester has to offer to businesses

6.3.1.2 Organise workshops/ send survey questionnaires to gather general public opinion

To fully validate the framework, the general public was consulted as well. Section 5.3.1.4 discussed the importance of people in place branding. Because people represent the masses of the city; they are regarded as part of the city's brand so their opinions and insights are important considering they might be different from the desired. Involvement of people in the development of branding campaigns increases chances of success. It is anticipated that involvement of people in the evaluation of brand will enhance their sense of ownership and responsibility.

The sample audience was chosen of 30 people as it is crucial to elicit a large enough sample to represent the spectrum of views about the brand, including people from different subsets of the population, such as residents, visitors as well as people who never visited, people from different age and sexual groups. A combination of workshops and survey questionnaires was used to gather public perceptions on Manchester and its latest branding initiative. Workshops were deemed to be the appropriate method to validate; they encouraged people to discuss and debate issues as well as answer queries and clarify misinterpretations, however, as it was difficult to invite participants to attend a workshop and a spectrum of stakeholder profiles was required.

Workshops were organised with groups of people (up to 6 people) who were available at the same time and in one place, i.e. people who live/ work in Manchester. Workshop was also organised with one group of overseas visitors. Workshops allowed interviewing few people at once and initiated discussions as well as correcting or clarifying respondents' misunderstandings and answer questions; they ensured quality of information and response rate. Workshop groups were small in numbers which allowed effective management for the researcher. The survey questionnaires were sent to the rest of the respondents, i.e. people who never visited Manchester as well as tourists/ visitors as it was impossible to invite them to attend workshops due to their physical location as well as time difference; however their opinion was important and therefore was considered in this research.

As discussed above, workshop and survey participants were selected based on the criteria of their status in the city (Table 6.3). This enabled analysis and comparison of views held by different stakeholders; then their views could be compared with responses of marketing representative and finings in literature, thus helping to understand phenomenon being studied. Furthermore, a sample of 30 respondents was sufficient for template analysis (Section 4.4.3.3) as data analysis technique chosen for this research (see Section 6.3.2).

Workshop and survey respondents were initially approached via an introductory email/ telephone call/ meeting and asked if they were able and willing to participate. After agreeing to participate people from both groups were sent a copy or introduced in workshops with the research principles and ethical considerations, which they were asked to sign and agree to (see Appendix G). They were also reassured anonymity.

Workshop and survey format has been developed from the literature review, framework and interview with the marketing representative. The questions were designed to collect the required data in relation to the aim and objectives of this research. Workshop and survey questionnaires were in similar format as interview questionnaire for purposes of analysis. The workshop and survey questionnaires followed the subsequent format as to determine vision together with reasons for brand, summing-up device and signifier as well as their descriptions and meanings and finally, validity of the framework:

- The respondents were asked to identify whether they live and work, visit or never visited as well as their employment status, occupation, sex and age group for statistical purposes.
- In the second part of workshop/ survey questions about Manchester and its vision were asked.
- The third part of workshop/ survey concentrated on Manchester's brand including reasons for it, the new summing-up slogan and signifier.
- Questions in the last part of the workshop/ survey were aimed at the validation of the framework.

Workshops lasted up to 1 hour. Survey questionnaires took up to 30 minutes to complete. The results of workshops/ surveys together with notes taken during them were used to determine the deliverables of Step 1 of the evaluation framework (Figure 6.2). A full copy of the workshop and survey questionnaire can be found in Appendix G.

Table 6.2 Profile of the workshops/ survey participants

Name	Status in Manchester	Gender	Age group	Occupation
W1 1	Live/ work	Female	30-50	Retail Supervisor
W1 2	Live/ work	Male	30-50	Engineer
W2 1	Live/ work	Female	30-50	Unemployed
W2 2	Live/ work	Male	30-50	Plasterer
W2 3	Live/ work	Male	Above 50	Plasterer
W2 4	Live/ work	Female	Under 30	Croupier/ cashier
W2 5	Live/ work	Male	30-50	Fixer
W3 1	Live/ work	Male	30-50	Training & Support Manager
W3 2	Live/ work	Female	Above 50	CEO
W3 3	Live/ work	Female	Under 30	Director in IT
W4 1	Visitor	Male	Under 30	Student
W4 2	Visitor	Male	Under 30	Student
W4 3	Visitor	Male	Under 30	Student
W4 4	Visitor	Male	Under 30	Student
W4 5	Visitor	Female	Under 30	Student
W4 6	Visitor	Female	Under 30	Student
S1	Visitor	Female	30-50	Representative/ Europe
S2	Visitor	Female	30-50	HR Administrator
S3	Visitor	Female	30-50	Unemployed
S4	Visitor	Female	30-50	Youth Job Centre Department Manager
S5	Never visited	Female	30-50	Retail Business Development Manager
S6	Never visited	Female	30-50	Public Official
S7	Never visited	Female	30-50	Front Office – Hilton
S8	Never visited	Female	30-50	Owner of the gym
S9	Never visited	Female	30-50	International Training Administrator
S10	Never visited	Male	30-50	Sales Manager
S11	Never visited	Female	30-50	Senior Interior Designer
S12	Never visited	Female	Above 50	Manager
S13	Never visited	Female	Under 30	Student
S14	Never visited	Male	30-50	Labourer

Profiles of the thirty (30) people who participated in workshops and surveys are shown in Table 6.2. Due to the confidentiality and anonymity issues in this study, it has been decided not to name them, but use codes instead, for example W1 1 - first member of the first workshop, W2 1 – first member of the second workshop, S1 - survey respondent, etc.

Tables below break down number of respondents into various groups. Table 6.3 describes their status in the city, i.e. residents, visitors or never visited. Table 6.4 groups respondents into three age groups while Table 6.5 give numbers of how many of them are employed/ unemployed or are students. Table 6.6 presents numbers of people of different gender. This data will be useful for statistical purposes.

Table 6.3 Status in the city

Groups of people	No of respondents
Residents	10
Visitors	10
People who never visited	10

Table 6.4 Age

Groups of people	No of respondents
Under 30	9
30 - 50	18
Above 50	3

Table 6.5 Occupation

Groups of people	No of respondents
Employed	21
Unemployed	2
Student	7

Table 6.6 Gender

Groups of people	No of respondents
Male	11
Female	19

6.3.2 Step 2: Analyse data: compare interview and workshop/ survey results

This section describes the analysis process of the collected data. Analysis of interview and workshop/ survey is supposed to help to understand phenomenon being studied. The idea is to compare the responses of public with the responses of brand representative and literature findings which are a field for analysis, comparisons, conclusions and further suggestions (Figure 6.3).

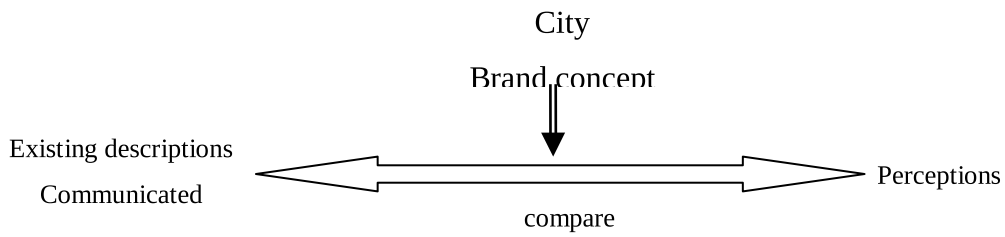


Figure 6.3 Analysis process

As noted in Section 4.4.3.3, the template analysis was chosen as the data analysis technique to be used in this research. It is based on coding. Text is in a number of categories or themes relevant to research question(s) and forms a "codebook" or template, (King, 1994). Coding can be described as labeling of text, related to a theme or issue which the researcher identified as important to his/her own interpretation. Coding process is used for the reason that it reduces large amounts of unstructured text and makes data manageable for the evaluation. Some of the codes and themes can be usually defined priori but later can be modified and added to as the research reads. According to King (2004), in common, template analysis can deal with 20-30 participants and works particularly well when comparing perspectives of different groups of people within a specific context which is the case in this research.

If the amounts of data are small, it is possible to work with it directly from the hard copy. Nowadays text is usually typed into a computer program, typically Microsoft Word or Excel so it is possible to work with data directly from these Microsoft Office programs. Specialised data base management program like Access or special qualitative data analysis programs can be used but the decision to use them would depend on the size of data (Powell and Renner, 2003). Software, such as Ethnograph or NUD*IST specifically analyze qualitative data, SAS software summarizes open-ended survey questions (Powell and Renner, 2003). NVivo can be used in coding process, however, since surveys were relatively small in quantity in this study and the software "cannot by itself make any kind of judgment" (King, 2004), the researcher decided not to use computer-assisted data analysis tool. Instead, a manual grouping technique was used for the notes from interview, workshops and surveys. This means that research themes were manually identified and coded within the interview as well as workshop/ survey notes because they were potentially significant to the phenomena being studied. The following steps as suggested by King (2007) were followed in this study:

1) Priori themes defined;
2) Notes taken during interviews as well as workshops and survey responses were summarised by the researcher;
3) Initial coding carried out;
4) Initial template created;
5) Template was developed to the full data set;
6) "Final" template to interpret and write up findings was created.

It should be noted that before analysis of the collected data, notes made by the researcher and workshop participants were combined together by the researcher. All the data was in English so there was no need for any translations.

6.3.2.1 Creating an initial template

As mentioned in the above section, some themes were defined before data analysis; this is common in template analysis because “a research project has started with the assumption that certain aspects of the phenomena under investigation should be focused on” and “the importance of certain issues in relation to the topic being researched is so well-established that one can safely expect them to arise in the data” (King, 2007). After priori themes have been defined, they could be initially coded. However, King (2007) reminds that some material not relating to priori themes might be overlooked or there is danger not to recognise that particular priori theme is not effective enough to characterise data (King, 2007).

Taking the above issues into account, the researcher defined key themes based on the interview and workshop/ survey questions and during the initial review of the notes manually highlighting key themes relating to the research aim. All the notes were re-read several times to avoid data negligence and to ensure that all the themes related to this study were highlighted and nothing was missed. Themes, relating to the study were summarised in the framework to foster clarity and help to present the qualitative data. The initial template was developed in Table 6.7.

Table 6.7 The initial template designed from the preliminary coding of the interview, workshop notes as well as surveys

Place brand	
» City view (development viewpoint)	**» Perceptions (Perceived viewpoint)**
• City - Vision - Values	• City - Vision - Values
• Brand - Symbol/ brand signifier - Slogan/ summing-up device - Values	• Brand - Symbol/ brand signifier - Slogan/ summing-up device - Values
» Brand Evaluation	

6.3.2.2 Creating "Final" template

After the initial template was created, it was then revised in order to be fully developed and give as good representation of data as possible. The template was applied to each set of notes; all the relevant segments were coded on it and modified where the material was relevant to the research question. In other words, codes were deleted or inserted, scope of the codes revised. According to King (2007), modification involves inserting a theme, deleting a theme, changing the scope of the theme or changing the higher-order classification of a theme. One of the most difficult decisions for researcher was to when to stop the analysis. The researcher read each set of notes at least five times in order to fully encompass all material which was not covered by the initial template. The final template is presented in Table 6.8.

Table 6.8 The final template designed from the preliminary coding of the interview, workshop notes as well as surveys

<table>
<tr><th colspan="2">Place Brand</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">» Awareness of city branding

Importance of branding for cities
What does form a brand for the city
Resident involvement in branding process
</td></tr>
<tr><td>» City view (development/representation viewpoint)

<u>About city</u>

Vision
Values
Description
Representation

<u>About brand</u>

Awareness
Brand vision and reasons for it
Values
Brand signifier

Graphical representation
Colours

Importance of logo and slogan

</td>
<td>» Perceptions (perceived viewpoint)

<u>About city</u>

Vision
Values
Description
Representation

<u>About brand</u>

Awareness
Brand vision and reasons for it
Values
Brand signifier

Graphical representation
Colours

Importance of logo and slogan

</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">» Brand Evaluation</td></tr>
</table>

6.3.3 Step 3: Discussion of findings

This section presents the researcher's interpretation of the findings from the interviews and workshops/ surveys. It also provides qualitative workshop and survey extracts to support the interpretation.

6.3.3.1 Findings of theme 1 – Awareness of place branding

Respondents were asked three general questions about the place branding to find out if they are familiar with the phenomenon. They also expressed their opinion on what forms brand for the place and whether residents should be involved in designing the brand.

6.3.3.1.1 Findings of sub-theme 1 - Importance of branding

96.7% of respondents said that branding is important for places; however respondent S1 admitted that never thought about this. Some of the respondents justified their opinion giving their reasons as to why they think branding is important, e.g. 20% of respondents said that it is important for recognition while 10% of respondents thought that it is important for tourist attraction and another 10% mentioned investment, 3.3% of respondents suggested that "people care more about well percepted place", etc. All the reasons given by respondents are illustrated in Figure 6.4.

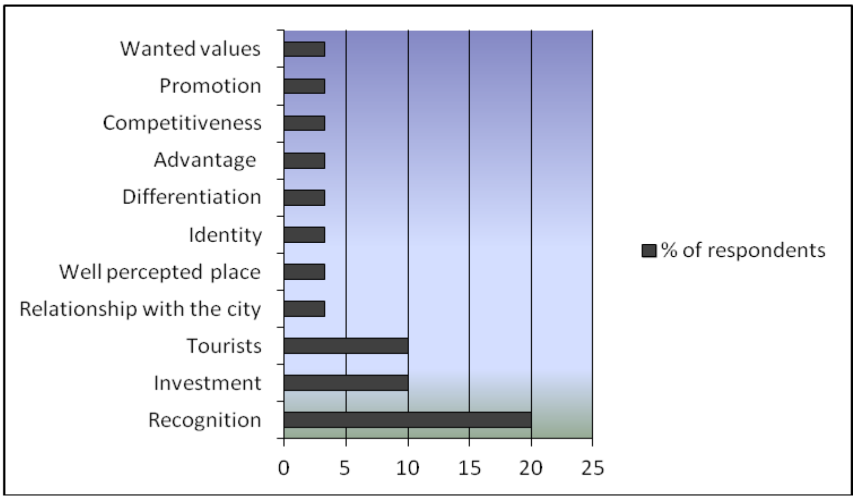


Figure 6.4 Reasons for place branding

The literature (Section 3.2.1) discussed similar reasons for place branding as they are described above, for example, competition between cities, differentiation, desirable message or wanted values, etc. In addition to these, the literature described few more reasons, i.e. branding helps when renewing city’s image (to eliminate existing negative perceptions) (Section 3.2.4.2), highlights changes in the character or the activities of an area, helps to associate a place with an international event, inform the world or helps to create pride in the place.

6.3.3.1.2 Findings of sub-theme 2 - What does form brand for the place?

Respondents were asked what, in their opinion, forms brand for the place. The most popular answer was architecture (mentioned 12 times, 40%). Section 3.2.6 discussed the possibility to use architecture and landmark buildings to symbolise places supporting opinion of respondents. Manchester has some iconic buildings, for example Town Hall or Midland Hotel (Section 3.2.6) but they are not reflected in Manchester branding campaign.

Architecture was followed by people (mentioned 7 times, 23.3%). Logo and culture were equally important in answers, 5 respondents mentioned them (16.7%). Other components were football, nature, historic developments, distinctive element (aligns with the reason for differentiation mentioned in previous chapter), history, environment, culture, etc. Respondent W3 2 highlighted that “attempts to provide corporate identity (e.g. logo, byline, graphic) must be closely linked to the cultural identity of the city in order for it to work”. The proportion of responses by components is illustrated in Figure 6.5.

In principal the above components are the same as to attributes described in literature (Sections 3.2.3, 3.2.4 and 3.2.4.1) and only vision is missing (literature highlights the importance of it in Section 3.2.3); figure 3.3 illustrates relationship between the components of destination branding process. Some of these elements are incorporated in Figure 5.4, Section 5.3.1.3, and Chapter 3 (Table 3.7). As suggested in literature, above characteristics can be grouped into tangible and intangible or value based.

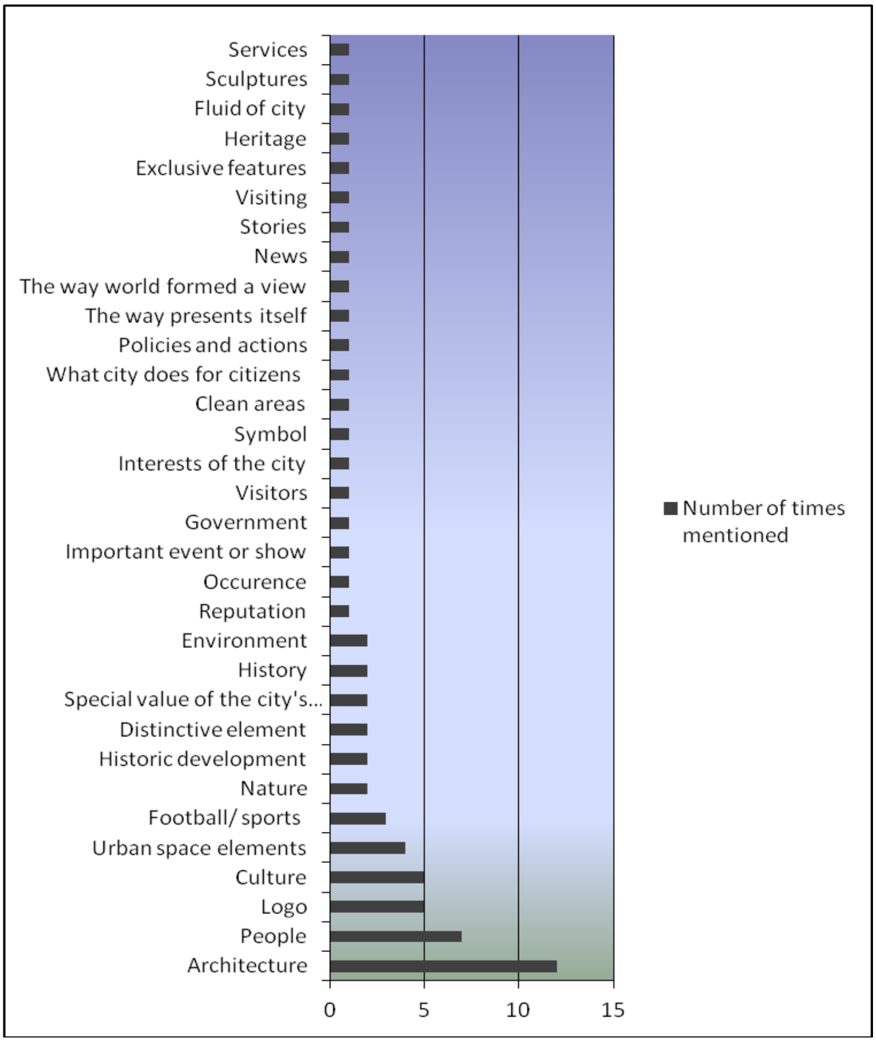


Figure 6.5 Components of the place brand

6.3.3.1.3 Finding of sub-theme 3 - Resident involvement in brand creation for the place

Respondents were also invited to indicate whether residents should also be involved in brand creation for the place and have their say. All respondents except one (who did not express opinion at all) or 96.7% of respondents agreed that residents should be consulted in creating/ deciding brand for the place (results are illustrated in Figure 6.6). These results confirm what literature review reported in terms of resident/ stakeholder involvement in the branding process including reasons for their involvement (Sections 3.2.3, 3.5.12, 5.2, and 5.3.1.4).

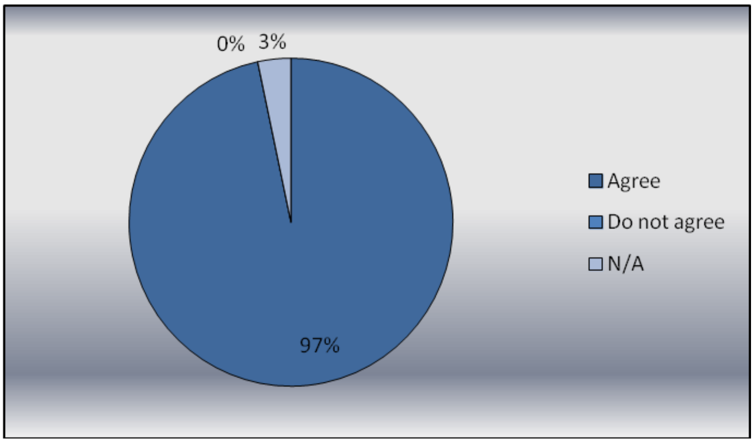


Figure 6.6 Resident involvement in place branding

Respondents S3 and S14 even suggested that people involvement would make them to be proud of the brand while respondent W3 3 said that people “need to be motivated to participate in helping to change a brand”, respondent W3 2 thought that “people have a huge part to play in creating city’s brand” and similarly respondent S9 considered people to be “the essential part of the city”, respondent W3 1 agreed that residents should be involved in brand creation but commented that “they will not like to do it”.

Respondent I1 confirmed that people perception studies are conducted on a regular basis “from the International Passenger Survey to our own benchmarking activity”, “we’re not just independently deciding on our brand messages ... we’ve gone out and spanned what people, including residents, are saying about the city and we’ve coordinated these messages”. However, representatives of the general public appeared to be not aware that engagement with the public had taken place.

6.3.3.2 Findings of theme 2 – City

Respondents were asked a set of questions about Manchester, sub-themes below review and analyse these answers.

As discussed in Chapter 5, every place, be it town, city or country need to know which direction it is going; vision is a key parameter. For the reasons discussed in Section 5.3.1.2, a couple of questions were asked about vision. Projected and perceived images of the city are also described.

6.3.3.2.1 Findings of sub-theme 1 – Description

Respondents were asked to describe Manchester, what do they think of it. These perceptions are in general informed and shaped by visits, media and personal experience. Answers are summarised in Table 6.9. Researcher highlighted (in bold, underlined, italic, etc.) the same words repeating in all 3 columns.

In principal, all three groups of respondents had similar perceptions of Manchester and described a mix of functional, symbolic and experiental attributes (Section 5.3.1.3). 46.7% of respondents (mainly visitors and people who never visited Manchester and three residents) associated Manchester with Manchester United/ football; these perceptions were shaped either by visits or media, e.g. Manchester United according to the respondent S14 “is being mentioned in every sport news” and respondent S1 commented “Manchester United symbols are visible everywhere” and “what else is in Manchester that you can associate with Manchester”. Architecture/ building heritage was mentioned by 36.7% of respondents (few respondents highlighted a mix of new and old) while industry was named by less respondents, i.e. by 13.3% of respondents. Further, it is not surprising that residents also reflected on the history of Manchester, whereas visitors noted more of the social aspects. The European City Brand Barometer (Hildreth, 2010) assesses similar features as Manchester’s asset strength (sightseeing and historical attractions, cuisine and restaurants, easy to get around on foot and public transport, costs very little to enjoy, has good weather, shopping, economic significance or prosperity) and puts Manchester into 25th place along Belfast and Turin (Section 2.2.5).

Table 6.9 Perceptions of Manchester

Residents	Visitors	People who never visited
Industrial Should be more oriented to culture, history **Manchester United** Mix of industrial and modern Lots of old factories, old bridges *Architecture* New is mixed with old, the same in life Nice region Needs renovation Music **Football** Education Opportunity Majority live in poverty and lack of opportunity Recent riots and gang crime	Small town Confusing **Sports city** *Architectural* heritage Lots of interesting places to go, e.g. Heaton Park, **Manchester United** Building heritage Wet Grey Boring Attractive shopping areas Many good events Not the nicest place to live Rude and limited people Innovative city Has many strengths Confusing what is its main strength Has no special feature/ character	**Manchester United** **Football** Beer Good music culture People have special accent Industry Old English city Prestige University Big dull city Mixture of people from different cultures Has a good groove It is cold

Manchester was also described as small and confusing. Respondent S3 commented that "it is confusing what is its main strength or key message". Respondent W3 2 highlighted negative aspects of the city "where majority live in poverty and lack opportunity" as well as "recent riots and gang crime" while respondent S4 "cannot say a lot about this city" and added "but this also says something of it, does not it? That means that city somehow has no special feature/character which gains the attention of the visitor and which stays in the memory of the visitor".

Respondent I1 described Manchester in a way that it is described in marketing or promotional material using descriptors like "world-class business destination synonymous with innovation" (respondent S3 also mentioned innovation), "city of firsts" or "city of pioneers". Marketing representative also added that "Manchester is very much is a place of opportunity. It's an innovative, progressive city, which does not sit on its laurels. It is ambitious and businesses located here can grow, thrive and be successful."

6.3.3.2.2 – Findings of sub-theme 2 – Representation

In principal, respondents listed similar factors representing Manchester that were also used to describe Manchester. Results are presented in Table 6.10. Researcher highlighted (in bold, underlined, italic, etc.) the same words repeating across columns.

Manchester United/ football was the most popular answer to the question what represents Manchester best, 70% of respondents mentioned them while 26.7% of respondents noted sports in general and 20% of respondents did not express their opinion at all. Interestingly, music was mentioned by one of the residents and one person who never visited Manchester while one of the visitors noted science, innovation and media sector. Respondent W3 1 distinguished different subjects for external people (football clubs: Manchester United and Manchester City, support sport) and citizens (post industrial revolution, mix of cultures). University and education was mentioned when describing Manchester but they were not mentioned in between factors representing Manchester. Table 6.10 presents Manchester describing and representing characters.

Interviewee I1 used similar characteristics features when describing Manchester: "what Manchester offers to the world. Its achievements, its people, its culture, music, its liveability, its ability to collaborate and to get things done", but no football was mentioned. General public also mentioned culture and music but did not highlight people although considered people to be part of the place brand in Section 6.3.3.1.2. It should be added that both, respondents I1 and W3 2 noted "opportunity" when talking about Manchester.

Table 6.10 What does represent Manchester best?

Residents	**Visitors**	**People who never visited**
	Perceptions of Manchester	
Industrial Should be more oriented to culture, history **Manchester United** Mix of industrial and modern Lots of old factories, old bridges *Architecture* New is mixed with old, the same in life Nice region Needs renovation Music **Football** Education Opportunity Majority live in poverty and lack of opportunity Recent riots and gang crime	Small town Confusing **Sports city** *Architectural* heritage Lots of interesting places to go, e.g. Heaton Park, **Manchester United** Building heritage Wet Grey Boring Attractive shopping areas Many good events Not the nicest place to live Rude and limited people Innovative city Has many strengths Confusing what is its main strength Has no special feature/ character	**Manchester United** **Football** Beer Good music culture People have special accent Industry Old English city Prestige University Big dull city Mixture of people from different cultures Has a good groove It is cold
	What does represent Manchester best?	
Football teams Manchester United Sport Post industrial revolution Mix of cultures Music	Football Sport Manchester United Science Innovation Media sector	Football Beer Music bands and alternative culture

6.3.3.2.3 Findings of sub-theme 3 – Vision

Respondents expressed various opinions when asked what they think vision for Manchester is. 33.3% of respondents could not answer this question, 60% of these respondents were visitors or people who never visited Manchester. Respondent S1 even commented “do not know, you tell me”. Group W4 thought that Manchester “tries to achieve regeneration (first of all environmental)” while respondent S4 said “vision for Manchester is to be an outstanding knowledge based city founded by history and people; Greater Manchester tries to succeed in few domains: science, innovation, media sector, sport”. Respondents W2 2, S9 and S10 presumed that Manchester “tries to become the 2nd city” while respondents W2 1 and W2 3 thought it aspires “to become multicultural”. Respondent W3 3 believed that Manchester “tries to create a model where residents play an important role in development and growth”. Respondents S4, S8, S13 and S14 discussed growth (economical and social aspects), good place to live, and attractiveness for living, tourists and businesses while respondent S12 associated future of Manchester with “quality academic society”. In contrast to the above, respondent W3 2 reminded the reality, i.e. “business vision for Manchester does not match with the reality of life in Manchester; this is evident in the mornings coming to work when smartly dressed business people are stepping over homeless people; a ‘brand’ or a ‘logo’ will not make the darker side of Manchester invisible”.

In principal, people’s perceptions on vision (except negative comments) coincide with the formal vision described by respondent I1: “Collectively all agencies responsible for promoting Greater Manchester share the vision that by 2020, the city region will have pioneered a new model for sustainable economic growth based around a more connected, talented and greener city region, where all our residents are able to contribute to and benefit from sustained prosperity and a good quality of life”. Interviewee I1 further explained: “as Manchester never sits on its laurels our work is never done. We have certainly made great strides to achieving or vision, but our vision will continue to develop”. Interviewee I1 also added “thinking globally - city with a global vision”. However, not all the respondents agreed with the statement that current vision for Manchester encompasses their expectations. 73.3% of respondents accepted the statement while 10% of respondents partially agreed, 10% of respondents did not express their opinion at all (all have never been to Manchester) and 6.7% of respondents did not agree saying "not green yet" (respondent W2 1). Results are illustrated below in Figure 6.7.

A couple of respondents suggested addressing additional issues of cleanliness (according to respondent W2 4 "tree leaves and snow are not cleared also overgrown trees and bushes") and more activities for kids (according to respondent W1 1 "more sport complexes and playgrounds are needed for children, especially teenagers; currently there is no sense of ownership"). In addition, respondent S4 thought "it should talk more about Manchester's strengths at international level". Respondent W3 1 did not believe "it will be practically achieved" and similarly respondent W3 2 noted that "is not possible in six years" while respondent S11 questioned "what is in it for visitors?", finally respondent S13 considered that "it is difficult to please everyone".

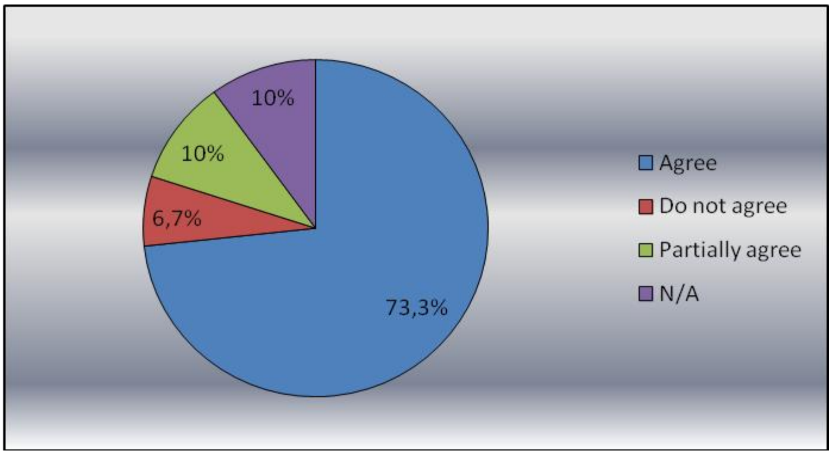


Figure 6.7 Current vision for Manchester encompasses people's needs and expectations

6.3.3.2.4 Findings of sub-theme 4 – Values

When asked about values of Manchester in the vision, people who never visited Manchester found it difficult to answer this question (40% of people who never visited Manchester did not answer at all) along one visitor and one resident. Respondent W3 2 felt that "this model of Manchester portrays and elicit view of business community where those who are unable to contribute are excluded" adding "assumes that those residents who are living below the poverty line will suddenly, in six years time, be able to contribute"; the same respondent "would like to see this 'new model' and how it intends to do this". Other respondents gave a substantial list of values which is represented in Table 6.11.

Table 6.11 Values

Values	No of respondents
Building heritage	6
History	7
Sport	6
Manufacturing	6
People oriented	6
More investment	1
Urge for growth and prosperity	1
Knowledge based city	1
Integrity	1
Responsiveness	1
Innovation	1
Enterprise	1
Manchester United	2
City centre	2
Clubs	2
Nature	2
Museums	2
Learning related (colleges + universities)	5
Sustainable economic growth	1
Culture	2
"Simpleness"	2
Influence on youth	2
Quality academic society	1
Stability	1

In principal values described by respondents are similar to Manchester descriptors and representing features (Table 6.10). In addition to them, values like manufacturing, integrity, responsiveness, enterprise, knowledge based city, city centre, simpleness and influence on youth were mentioned.

Respondent I1 defined a different set of values to the ones in Table 6.11 such as diversity and openness and also explained about the research on city's brand identity as a result of which "the values of 'respect, live and let live and going places emerged" and along value of opportunity "in 2008 these values were summarised by the Original Modern ethos" (Interviewee I1).

6.3.3.3 Findings of theme 3 – Brand

Section 5.3.1.4 talked about the importance of people's perceptions and their impact in branding activities for the city. Section 2.2.5 presented a new marketing campaign for Manchester: summing up slogan "original modern" and signifier "M". The following sections will analyse projected messages and perceptions towards Manchester's latest brand. Respondents were asked a set of questions with regards to various brand elements in order to better understand the latest Manchester's brand concept.

6.3.3.3.1 Findings of sub-theme 1 – Awareness

Respondent I1 explained that "Manchester is the brand. It hasn't been created. Original Modern and the vision simply inform our message"; ethos "original modern" "guides our relationships with the Manchester Family". Marketing representative further clarified that this concept "is used internally, within the city as a philosophy to help us address the issues we have with the place". Interviewee I1 stated that "the people - original and modern - make Manchester".

The workshop and survey respondents were asked if they are aware of Manchester being described as a brand and whether they agree with such a concept. None of the respondents were aware of such a brand however 40% of respondents agreed with it. Respondent W2 4 seemed to be familiar with the signifier: "I have seen it somewhere visually, I have a feeling that I have already seen it" and respondent W3 1 confirmed "I am aware of logo but logo does not make a brand especially that they are not used within companies in the region". This statement clearly demonstrates confusion amongst general public when it comes to Manchester brand, its logo and slogan and suggests that there is a need for sufficient information, publicity and further clarifications. This was backed up by the group W4 and respondent S13 who highlighted importance of the appropriate publicity for the brand to be known and respondent S11 added “the brand cannot be known for being a brand without substance”. This was supported by the literature, for example, based on the European City Brand Barometer (Hildreth, 2010) ranking of Manchester’s brand strength (based on being pictorially recognised, quantity/ strength of positive/ attractive qualities, conversational value and media recognition) is in 25th place together with Glasgow and Marseille and brand utilisation is17th place alongside Gdansk, Bristol and Essen (Section 2.2.5).

Respondent S1 commented that “Manchester needs a formal brand, for example, like New York, now in my searches I find only Manchester United, all the souvenirs are with Manchester United” and respondent S4 supported this statement by saying “Manchester is more connected to Manchester United, not as a brand of its own” (both respondents are visitors). Respondent S12 considered that “each city is a kind of brand”.

6.3.3.3.2 Findings of sub-theme 2 – Brand Vision

Manchester brand representative confirmed that “original modern” is not being communicated “as a mantra”; it is being communicated “as a philosophy internally” (respondent I1). “Original modern is both our identity and the brand vision”. Representatives of the general public were asked whether they agree with such a brand vision for Manchester. 53.3% of respondents accepted this statement comparing to 20% of respondents who neither agreed nor disagreed, further 23.3% of respondents did not agree and 3.3% of respondents did not express their opinion at all.

Although respondent S1 accepted the statement, however would have liked better “original modern young” instead of “original modern”. Respondent S3 noted inconsistency in information about Manchester and different agencies saying different things (issue of information and publicity was also highlighted in previous section) and suggested that there should be “standard information, for example, one website, one presentation, etc.” Respondent W3 2 thought that brand vision “does not match with the identity of the city” and respondent S13 described it as “too abstract, is it original or modern” (critiques was discussed in Section 2.2.5.1). Respondent S11 found the brand vision confusing “is it original or modern, cannot have both in my opinion; did modern originate in Manchester, I believe it was the Bauhaus in Germany” and respondent S14 did “not see it as modern”. Concerns regarding use of “modern” and brand publicity have been discussed in literature (Section 2.2.5.1).

Reasons for brand vision

Interview I1 explained that concept “Original modern” is “a link back to Manchester’s industrial heritage, with Manchester being the first industrial city, it reflects what we are now, but it’s also a link to our future, how we want to continue to be, both original and modern”. Heritage and history were mentioned as possible components in the place brand in general (Table 6.9) and when describing Manchester (Table 6.10) as well as amongst values in Manchester (Table 6.11). This shows that some consistency exists in between public perceptions and marketing messages.

Respondents were asked to express their opinion as to why concept “Original modern” was chosen as a vision/ promotional strategy for Manchester. 23.3% of respondents did not express their opinion. Figure 6.8 presents a summary of all the answers (researcher interpreted movement, transformation and change as one reason).

In general, opinion of representatives of the general public reflect similar reasons described by the marketing representative, for example respondent S3 perceives that “it tries to reflect originality, modernity and variety”, respondent W2 4 reasoned it through the knowledge of history, “show movement” (respondent W1 1), “reflect energy and transformation of the city” (respondent S4), “most likely it is a unique and modern city and brand strategists came to the conclusion to stick to these two axes” (respondent S5), “to show the change, to show a more modern city” (respondents S9 and S10), “join respectable past and modern nowadays” (respondent S12). Literature described similar reasons (Section 2.2.5). However, not all the respondents could justify the use of concept “Original modern”, for example respondent W3 2 felt confused “as to why these two words were used” despite reasoning it for influence of the young audience. Respondent S14 thought that “branding for cities is on a wave recently so Manchester is no different”.

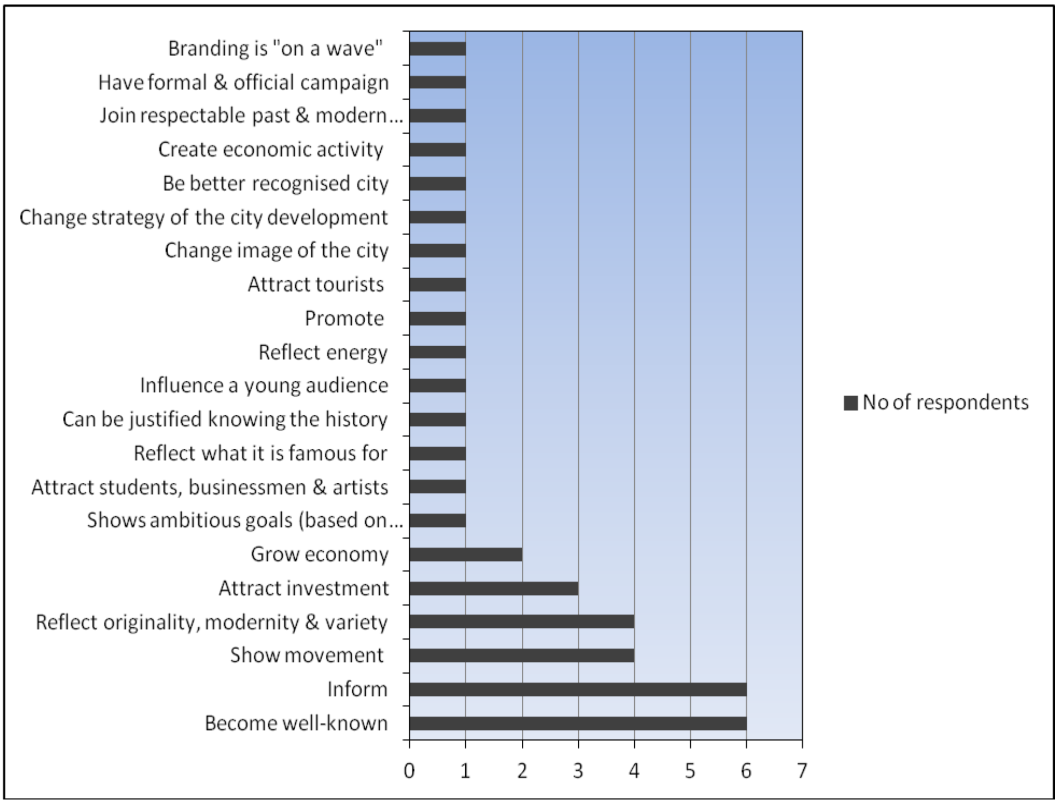


Figure 6.8 Reasons for Manchester’s brand vision

The researcher also asked marketing representative to comment on the Nesta report (Kastenbaum, 2009) propositions that Manchester was the original modern city in the 19th century but not now and it still needs to address challenges like education, welfare, sustainability and digital media. Interviewee I1 explained that “original modern” concept “is about changing the culture of the city (and the organisations within it) for the long term. We are changing Manchester’s behaviours, implementing a new thought process it’s a communication plan that sits within a wider cultural context”. Culture was mentioned amongst possible components of the place brand in Section 6.3.3.1.2 as well as representational features in Table 6.10 and as one of the Manchester’s values in Table 6.11.

Perceptions of "Original modern"

Some of the associations/ interpretations of the concept "Original modern" were already mentioned in the previous section. 30% of respondents who never visited Manchester did not express their perceptions while another 30% of respondents who never visited Manchester criticised "Original modern" for being "too abstract, not personal to Manchester" (respondent S13) and that "it can be applied to any city" (respondent S14); "it does not make much sense" to respondent S11 and only 30% of respondents who never visited Manchester were able to explain this concept, for example, "original = unique; modern = fashionable" (respondent S5). Residents and visitors could explain the concept better and, for example, associated it with functional attributes like architecture. Furthermore, respondents related "modern" mostly to architecture/ regeneration (Sections 2.2.5.1 and 2.2.6) and explained it as innovative (literature provides similar explanations in Section 2.2.5.1). Innovation was also mentioned amongst Manchester descriptors and representational features in Table 6.10 as well as one of the values along knowledge in Table 6.11. Perceptions of "Original modern" are summarised in Table 6.12.

Similarly as in previous sub-section (Reasons for brand vision), some of the perceptions of representatives of the general public coincide with the concept explanation by the marketing representative and reasoning found in literature (Section 2.2.5). Also, workshop and survey respondents had some disparaging comments on Manchester's description as "original modern", they are similar to critiques described in literature (Section 2.2.5.1), for example, phrase "original modern" can be applied to any place, etc.

It is worth noticing that youth was already mentioned a couple of times. In previous section, respondent W3 2 interpreted the new concept "Original modern" as the intention to influence youth. In this section, respondent S1 explained this concept in a way that Manchester is "Original modern" because of youth and students along inventions. Youth can be associated with energy which was already mentioned in Figure 6.8. In addition, features like regeneration or architecture were mentioned by respondents when describing Manchester (Sections 6.3.3.2.1

and 6.3.3.2.2). Finally, respondent W3 3 considered Manchester “to be example for others”. This perception was supported by the marketing representative explaining Manchester brand “The vision and our approach is quite different from most other cities; we’re hoping to lead the way that destinations interact with potential visitors. We’re not just independently deciding on our brand messages ... we’ve gone out and spanned what people, including residents, are saying about the city and we’ve coordinated these messages.”

Table 6.12 Perceptions on “Original modern”

Original	**Modern**
Do not think Manchester is original, it is different from other cities Unique Original for the special alternative culture and its uniqueness	Modern after regeneration but still original Contemporary Modern in a sense it is innovative Visually see modern architecture Fashionable Modern, but high quality Modern because wants to transmit modernity and wants to be/ go in pace with time
Universities, inventions; youth and students develop new things, city itself is developing, wants to develop good infrastructure Constantly changing, implementing newest ideas & technologies, trying to be example for others New start, re-birth from industry This is aspiration and a way to differ, “Original modern” no one else Up to speed with the rest of the UK Conflicting concept because it is saying “we are like the rest of the UK but we’re not Too focused and therefore misses the actual rich and broad Manchester’s identity Too abstract and not personal to Manchester Can be applied to any city	

Manchester vision and brand vision

63.3% of respondents did not agree that the new brand vision supports the vision for Manchester (70% of them are residents who do not agree) and only 26.7% of respondents agreed while 10% neither agreed nor disagreed. Graphical representation of the results is displayed in Figure 6.9. Those respondents who thought that both visions align, based it on city’s development, orientation towards contemporary problems and actualities, future-oriented goals, new values for quality of lives of residents, innovation, modern brand however respondent W3 1 suggested “futuristic vision like ‘get modern, be modern, be original” and mentioned “young” which was already discussed in the previous sub-section. In contrast, the rest of the respondents perceive both visions aligning between themselves, for example, respondent S14 thought that brand vision portrayed “something different”, respondent W3 2 assumed that “the ‘Original modern’ branding was designed to connect with the rich cultural life of Manchester and not with the economic policy” and added “art/ culture and money/ business lie on a dialectical axis and cannot be conceptualised together”.

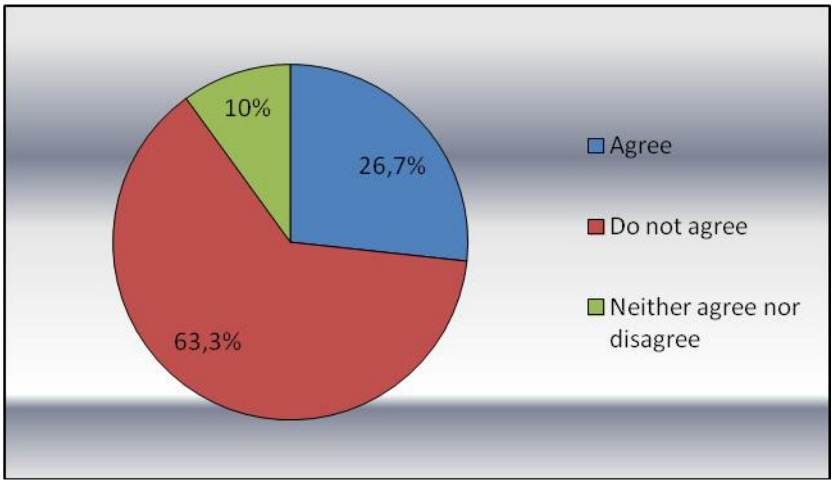


Figure 6.9 Does the new brand support vision for Manchester?

6.3.3.3.3 Findings of sub-theme 3 – Values

As discussed in Section 5.3.2, people expect that brand would ensure certain values, such as stability, safety, quality, etc. Figure 3.23 in Section 3.5.6 also incorporates values amongst other elements in projected and received images. Following that, it is important that values are reflected in brand for the city (values repeating in both columns are highlighted in bold).

Table 6.13 Values

Values of Manchester in the vision	Values portrayed by the brand vision
Building heritage	Diversity
History	Modernity
Sport	Originality
Manufacturing	Technologies
People oriented	**Youth**/ knowledge of youth/ young ideas
More investment	Uniqueness
Urge for growth and **prosperity**	Up-to date
Knowledge based city	Variety
Integrity	**Simplicity**
Responsiveness	Futurism
Innovation	**Innovation**
Enterprise	Leadership
Manchester United	Movement
City centre	**Prosperity**
Clubs	**Cultural** side of Manchester
Nature	Vibrant
Museums	Connection between past and nowadays
Learning related (colleges + universities)	Mixed
Sustainable economic growth	Something to do with multi
Culture	Multicultural
“**Simpleness**”	Fashion
Influence on **youth**	Braveness
Quality academic society	
Stability	

When asked about values, respondent I1 explained that research on Manchester’s brand identity has been carried out back in 2003 producing a list of “seven identity attributes, which were inventive, compact, vibrant, open and open-minded, modern, progressive, real/unpretentious. From this research the values of “respect, live and let live and going places emerged”. They have not been mentioned by workshop or survey respondents (Table 6.13). Interviewee I1 also explained that “in 2008 these values were summarised by the Original Modern ethos which captures what Manchester gave to the word” and added that “Manchester very much is a place of opportunity. It’s an innovative, progressive city, which does not sit on its laurels. It is ambitious and businesses located here can grow, thrive and be successful".

Respondents were also asked to express their opinion what values the new brand identity portrays. 3.3% of respondents did not answer this question. Other responses are illustrated in Table 6.13. Values like youth, simplicity, innovation, prosperity and culture were also listed amongst values in the vision for Manchester. This indicates that general public see both visions (vision for Manchester and its brand vision) as partially aligned. Furthermore, similar values were described in literature and by the marketing representative (respondent I1). The most popular answers were modernity, originality and diversity. Results are illustrated in Figure 6.10.

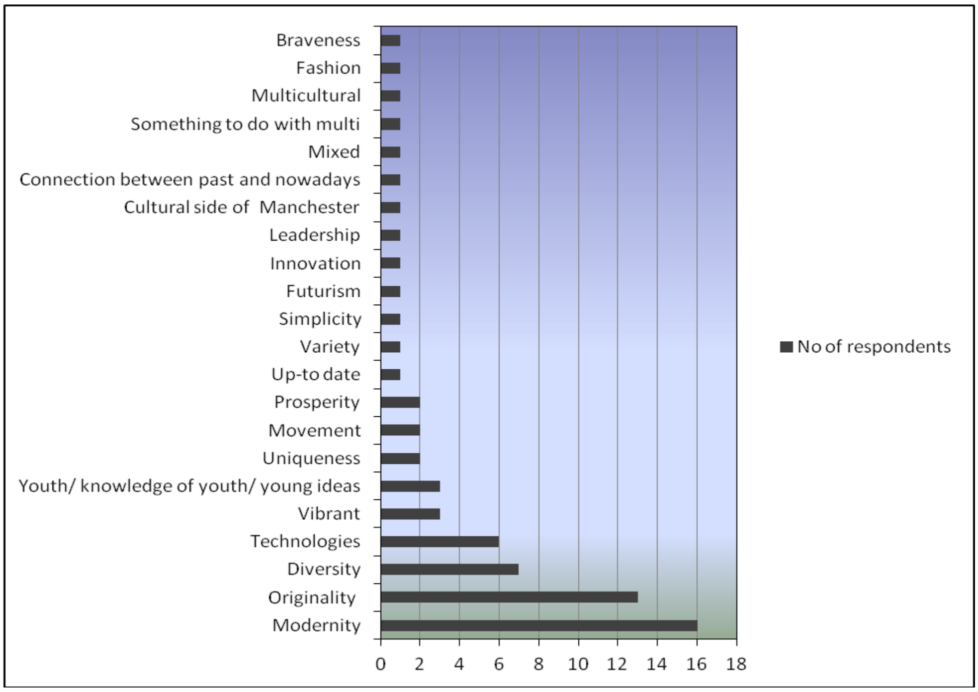


Figure 6.10 Values in Manchester's brand vision

6.3.3.3.4 Findings of sub-theme 4 – Brand signifier

According to the literature and marketing representative I1, the multicoloured "M" is Manchester's brand signifier and not the formal logo and it is used "for national and international communications, when City partners from across

Greater Manchester and the wider city-region are promoting themselves jointly under a 'Manchester' banner” (respondent I1). Interviewee I1 confirmed that previous Manchester/ other place logos have been looked at and their weaknesses have been analysed and “this led into what we have today”.

Colours

Marketing Organisation representative (respondent I1) provided an explanation for colours of the strands: they “represent the richness and diversity of the city and the individuals within it, existing in parallel. Where those strands intersect the City becomes a truly exciting place”.

Representatives of general public were also asked to express their opinion if they think colours of the new logo “M” have any meaning. 6.7% of respondents (never visited Manchester) did not answer this question while another 6.7% of respondents (never visited Manchester and resident) stated that colours have no meaning and 3.3% of respondents (never visited Manchester) were not sure answering “maybe”.

Interestingly, the most popular interpretation (30% of respondents) of letter “M” colours was gay colours followed by diversity (23.3% of respondents). The following possible meanings of the brand signifier colours were also mentioned:

- Modernity,
- New technologies,
- Simplicity,
- Contemporary,
- Very open,
- Entertaining,
- Playful,
- Telephone cables,
- Rainbow.

Perceptions of general public only partially match with the official interpretations and the match is “diversity”. There were a lot of disparaging/ criticising comments on colours, one of them is gay colours, which according to respondent S3 "is not a positive impression". A couple of respondents saw "M" simply as a first letter for Manchester. Few respondents had concerns about the number of colours, for example, respondent W1 1 commented "there is no accent on colour, i.e. green or red or silver – nobody uses this colour" or respondent S12 questioned whether it is "all the colour pallet embracing sign" and, finally, respondents S9 and S10 felt that "maybe there are too much colours altogether".

Graphical representation

According to the marketing representative, signifier "M" "shows one of Manchester's biggest strengths - working together to make things happen". Further respondent I1 explained that "it reflects our diversity, our openness";

46.7% of representatives of general public, however, did not think that graphic representation reflected any values while 6.7% of respondents could not answer this question and 13.3% of respondents were not sure/ did not know. Results are shown in Figure 6.11.

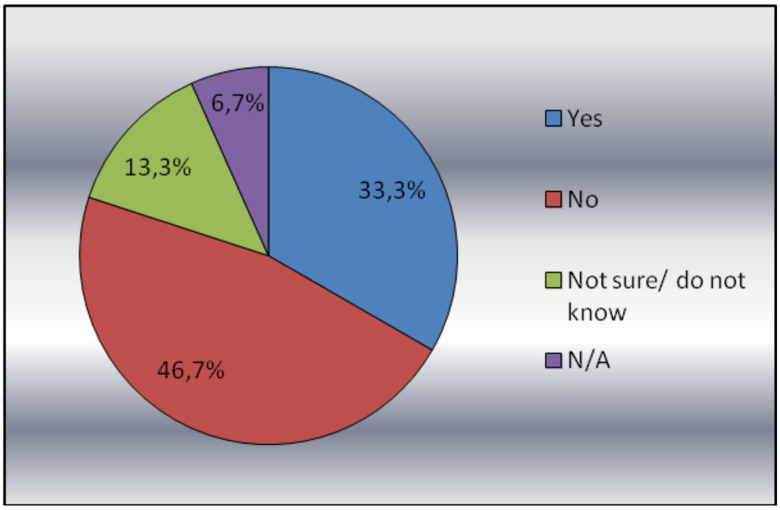


Figure 6.11 Does the graphic representation reflect values of the city?

Respondents W4 5 and W4 6 thought that "it is more for the office", respondent W2 4 commented that "value is determined by the concept "original modern" but not letter "M" and it meant nothing without the explanation to respondent W3 1. Other respondents mentioned further possible values:

- Green for parks and lines for transport/ commute,
- Gay community,
- Diversity,
- Modern,
- Multicultural,
- Openness.

This list demonstrates mixed opinions of general public despite mentioning the same values of diversity (13.3% of respondents mention it) and openness (only 6.7% of respondents mention it) as marketing representative (respondent I1).

6.3.3.3.5 Findings of sub-theme 5 – Visual triggers

Manchester brand representative (respondent I1) explained that Manchester has no logo or slogan. Multi-coloured letter "M" is used as a brand signifier for "national and international communications"; concept "original modern" is being "used internally, within the city as a philosophy to help us address the issues we have with the place". In contrast, 83.3% of respondents thought that Manchester still needs logo and slogan for international/ global recognition or contribution to the identity of the city. Logo as one of the components of the brand was mentioned by the number of respondents in Section 6.3.3.1.2 and importance of the brand for cities was stressed in Section 6.3.3.1.1. 13.3% of respondents did not express exact views whether Manchester needs a world famous logo and slogan and 3.3% of respondents thought that Manchester does not need a logo because, for example, "it is famous for many reasons and has created its own cultural narrative that has travelled the globe; Manchester's identity is created in an evolving competitive dialogue (e.g., Manchester City vs Manchester United, Madchester vs Britpop) and reduction of this to an effective logo or byline is impossible" (respondent W3 2). Results are shown in Figure 6.12.

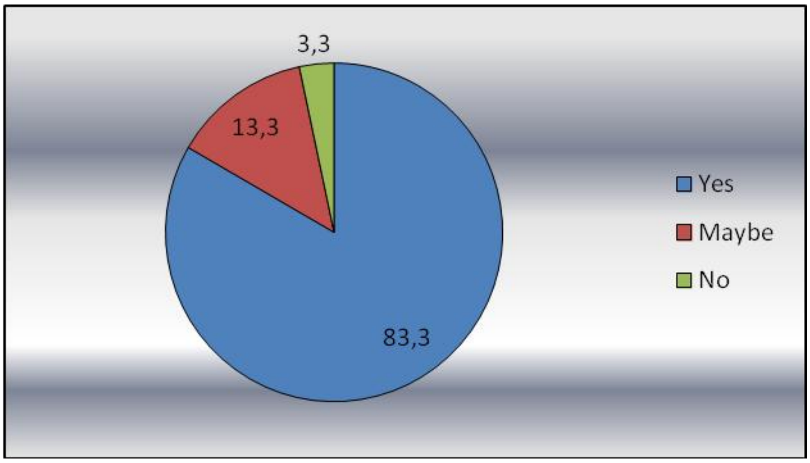


Figure 6.12 Manchester needs logo and slogan

Considering “Original modern” to be used a slogan and multicoloured “M” as logo, a number of respondents wanted to see “something different” (respondent S2). Some respondents accepted the concept as it is “original modern”, others suggested, for example, for slogan to be connected to knowledge (respondent S3) or a futuristic vision like “get modern, be modern, be original” (respondent W3 1). Multicoloured letter “M” as a logo “is too simple” (group W4), “is ordinary” (respondent S1), “does not tell the ‘story’, it does not represent anything to people from outside Manchester” (respondent S3), “too abstract, not personal” (respondent S13) however respondent S5, for example, “like the logo with different colours – modern, nice and clear”.

It should be noted that in any case, both symbol “M” and concept “original modern” are used to inform about Manchester. In principle, logo and slogan, perform the same function. This was discussed in literature (Section 3.2.4.1).

6.3.4 Step 4: Summary and discussion of results

It was anticipated that the proposed framework and research findings would provide empirical evidence on the need for the evaluation of the branding phenomenon and further insights in the subject area. The brand evaluation framework was applied to test key principals of Manchester’s brand and associated branding initiative. The majority of the comments made by the marketing representative reflect factors and descriptors found in the literature review (Chapter 2) especially when describing Manchester's brand while workshop and survey participants had different views. Table 6.14 shows summary of founding results (repeating phrases and attributes under each theme are highlighted in grey while mismatches are marked in green). However, the full summary of descriptors is somewhat limited due to the fact that the new summing-up device and signifier for Manchester are not communicated in the wide public; instead they are used internally, between partners in the city when promoting the city nationally or internationally.

Table 6.14 Comparison of results from the literature review, the semi-structured interview and workshops/ surveys

Framework factors		Literature review	Interview	Public perceptions
Vision	Vision	To secure long-term economic growth and enable the city region to fulfil its economic potential, whilst ensuring that our residents are able to contribute to and share in that prosperity. Low carbon economy	Collectively all agencies responsible for promoting Greater Manchester share the vision that by 2020, the city region will have pioneered a new model for sustainable economic growth based around a more connected, talented and greener city region, where all our residents are able to contribute to and benefit from sustained prosperity and a good quality of life. The brand vision acts as a communication plan that enables us to communicate the things about Manchester that we believe to be original	Achieve regeneration (first of all environmental) To be an outstanding knowledge based city founded by history and people. Greater Manchester tries to succeed in few domains: science, innovation, media sector, sport. Manchester tries to create a model of the city where residents play an important role in development and growth. Tries to become the 2nd city after London Tries to become multicultural The business vision for Manchester does not match with the

			and modern.	reality of life in Manchester. To be a growing city – in economical and social aspects; being a good place to live, attractive destination for tourists and good place for businesses. To attract more tourists, to be better known city Make itself the “second city” of England, open itself to Europe. Probably quality academic society Be attractive and well–known, stable and strong from economic perspectives Be strong economically and attractive to live, work, etc.
	Mission	Differentiate from peers International competitiveness	Global marketing of Manchester – we market our strengths, what we’re leaders in, what we have given to the world – all of which make the city region a world class business destination Promotion of the city-region on an international and national stage as a leading leisure, learning and business destination	To get Manchester well-known, to inform about Manchester To reflect what it is famous for, etc. To reflect originality, modernity and variety and at the same time to attract students, businessmen and artists To show ambitious goals of the city based on innovative

				ideas. To attract investors, to show movement, to attract investment, to grow economy To influence a young audience. To reflect energy and the transformation of the city, to promote Manchester city to the world To change the image of the city, to change a strategy of the city development, making it modern and perspective To be better recognised city To show the change, to show a more modern city To create economic activity for the benefit of the city and its occupants To join respectable past and modern nowadays To have forma and official campaign for marketing purposes
	Heritage and culture	Rich & diverse cultural offer Manchester International Festival Unique events	Great heritage and DMO tries to make as much as it can out of those historical firsts, so from the industrial revolution, the first library, the splitting of the atom and everything else in between	Alternative culture Industrial heritage Rich cultural life

			Industrial heritage	
	People and values	Spirit, energy to progress & change, “do something” attitude, desire to be different. Make contribution to the city; introduce a new idea; be progressive; challenge convention; think global; be ambitious	Diversity Openness Respect, live and let live and going places people culture music liveability ability to collaborate and to get things done Inventive, compact, vibrant, open and open-minded, modern, progressive, real/unpretentious Focus on people, culture, developing a world class city to live, invest, study and visit working together to make things happen	Building heritage, history, sport, manufacturing Vision is people oriented, more investment Care for its residents, urge for growth and prosperity. Knowledge based city founded by history and people Integrity, responsiveness, innovation and enterprise. Manchester United, city centre, clubs, nature, museums, lakes (but hasn’t got a sea and beach) Related learning (colleges + universities) Sustainable economic growth and residents. Culture, “simpleness”, influence on youth Quality academic society People, stability
	Philosophy	The people – original and modern - make Manchester.	The people - original and modern - make Manchester Hoping to lead the way that destinations interact with potential visitors Spanned what people,	Peter Saville is representative of the true identity of Manchester and perhaps his innovation of this was part of the branding process.

			including residents, are saying about the city and we've coordinated these messages Original modern as a link between Manchester's industrial heritage, with Manchester being the first industrial city, it reflects what we are now and future, how we want to continue to be, both original and modern.	re-birth from industry
	Country of origin/reputation/credibility of brand (destination) name	"Original modern" – essence of Manchester, declaration for future. Original - inventions	Manchester is the brand. It hasn't been created.	
	Quality			
Brand elements	Visual triggers: Symbol - Slogan Logo - Name	"Original modern" and "M": multi-coloured strands – richness & diversity	"Original modern" is not communicated "as a mantra"; it is communicated "as a philosophy internally", it is both identity and the brand vision. It's a link between Manchester's industrial heritage, Manchester today and its future, how Manchester wants to continue to be, both original and modern. The Manchester "M" isn't used as a logo in terms of promotion; it	Needs formal brand, e.g. like New York has; needs logo and slogan. Manchester is more than a name of the city Manchester is more connected to Manchester United as a brand, not as a brand of its own. Would like better "original modern young" Looking at "Manchester original modern" next to letter "M" it

			is used internally by organisations with the Manchester family; "it is used for national and international communications strands of colour represent the richness and diversity Working together to make things happen	associates with metro It is confusing, is it original or modern. Slogan should be with futuristic vision like "get modern, be modern, be original" Modern brand Brand vision wants to show that Manchester is original and modern whereas the design is saying 'Manchester is simple and contemporary' "M" - all the colour pallet embracing sign, too many colours altogether; ordinary, too simple "M" is not enough to reflect Manchester; it does not tell the story "Original modern" and "M" are too abstract, not personal
	Potential functional attributes: Urban residential services Social services and relations (interpersonal relationships) Museums, art galleries, theatres, concert halls and other cultural services Leisure and sports activities and facilities Conference and exhibition facilities Natural environment,	population of 2.6 million and gross value added (GVA) of £46 billion Manchester International Festival Graphene Manchester Civil Justice Centre GB cycling team Red Vision Unicorn New Islington MCC The C-operative Group	Business destination Creative, digital and media; financial professional and business services; advanced manufacturing and engineering, logistics and life sciences sectors 5060 jobs have been created/ safeguarded during past 12 months Manchester International Festival LEP, GM Combined	Football, sport Manchester United Science, innovation, media sector, sport For external people – football clubs: Manchester United and Manchester City, support to sport For citizens – post industrial revolution, mix of cultures Music Alternative culture city centre, clubs, nature, museums,

	public spaces and recreational services Hotels, restaurants, night clubs and entertainment Architecture and quality of the built environment Transport infrastructure and access Hygiene facilities (car parks, toilets, baby-changing facilities, street cleaning, etc.) Vibrancy (business vibrancy including growth of jobs) Major economic sectors Key developments Industry strengths Universities Workforce profile Events Partnerships/ initiatives Town centres (unique characteristics, strengths, etc.) Critical infrastructure (utilities, digital, energy, water)	Red Production Company Mines Advisory Group Islington Mill Manchester Cancer Research Centre Comma Press Substance MediaCity UK Brian Cox Manchester United Football Club Ambitious civic leadership New institutional arrangements (AGMA) Infrastructure The Lowry, MOSI Manchester Art Gallery, Manchester United FC museum, John Rylands library, Halle Orchestra Manchester Museums Consortium Retail sector Connectivity (physical & electronic) Knowledge economy MEN arena Midland Hotel Green spaces Manchester airport Airport Enterprise zone	Authority (AGMA)	Attractive shopping areas Universities
	Potential symbolic attributes: Place symbolisms, souvenirs and handicraft	Sportcity Football tourism (£4mln in 2008) Cultural tourism 20000 people lived in	Innovation City of firsts; from the industrial revolution, the birthplace of the computer, the	Manchester United, Football Heaton Park Architecture – new is mixed with old

	The character of the local residents The profile of typical visitors (age, income, interests and values) Descriptors of the quality of service provided	city centre in 2010 Spinningfileds New Islington Manchester Science Parks Manchester Masters Innovation Manchester Medical Innovation MediaCity UK Sharp Project Business tourism Student population (over 70000 students) 166 languages in 2008 Nobel prize winners Sport Action Zone Cultural economy Culture for all	suffragettes, vegetarianism, the co-op movement, trade unions, the splitting of the atom, the first test baby to the recent discovery of graphene Home-grown talent, from John Dalton to James Joule to Oasis Morrissey and Elbow	
	Potential experiential attributes: How the city make residents/ visitors feel (relaxed, excited, fascinated, etc.) Descriptors of the built environment (historic, modern, green, spacious, etc.) Descriptors related to security and safety Quality of life The physical characteristics of air Sound, smell and taste Colours Relationships/ interactions	Worklessness Low skills Aging population Youth unemployment Social deprivation Historical strengths Rebuilt schools Improved health facilities Improved record on crime 1 hour away from National Parks	Sense of opportunity Innovative Progressive Ambitious	Small, confusing, grey, boring A mix of old and new Not the nicest place to live Smartly dressed business people are stepping over homeless people. A 'brand' or a 'logo' will not make the darker side of Manchester invisible. Cleanness in the city needs to be addressed. Needs more sport complexes, playgrounds for children and teenagers Constantly changing, implementing newest

				ideas & technologies, trying to be example for others
	Other: Benefits Values Personality Users Patents Trademarks Uniqueness Etc.	Strengths - knowledge based industries Historic strengths – manufacturing & mass-production. Reinvention Dynamic leadership Culture is unique characteristic differentiating it from others Diversity, skills and ideas of the community make Manchester a creative city Unique history: first industrial city	City of pioneers Tradition of innovation, pioneering spirit and pushing the boundaries continues	"Original modern" - confusing, is it original or modern; too simple, does not represent any assets Manchester is best known for. "original modern" reflects different cultures, age groups, religions – diversity; modernity, originality, technologies, youth, knowledge of the youth, uniqueness, up-to date, simplicity and futurism; uniqueness, innovation and leadership, movement/ prosperity, young ideas, cultural side of Manchester, vibrant, youth, fashion, braveness, connection between past and nowadays, mixed, something to do with Multi (multicultural, etc.) "M" – diversity, very open, entertaining and playful city; gay colours; thin lines –

				modernity, new technologies; Green – parks, lines – transport/ commute
	Description of Manchester	Successful, modern city Dynamic City of ideas, enjoyment & life City of sport "green" city Science city Cultural, commercial & canny city Leading European Business location Diverse city Knowledge city An ideal conference city A world-class city Original business location Ambitious, visionary and passionate about the future Creative city Cultural capital Multi-cultural city The shock city of the Industrial Revolution	World-class business destination synonymous with innovation, city of firsts, city of pioneers, industrial revolution, the birthplace of the computer, the suffragettes, vegetarianism, the co-op movement, trade unions, the splitting of the atom, the first test baby to the recent discovery of graphene, achievements, people, culture, music, liveability, ability to collaborate and to get things done.	Small town, cold, confusing, sports city, architectural heritage, lots of interesting places to go, e.g. Heaton Park, Manchester United, and building heritage. Wet, grey, boring Attractive shopping areas, many good events, not the nicest place to live, rude & limited people. Innovative, confusing what is its main strength or key message Industrial city; should be more oriented to culture, history. Mix of industrial and modern: old factories, old bridges and at the same time lots of new buildings joined with old buildings. Architecture, beer Nice region but needs renovation of the areas Music, football, education and opportunity. Majority live in poverty and lack opportunity. The

				recent riots and gang crime. Has no special feature/character People from Manchester have a special accent Has prestige university Big dull city with mixture of people from different cultures Well known It is about knowledge and young people World-famous

As Section 6.3.2.2 discussed, based on the proposed framework and objectives of this study, specific themes were identified and comments made by the respondents during interview and workshops/ surveys were grouped accordingly. In total, three themes were identified in this study: awareness of place branding, Manchester and the brand of Manchester.

Place branding awareness

In general, representatives of the public from various groups in terms of age, occupation and status in the city seemed to be familiar with the phenomenon of the place branding (section 6.3.3.1) and agreed that brand is important for places for various reasons (see Figure 6.4) and similar to those described in literature. It should be noted that literature provides a wider spectrum of reasons for branding. This can be explained by the fact that the respondents answered this question from their own perspective, knowledge and believe and they did not consider all the possible reasons. Furthermore, comments like "advertising shows your relationship with the city" (Respondent W1 2) show that people are not indifferent to place branding phenomenon.

Workshop and survey respondents were also able to name components in the place brand (Section 6.3.3.1.2). Analysis of these answers revealed that general public tend to associate place brand with visual symbols or events that catch one's attention and are easily memorable enabling positive word-of-mouth, etc. Overall, respondents emphasised tangible elements compared to functional or experiental attributes. This suggests that visual brand concept is an important factor when talking about place's brand, certainly Manchester's brand. Further, "people" was the second most popular answer after "architecture" concurring statements by the marketing representative and marketing literature that "the people – original and modern - make Manchester". Finally, section 6.3.3.1.2 highlighted that representatives of the general public did not mention vision as a place brand component which according to Section 3.2.3 is the starting point in the place branding process. This phenomenon perhaps can be explained by the fact that brand developers look at the bigger picture when it comes to place branding including diverse stakeholder needs while representatives of the general public assessed the brand from their own perspective considering what is important to them.

Workshop and survey respondents (Figure 6.6) also confirmed that residents should have their say in brand creation for the place which according to the marketing representative happened in Manchester (Section 6.3.3.1.3) but general public appeared to be unaware of any surveys. This raises questions of communication and publicity; weather general public is informed about such initiatives and related research.

Manchester

When describing Manchester, all three groups of workshop/ survey respondents provided a mix of functional, symbolic and experiental attributes (Table 6.9). These perceptions have been shaped by past visits, general information, personal experiences and media. Manchester United/ football dominated answers; it also should be noted that residents referred to the history of Manchester while visitors reflected on social events. Workshop and survey respondents used mostly functional attributes and amenities to describe what represents Manchester best

(Table 6.10) and values (Table 6.11) described were similar to Manchester descriptors (represented a mix of functional, symbolic and experiental attributes). In contrast, marketing representative (Interviewee I1) listed mostly intangible factors that represent Manchester: "people, achievements, its culture, music, its liveability, its ability to collaborate and to get things done" and discussed experiental attributes as values such as opportunity along openness, diversity, respect, live, let live and going places. It should be noted that values like "diversity", "music" and "culture" were described by both, public and marketing representative. Also "culture" and "heritage" were mentioned numerous times in literature as well during interview and workshops/ surveys.

Literature acknowledged that Manchester experienced hard times in the past (Sections 2.2.2, 2.2.3 and 2.2.4) and now focuses on positive developments in modern day Manchester. Interview respondent I1 used only positive descriptors to describe Manchester similarly as it is described in literature while workshop and survey respondents made some negative comments, for example, "poverty and lack of opportunity" or "riots and gang crime", "smartly dressed business people are stepping over homeless people" (Respondent W3 2). It should be noted that these along other issues are addressed in the revised Vision 2020: "the Manchester city region will have pioneered a new model for sustainable economic growth based around a more connected, talented and greener city region where all our residents are able to contribute to and benefit from sustained prosperity and enjoy a good quality of life" (Stronger together, Greater Manchester Strategy 2013). This shows that city governors recognise existing problems and strive to change the situation. Moreover, the revised vision for Manchester (Stronger together, Greater Manchester Strategy 2013) very much summarises and reflects perceptions of people ("become 2nd city after London, good place to live, etc.). And although not all the respondents agreed (73.3% of all the respondents agreed) that current vision for Manchester encompasses their expectations (Section 6.3.3.2.3), the fact that governing bodies acknowledge perceptions of people and as a result of this make adequate steps and changes proves that Manchester and its governors are going to the right direction.

Manchester brand

As a result of the interview with the marketing representative, it became apparent that there is some confusion with Manchester as a brand, as well as with the logo and slogan itself. Workshop and survey respondents appeared to be unaware that Manchester is the brand. According to the press, designer Peter Saville has been tasked to come up with ideas how to market Manchester to the world while brand representatives explain that the concept “original modern” and the symbol “M” are used internally within the city and are not communicated externally. However, letter “M” is still sometimes named as logo and concept “original modern” as slogan, for example, by workshop/ survey respondents. This confusion (it was already mentioned in Section 6.3.3.3.1) might arise due to a lack of publicity and sufficient reasoning. In fact, workshop/ survey respondents highlighted that there is a need for appropriate publicity.

Despite the concept “original modern” is not used as a formal slogan for Manchester and signifier “M” is not an official logo, it was still useful to get perceptions of public whether they like and accept the summary of the earlier perceptions about Manchester in the form of “the Original Modern ethos” as brand identity and vision (respondent I1) and the multi-coloured signifier “M”. Overall, general public had mixed views on the concept “original modern” (Table6.12). It was associated with youth, students, universities and academia (they can be associated with energy; it was listed in Table 6.8 amongst reasons for Manchester’s brand) and at the same time criticised for being confusing (respondent S11) or abstract (respondent S13) and was associated with metro (respondent W1 1) when seeing this phrase next to the letter “M”. Once again the issue of publicity, more precisely, consistency in information arises again. Further, section 6.3.3.3.4 provided interpretations of the multicoloured “M” as Manchester’s brand signifier and presents mismatching associations with possible meanings of colours and values reflected by the graphical representation. Opinion of the general public and marketing representative coincided only regarding diversity; however no references have been made about football or history and heritage. The issue with the signifier is that it is not used as the official logo as per marketing representative (interviewee I1), but it is still visible on billboards around Manchester (see Section 2.2.5). If “M” is not used as a logo, then it is not clear the purpose of these posters. Moreover, this causes confusion and generates misleading interpretations in relation to the signifier, i.e. public, etc. call it a logo.

Representatives of the public had mixed views on consistency and compatibility of both vision for Manchester and Manchester brand vision. Some of them agreed that both visions align reasoning their answers with “city development”, “future-oriented goals”, etc. (respondent W3 3), while others disagreed or did not express their opinion at all. These results unambiguously suggest that there is inconsistency in messages about Manchester or a lack of communication and clarification. Respondent S3 picked up on this issue when describing Manchester (Section 6.3.3.2.1). Peoples’ opinions on values in the brand vision were also explored and compared with the values in the vision for Manchester (Table 6.12) as a result of which 5 themes coincided:

- Prosperity
- Innovation
- Culture
- Simplicity
- Youth

This leads to the conclusion that despite all the critiques discussed in Section 6.3.3.3.2 both visions still partially align and suggest that there must be some consistency in messages about Manchester.

Majority of the workshop/ survey respondents thought that Manchester needs a world famous logo and slogan (Figure 6.14) and had mixed views on suitability of the concept “Original modern” if it would be used as the official slogan along the letter “M” as the official logo some of them accepting both concept “Original modern” and symbol “M” while others liking the concept “Original modern” better than the multicoloured “M” or asking for a better design altogether. This suggests that there is no “emotional bond” (Vandenwalle, 2010). Perhaps summing-up device and signifier do not need to be unique as they are not used formally but then again, images of the multi-coloured “M” are displayed around

Manchester. Furthermore, both signifier “M” and concept “original modern” are used to inform about Manchester, differentiate it. In principle, logo and slogan, perform the same function. This was discussed in literature (Section 3.2.4.1). Issues of confusion arise once again.

In summary, there are questions to be raised in terms of communication, publicity, consistency and clarity of information when talking about Manchester brand. It can be said that these matters cause further issues, i.e. issues of confusion. Manchester and the concept “Original modern” have common associations of youth, students/ universities/ academia which can be further associated with energy. Also both visions, Manchester’s vision and brand vision share the same set of values (prosperity, innovation, culture, simplicity, and youth). Simplicity along modernity and diversity dominate in the set of brand signifier values and they are repeating values in the brand vision. It is worth mentioning that football prevailed in between Manchester’s descriptors and values, but it was not mentioned when talking about Manchester brand. Also, culture, innovation, knowledge/ science were mentioned when talking about Manchester and its brand vision, but not when talking about the signifier suggesting that there is a link between Manchester and its brand vision, but certainly not the multi-coloured symbol “M”. Overall, general public highlighted visual and social aspects when talking about Manchester brand.

As discussed in section 5.3.3 success in this study is determined by the acceptance/ recognition of the brand vision and its identity but it is the decision of the brand practitioner be it developer or representative of the marketing idea as to what quantitative value they would describe as a success.

6.4 Conclusions

The principal aim of this chapter was to test the proposed model for place brand evaluation (Objective Five of the study). A combination of workshops, surveys and interview was used to gather data and assess validity of the model as well as its applicability in the context of Manchester. Workshop and survey participants expressed their opinion about Manchester and the latest initiative to promote Manchester as "original modern" while interviewee brought experience and knowledge in Manchester brand implementation that is valuable in verifying the proposed framework as interviewee could offer own intelligence. Findings were analysed providing quotes made by the respondents; visual graphs using Excel contributed to the illustration of findings and presented quantitative distribution.

Review of brand elements and their meaning makes it clear which brand elements are important. Comparison of elements described by people and brand elements defined by the marketing representative as well as in literature demonstrates that challenge lies in ensuring that perceptions of people match the formal/ communicated brand. This contribution is seen to be of a particular value in providing insights in respect of brand efficiency. Brand representatives must continue working together with all the stakeholders to ensure effectiveness as well as positive associations.

The next chapter will critically review case study from perspective of the framework, will validate and test suitability of the proposed evaluative framework as it was applied to Manchester (analysis of Manchester in terms of branding was described in this chapter).

CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION AND ANALYSIS

7.1 Introduction

The aim of this thesis was to develop a framework that could be used to evaluate the effectiveness of implementing a new place branding initiative. This was achieved by investigating the literature in the area of place branding (Chapter 3) with the aim of identifying what already exists in terms of frameworks/ models and transferring best practice to design the evaluative framework. Chapter 3 discussed that place branding is becoming increasingly important but its effectiveness is subject to much debate and there is no universal and widely accepted framework for city brand evaluation; existing brand models are mainly development or descriptive models or focused on certain aspects of branding (Section 3.5) and only most recent brand models consider evaluation and public perceptions (e.g., Balakrishnan, 2009, Ofori, 2010, Zenker, 2011, Hanna and Rowley, 2011) but they do not provide measures or guidance on how to develop an evaluative framework nor consider involving people in the evaluation process. Chapter 2 reviewed Manchester's branding initiatives and highlighted the need for evaluation of them. The literature review was used to develop, as described in the research methodology (Chapter 4), an evaluative framework for place branding (Chapter 5) enabling the overall assessment of the location brand performance. The newly created framework was subsequently tested on Manchester as a case study, as described in Chapter 6. This chapter will critically review the research findings in terms of the validity of the evaluative framework for place branding using data gathered from the interview, surveys and workshops.

7.2 Verification of the framework

As discussed in Sections 6.3.1.1 and 6.3.2.1, questions in the latter part of the workshop/ survey as well as interview were aimed at validating the framework and included the following:

- Usefulness of the brand evaluation framework

- Framework elements
- Respondent needs/ expectations
- Missing elements

Usefulness

The researcher believes that it is equally important to consult people on place brand development and its evaluation thus the developed framework for brand evaluation (Figure 5.4) was presented to the general public asking for their opinion whether this framework would be useful in the evaluation of place brand. Section 6.3.1.2 discussed that people can give useful insights that might have been overlooked by professionals and officials. 80% of respondents agreed that the proposed framework would be useful while 16.7% of respondents did not comment, 3.3% of respondents thought that “perhaps it would be good” (respondent S12) and there were no negative answers. This helps to reinforce the need for such a guide for place brand evaluation. Further, respondent S1 commented that “it explains well what a brand is and what makes it” and respondent W3 1 confirmed that “it does include the elements that I agree with”. Such comments demonstrate that general public recognise brand components and can contribute to their identification for a particular place brand. This also shows that the proposed framework provides better understanding about the place brand. I would not think to evaluate the Manchester brand, and how to do so without such a framework.

Marketing representative observed that the framework “certainly provides guidance”, “tools would help with the evaluation”. Interviewee I1 also mentioned that framework is a good starting point providing guidance and showing what needs doing. This confirms the usefulness and suitability of the proposed framework.

Framework elements

46% of all the respondents agreed that elements in the proposed framework (Figure 5.4) are applicable to Manchester, for example, architecture, nature, talent, green, reputation, museums and vision (Table 6.13). This shows that framework can be used in Manchester's brand evaluation. 33.3% of respondents (majority of them never visited Manchester) could not answer this question explaining that their knowledge about Manchester is limited or that Manchester brand is not clear.

Interviewee I1 commented that "the framework certainly picks up on some of the processes undertaken to determine the vision; perception research by internal and external stakeholder, the consideration of functional attributes, e. g. sense of place and the ongoing development of our offer". When asked whether factors in the framework are applicable to Manchester, marketing representative confirmed that they are except visual triggers and added that places nowadays tend to use marketing campaigns instead of logos or slogans, for example, "There is nothing like Australia" campaign or "The Great Britain" campaign. Comments above by marketing representative and workshop/ survey respondents confirm the applicability and feasibility of the proposed evaluative framework; this also demonstrates adaptability of the framework as elements can be added or subtracted to suit a place in question.

Needs/ expectations

The majority (73.3%) of the respondents agreed that the proposed framework encompasses their needs and expectations thus confirming the applicability and feasibility of the framework; only very few of them made additional comments about this. Few respondents did not express their opinions at all with one of them commenting "My knowledge about Manchester is very limited; I do not have opinion in relation to framework" (respondent S4). In addition, respondent W2 4 commented that "you always discover that something is missing" and respondent S3 agreed with the statement but with the condition that framework includes competition (between cities) and respondent W3 2 suggested "to have more focus on the cultural aspects and make a strong connection with people's perceptions".

Marketing representative confirmed that it is important to evaluate the place brand as "you need to prove it is working or not" thus confirming the need for evaluative methodologies and tools to fulfil this task. According to the

Interviewee I1 evaluation shows whether there are any changes, whether targets are being achieved, etc.

Missing elements

In principle, respondents agreed with the proposed model when asked if there is anything missing in the framework (few respondents did not express their opinion at all). Comments like “all OK, I am happy with the model” confirm this evaluative framework and prove its validity. Some suggestions and comments were made as well:

1. Respondent S3 would like to add “strategy” in the vision section.
2. Respondent W2 4 would like to highlight “cleanliness in the city” and beyond the city centre.
3. Respondent W3 2 suggests “there needs to be a ‘bridge between ‘vision’ and ‘people’s perceptions’ that captures the essence of the meaning of culture; it is not enough to state a vision that is constructed by a branding team as this does not take into account the authentic cultural aspects, meaning and possibilities; the voice and identity of the people needs to shine through the branding process otherwise they will not engage with it and it will be rendered meaningless and exclusive”. (Section 6.3.3.1.3 proved the importance of engagement; this was also discussed in literature (Section 3.3), for example, the case of Randers).
4. Respondent W3 3 does not think there is a need for extras as long as other parts function well and stressed that “focus should be put on resident’s needs”.
5. From visitor’s perspective, respondent S6 thinks that it is important “what they will hear from the tourist guide”.

Interviewee I1 agreed with the framework and its suitability, however suggested that policy should be also incorporated in the framework. According to the marketing representative policy is very important as it ensures that vision will be delivered and it is not only words, that any changes will be implemented; policy shows how the vision is going to be achieved, what is already in place to achieve it, buy-in and means to deliver. Also, looking at the infrastructure list, for

Manchester specifically, according to the marketing representative, digital and conference infrastructure needs to be distinguished along with transport infrastructure as they are important from a business point of view; moreover, “Manchester aims to become one of the world’s top digital cities by 2020” according to Interviewee I1. The same respondent also gave an example of Manimation (Manchester Animation Festival) which represents legacy of animation and showcases opportunities to the world. These are only minor changes in the framework to make it suitable specifically for Manchester.

Marketing representative also mentioned communication (“how is the brand communicated to people”); the issue of communication was highlighted in previous chapter (Section 6.3.4). Following research, it became clear that there is a lack of knowledge amongst public about Manchester as a brand, also confusing interpretations of Manchester brand and its logo along slogan and mixed messages exist, representatives of the general public do not seem to be aware of any surveys in relation to Manchester or its brand, etc. This suggests that communication including means of communication, target audiences, etc. should be considered in the branding process and perhaps should be detailed in the policy.

Marketing representative was asked few additional questions in relation to the evaluation of Manchester’s branding initiatives. In an answer to question if previous Manchester’s logos were looked at and their weaknesses analysed, if there were any models or frameworks used in the analysis, Interviewee I1 suggested reading the transcript of the interview with the strategic marketing representative whom researcher understands was involved in the Manchester branding initiative at a time (Ofori, 2010). Analysis of the above mentioned interview reveals that brand values and positioning of Manchester was reviewed in 2003 by analysing brand identities; consultation was conducted with other UK cities, key stakeholders and those who work and live in Manchester revealing the seven identities (inventive, compact, vibrant, open and open-minded, modern, progressive, real/ unpretentious) which, as described in Section 6.3.3.3.3, resulted in values of respect, live and let live and going places. The strategic marketing representative explained that brand vision then became “Original modern” and it is used as a philosophy internally but not as a slogan externally; moreover, “Manchester is a brand” and organisations responsible for branding are just trying to improve existing perceptions (Interview with the Director of Strategic Marketing transcript in Ofori, 2010). In other words, the public was consulted first before revealing brand identity to the world (however comments like “it is not enough to state a vision that is constructed by a branding team” (respondent W3 2) clearly demonstrate that general public are not aware of such surveys and perceive brand including vision to be designed by the dedicated body). To some extent this answers a question whether no logo and slogan is the outcome of the analysis of the previous logos. In addition to this, lately the strategic promotional framework was developed specifically for Manchester to co-ordinate promotion of the city, “embodiment of “Original Modern”, brand vision, whilst providing guidelines in how to communicate the city brand identity” (Interview with the Director of Strategic Marketing transcript in Ofori, 2010). Marketing representative also confirmed that banding campaigns before “original modern” and multi-coloured “M” were deemed to be no longer suitable but did not comment whether any models were used for such analysis. Researcher understands that old branding initiatives no longer served the purpose (Section 2.2.4 reviewed their criticism); further there was a need to adapt to changing global situation.

In relation to the evaluation of the success of current Manchester brand, success of the brand communication was evaluated unveiling that there is a miss match between communicated or actual identity and conceived identity of Manchester (Ofori, 2010) (these identities were discussed in Section 3.5.4). The same research contained findings from the International Passenger Survey (Ofori, 2010) which aimed to measure the international perception of Manchester. It is worth noting that football in this research was the most popular of Manchester’s association (popularity of football was described in Sections 6.3.3.2.1 and 6.3.3.2.2). Furthermore, The Greater Manchester Destination Plan 2014 – 2017 provides three year results (2010, 2011 and 2012) of the overall performance of Manchester in terms of contribution to the wider economy, performance, visitor numbers and visitor experience with average rating for destination offer (all categories) being

4.5 out of possible 5 in 2010. The same performance overview includes a ranking of Manchester in Anholt's City Brand Index (29 out of 51cities in 2011, and 32 out of 51 cities in 2013) (Greater Manchester Destination Management Plan, n. d.) which according to the marketing representative informs about gaps in the communication at the same time showing city's achievements and its perceptions (Ofori, 2010). Interviewee I1 confirmed that Anholt's study is a large study and is being used not for only perceptions but for benchmarks as well. Cushman and Wakefield index (it ranks Manchester as a business location) was also mentioned as well as scoring by Manchester Enterprises. Marketing representative explained that various organisations may have "their own research matrices" results of which are combined together and incorporated in one strategy that is communicated to all the stakeholders (Interview with the Director of Strategic Marketing transcript in Ofori, 2010). From this, it can be concluded that there is no single comprehensive measure for brand evaluation; at least it is not used to assess the brand of Manchester thus confirming the need for an adequate framework and supporting the aim of this study.

In addition, marketing representative sees the proposed framework being used for the evaluation of the existing brand. For the development of a new brand, Interviewee I1 would suggest starting with "what internal stakeholders think" before the brand is presented to external stakeholders. Furthermore, marketing representative suggested that prism without a list of elements (Figure 7.1) can be applied to any form of marketing, any organisation, shopping centre, property, etc., for example, PZ Cussons (looking at the prism, any company has its own vision, brand elements in other words are product marketing tools and perceptions are expressed by sales figures, testimonials, etc.) This example demonstrates that a list of components make the framework specific for the place. Marketing representative also notes that it takes a long time, say 2 years, when it comes to the place brand evaluation to show any changes in perceptions comparing to the product evaluation. Finally, from the practitioner's point of view, interview participant encourages considerations on how vision and people's perceptions can be measured. It is obvious that using a combination of surveys, interviews and studies like International Passenger Surveys or Anholt's index (Anholt, n. d.)

would give an overall picture, enable analysis over the period of time as well as show changes in perceptions.

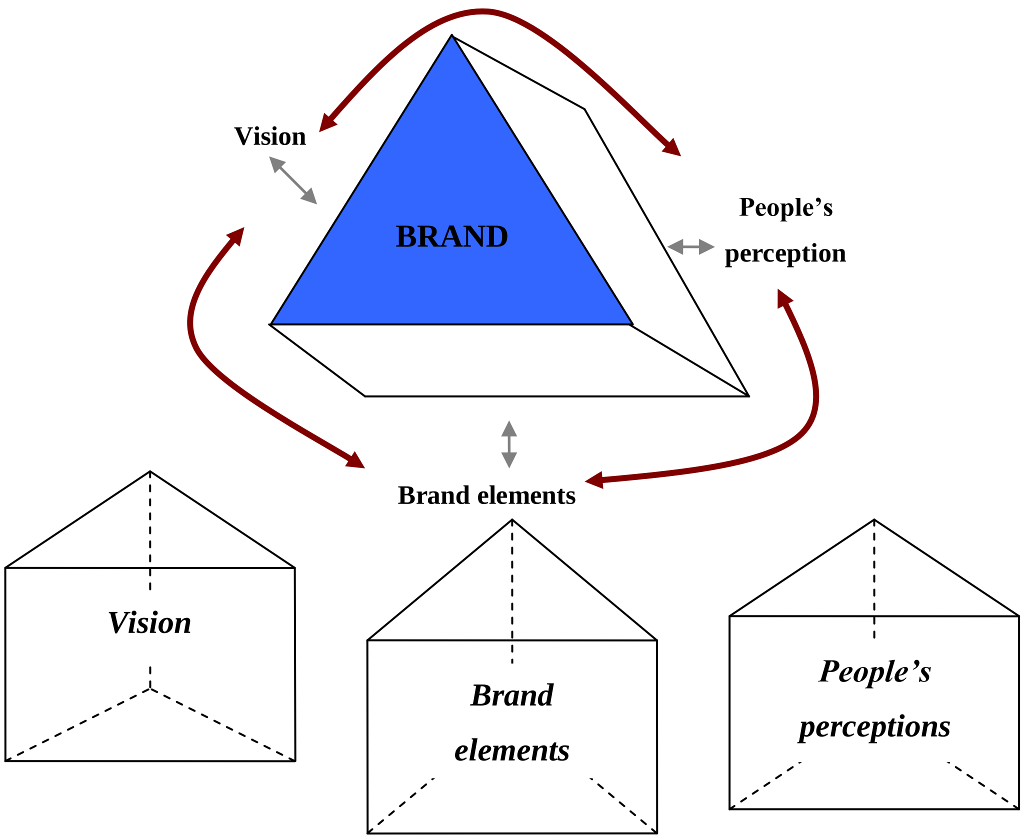


Figure 7.1 Brand evaluation framework

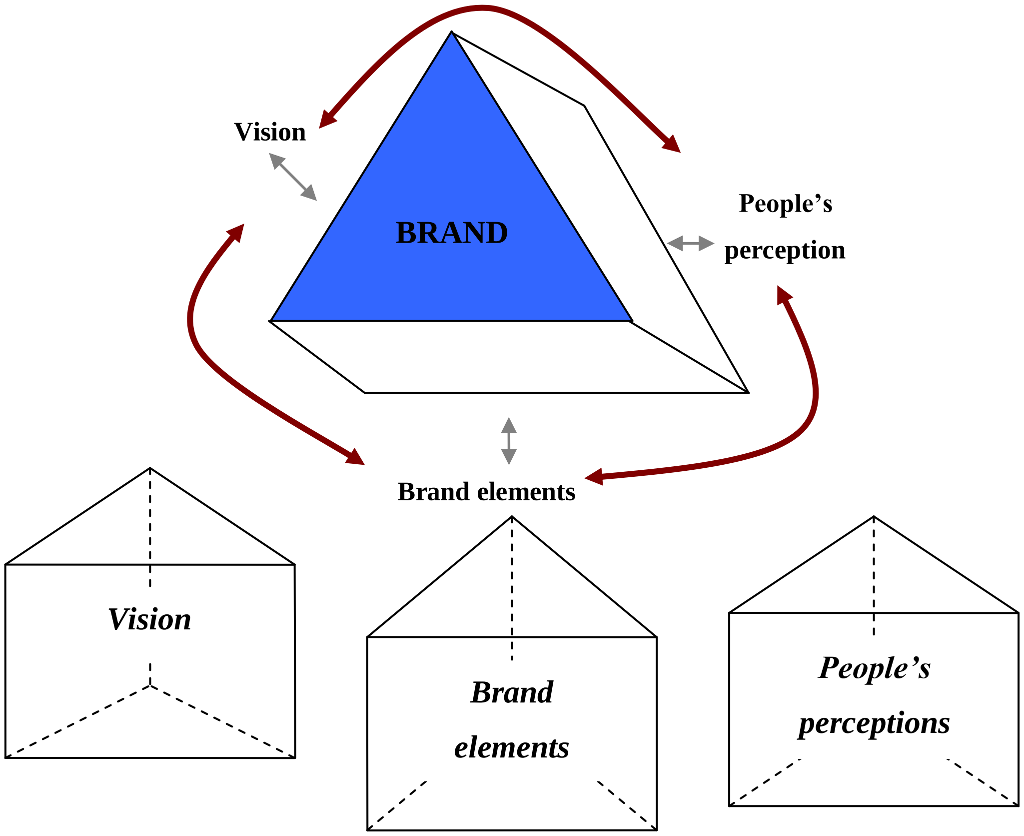
In summary, representatives of the general public and marketing representative confirmed the need for the place brand evaluation, thus confirming the need for the comprehensive evaluative framework/ model which is the aim of this research (see Section 1.3). Further, data analysis revealed that currently, in the Manchester case, a combination of various studies and surveys analysing separate subject areas appear to be used. Some of these surveys have been discontinued already and Anholt City Brand Index (Anholt, n. d.) that city currently relies on analyses people's perceptions but does not appear to consider vision. Both, marketing representative and the general public agree that the proposed evaluative framework can be used to evaluate performance of the place brand as it gives guidance as well as explains what brand is. Moreover, the framework elements are applicable to Manchester (with minor additions) thus validating the framework in case of this city and proving that the three methods, i.e. literature review, interview and workshops/ surveys, in this research were chosen correctly enabling data collection on the latest Manchester's branding initiative. As a result of this, issues associated with Manchester brand became clearer at each stage.

7.3 Discussion

Sections 1.2 and 3.2.1 discussed the popularity of place branding phenomenon as a result of which specific areas for research and development emerging with one of them being place brand evaluation. This was justified by the review of Manchester branding history in Chapter 1 and research investigation in Chapter 6 as well as analysis of urban branding practices of other places described in Section 3.3. Review of existing branding models for places (see Chapter 3) revealed a lack of coherent and widely accepted model along sparse guidance on how to evaluate place brand and measure its success thus verifying the need for an evaluative framework as discussed in Section 5.2. The existing models appeared to be descriptive or development or focused on certain aspects of branding. Furthermore, the need for place brand measurement was supported by academic literature, for example, Zenker (2011).

As mentioned before, discussions in previous chapter validate the need to evaluate activities such as place branding or marketing ideas to check whether expectations of the developed concept are met and as discussed in Section 7.2, the majority of the general public representatives perceived the proposed framework (Chapter 5) to be useful in the evaluation of the place brand. The need for brand evaluation and usefulness was also confirmed by the marketing representative agreeing with elements (with minor corrections) for brand evaluation found in literature (Chapter 3) thus confirming that the evaluative framework can be used as a guide in place branding initiatives as it shows what needs doing. The proposed framework appeared to be inclusive and user friendly. Representatives of general public also validated the framework; it helped them to better understand place brand and its components. However, some comments were made and additional information as well as elements suggested in Section 7.2. Consequently, the proposed framework was amended as illustrated in Figure 7.2.

Marketing representative agrees that the proposed brand evaluation framework “picks up on some of the processes undertaken to determine the vision” and further suggests considering communication as well as featuring of the policy as it “plays a major part too”. These insights are very valuable as they are based on interviewee’s experience and knowledge. The revised framework is presented below in Figure 7.2 showing strategy in the vision section (as it was suggested by the respondent S3 in Section 7.2) along policy (to support vision). Communication is also in the facet of vision. In this way, brand developers will be reminded about the importance of communication in various stages of the brand development and these principles along other guidelines will be captured in the policy. Policy should also ensure that there is “bridge between ‘vision’ and ‘people’s perceptions’ that captures the essence of the meaning of culture” as suggested by the respondent W3 2 and there is focus “on resident’s needs” as highlighted by the respondent W3 3. Cleanliness, as emphasised by the respondent W2 4 is already included in the framework as part of hygiene facilities amongst potential functional attributes. In Manchester case, marketing representative suggested infrastructure dividing into transport, digital and conference infrastructure; also there are no visual triggers.



- Future
- Purpose
- Values

- Vision
- Mission
- Heritage and culture
- People and values
- Philosophy
- Country of origin/ reputation/credibility of brand (destination) name, tourism quality
- Uniqueness
- Strategy
  - Policy
  - Communication

- **Visual triggers:**
  - Symbol - Slogan
  - Logo - Name
- **Potential functional attributes:**
  - Urban residential services
  - Social services and relations (interpersonal relationships)
  - Museums, art galleries, theatres, concert halls and other cultural services
  - Leisure and sports activities and facilities
  - Conference and exhibition facilities
  - Natural environment, public spaces and recreational services
  - Hotels, restaurants, night clubs and entertainment
  - Architecture and quality of the built environment
  - Infrastructure:
    - Transport and access
    - Digital
    - Conference
  - Hygiene facilities (car parks, toilets, baby-changing facilities, street cleaning, etc.)
  - Vibrancy (business vibrancy including growth of jobs)
- **Potential symbolic attributes:**
  - Place symbolisms, souvenirs and handicraft
  - The character of the local residents
  - The profile of typical visitors (age, income, interests and values)
  - Descriptors of the quality of service provided

For example:

- Visitors, workers etc??? Of different sex, religion...
- Etc.

- **Potential experiential attributes:**
  - How the city make residents/ visitors feel (relaxed, excited, fascinated, etc.)
  - Descriptors of the built environment (historic, modern, green, spacious, etc.)
  - Descriptors related to security and safety
  - Quality of life
  - The physical characteristics of air
  - Sound, smell and taste
  - Colours
  - Relationships/ interactions
- **Other:**
  - Benefits
  - Personality
  - Users
  - Patents
  - Trademarks

Figure 7.2 Final place brand evaluation framework

Based on the findings, the suggested framework is considered to be a good starting point when discussing place brand evaluation; furthermore it is considered to be particularly useful in evaluating existing place brand as it gives insights into what brand is and what elements/ processes make it; the framework can assist in the analysis of the proposed brand concepts and equally it could be useful when designing new brand images. This validates the need for the evaluative framework and its usefulness. The framework is also considered to be adaptable to other places by amending its components to reflect particular situations. Moreover, section 7.2 discussed that a prism with adequate list of elements can be used in the evaluation of any marketing activity. It should be noted that the revised framework depending on changes might need to be validated further.

The proposed framework should not be used as a prescription, in fact the opposite: it should be customised to suit individual places; the framework described above can and should be used as a guide. Components of vision are more or less universal and may not change so much; in contrast brand elements are flexible and lists of visual triggers, functional attributes, symbolic attributes or experiential attributes can be easily customised by adding or taking away relevant attributes. General public represent various groups of people in terms of age, sex or status in the city, etc. These groups can be selected depending on the objectives of the research and so on.

In order to fully test the proposed evaluative framework, it should be applied to other cities in future investigations as benefits of it in Manchester case study have not been explored fully because of the particular situation in relation to Manchester's brand.

7.4 Conclusions

Application and usefulness of the proposed place branding evaluation model was reviewed and analysed in the above sections. Background to this research identifying aims and objectives along the need for the evaluative framework was presented in Chapter 1. Chapter 2 reviewed literature on Manchester including its history through branding initiatives, subsequently, Chapter 3 analysed existing corporate and place branding models, thus justifying the need for this research. Methodology used in this study (objective 3) was explained in Chapter 4 and the evaluative framework was developed based on key findings from Chapters 2 and 3 (Chapter 5). Chapter 6 provided the analysis of Manchester in terms of branding.

Based on the results of interview and workshops/ surveys, evaluative framework is needed and can be useful in various stages of place branding considering people's perceptions at any stage; framework itself was slightly amended by adding dimensions of "policy", "strategy" and "communication" in the vision section and separating digital and conference infrastructure from transport and access infrastructure. Furthermore, analysis of the results revealed some confusion and misinterpretation in relation to Manchester brand, its slogan and logo. Notwithstanding, general public seem to have positive expectations for Manchester and perceived Manchester needing an official brand and somewhat agreeing with the concept "original modern" but heavily criticising the signifier "M".

The next chapter will summarise findings of the entire research including literature and investigative findings, research methodology review, limitations, research contribution as well as recommendations.

CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

8.1 Introduction

The purpose of this research was to analyse place brand and its evaluation and the aim of this thesis was to develop a framework that would assist in the place brand evaluation process (Chapter 5). The need for it was identified in Chapter 1. Literature was reviewed in Chapters 2 and 3 in relation to Manchester including history of branding initiatives going back to the 19th century and place branding phenomenon analysing existing corporate and place branding models accordingly. The research methodology used in this study was presented in Chapter 4. Framework developed in Chapter 5 was applied to Manchester brand and its case study was described in Chapter 6. Chapter 7 discussed applicability and validity of the framework.

This final chapter presents summary of research findings from literature reviews and researcher investigations highlighting research aim and objectives (Section 1.3):

- Understand success of place branding phenomenon and investigate the need for its evaluation (Chapters 2 and 3).
- Explore how success is determined for existing place brands and review models used for place brand evaluation (Chapter 3).
- Develop and implement an appropriate research methodology to undertake this study (Chapter 4).
- Develop a framework enabling place brand evaluation (Chapter 5).
- Test evaluative framework by applying it to Manchester (Chapter 6).
- Investigate the value of the place brand evaluation framework and provide recommendations (Chapter 7).

The research methodology is also reviewed in this chapter identifying its limitations along with the research novelty and providing recommendations for future research.

8.2 Literature findings

Efforts to position Manchester to the world and identify the symbol representing Manchester using various sources resulted in the selection of different branding initiatives, starting with the "Bee" to represent the era of industry (each initiative reflects certain historical periods); this proved to be a good case location for this research. The latest initiative is the multi-coloured signifier "M" and summing up device "Original modern" designed in 2006 by Peter Saville who was tasked to come up with the marketing idea for Manchester. Despite this concept was created to sum up Manchester's values following consultations with general public and to reflect the essence of the city and what makes it different, lots of critiques of this idea exist (see Section 2.2.5.1). Obviously, the new signifier "M" and concept "original modern" can be described as universal and applicable to any place, not only Manchester; here lies the fundamental question: "how to create a cohesive feel" (Manchester Primer, 2002) and what inspires "emotional bond" (Vandenwalle, 2010); this research tried to understand these by developing an evaluative framework and testing it on Manchester. Furthermore, official guidance on how and where the latest Manchester's marketing idea should be used appeared to be confusing and subject to various interpretations as evidence during the interview with the marketing representative revealed (Chapter 6). Moreover, concerns exist as to whether logos can sell cities at all (O'Rourke, 2006a) while other authors remind that landmark buildings can symbolise places as well (for example, Selby (2004) or Riza *et al.* (2012)); this research does not advocate what approach should represent a place, moreover, how the approach can be evaluated. Table 2.2 in Section 2.2.8 reflects how diverse Manchester is at the same time inspiring debate about the need for the evaluation of place branding initiatives which is the aim of this study.

The need for evaluation was also supported by the review of place branding examples in Section 3.3; for example, branding of Oresund, New York or New Zeland is long lasting and accepted widely by the public while branding of Aalborg, Randers or Amsterdam has been heavily criticised. Up to now success or failure of place brands was in general left open to interpretation and they were judged by the public or media. This raised questions such as what influences and determines success of such practices. However, it is not an easy question to answer as place brand combines a complex of constantly changing variables along evolution of place itself. Different aspects of place branding are currently the subject of much research. One of them is evaluation of place brand which is expected to assist brand practitioners in identifying whether branding initiative serves the purpose or certain aspects of it are in need of attention.

This study also reviewed the existing literature on branding including corporate brand and place brand models and revealed the following:

- Place branding is becoming more popular across the globe as it supposedly increases place's attractiveness and competitiveness, etc. Subsequently, there is a growing body of academic literature relating to this subject. Nevertheless, place branding is still in its early theoretical development stages and has many issues to understand (Braun *et al.,* 2010) and according to Ntounis (2013), still lacks of empirical research in place marketing discipline.

- Analysis of product and corporate branding models and their application to place branding makes a significant contribution (Braun *et al.,* 2010) (corporate brand models are described in Section 3.4). Authors of these models recognised the importance of the human factor and acknowledged that staff and customers have impact on brands and thus their models contained dimension of customers (except model by Ugla (2006)).

- Existing models in place branding have been developed recently and have not been used widely or cited yet (Zenker, 2011, Hanna and Rowley, 2011) (place branding models are described in Section 3.5). Furthermore, there is no single universal and commonly accepted model for place branding.

- Literature review also revealed an issue of human capital involvement in place branding initiatives (Merrilees *et al.*, 2007; Balakrishnan, 2009; Ofori, 2010; Braun *et al.*, 2010; Zenker, 2011; Hanna and Rowley, 2011), i. e. a lack of it; this is probably the most important factor in branding. More and more authors (for example, Merrilees *et al.* (2007), Balakrishnan (2009), Ofori (2010), Braun *et al.* (2010), Zenker (2011), Hanna and Rowley (2011), Baxter (2013)) recognise the impact and importance of people for the success of place brand.

- Finally, observations reinforced the need for an evaluation of place brand because effectiveness of branding is subject to much debate and own, press, etc. interpretations. Analysis of existing urban branding examples shows that reviews by media have major influence for the success or failure of the brand. Moreover, literature review revealed that there is a growing number of various place branding models (many of them are based on product/ service or corporate brand models) but there is currently a lack of comprehensive model on how to evaluate brand as well as sparse guidance on how to create an evaluative framework for place brand and finally, it is not very clear what to measure. There is a lack of user friendly evaluation models. Only most recent models incorporate dimension of "brand evaluation", for example, in model of destination brand (Tasci and Kozak, 2006), branding strategy model (Balakrishnan, 2009), identity communication framework (Ofori, 2010) or brand-management model (Hanna and Rowley, 2011) and only recently Zenker (2011) furthered the discussion of appropriate measurement approaches presenting dimensions of brand evaluation (Section 3.5.10). Existing models measure perceptions of people but they do not get involved in the evaluation and validation processes.

As a result of this and in anticipation to fill in the above described gap in the existing literature an evaluation framework measuring place brand success was developed. The relevance and applicability of this framework was tested by applying it to Manchester. The evaluative framework proposed in this thesis could be used not only to evaluate existing place branding initiatives but also as a guide when creating new branding ideas and is expected to help to develop more targeted campaigns.

8.3 Investigative findings

Information from literature reviews was used to develop the evaluative framework enabling assessment of place branding initiatives and thus achieving the aim of this study and filling in the existing gap in the literature. Subsequently, the proposed framework (Figure 5.4) was applied to the case of Manchester (Chapter 6) to test its applicability and suitability (see Chapter 7). As a research tool, a mix of workshops and surveys to gather public perceptions along with an interview with marketing representative was used. Key findings are summarised below:

- Public awareness and brand judgement can be described as medium to high; representatives of general public could name brand elements, reason importance of branding for places as well as importance of involvement of the general public in place branding process. However, currently there is no formal method of evaluating performance of the place brand thus confirming the need for the proposed evaluative framework.

- Analysis of public perceptions relating to Manchester revealed that all three groups of respondents (residents, visitors and people who never visted) had similar perceptions of Manchester and used a mix of functional, symbolic and experiental attributes to describe this city; percepted vision for Manchester somewhat coincided with the formal vision and overall people had positive expectations for the city. However, values defined by the marketing representative did not coincide with values percepted by public.

- Evaluation of Manchester brand revealed that the brand is confusing and subsequently is generating misleading interpretations, for example, representatives of general public called concept "original modern" slogan while signifier "M" called logo (similar interpretations exist in media, for example, Cerysmatic Factory blog); further, images of the multi-coloured letter "M" displayed around Manchester support the idea of the logo. According to the brand designer and city representatives, Manchester is the brand and it does not have a logotype as other cities would do, instead multi-coloured letter "M" is being used as a "brand signifier" (Saville, 2012) and "original modern" is not a slogan, it "is the vision and a way of summarising what Manchester gives to the world" (Respondent I1). However, from the perspective of public, it is still not clear where and how to use the latest branding concept. Moreover, this also raised questions of communication along the need for clarification of the brand itself and associated branding initiative. Issues discussed in this paragraph support the need for place brand evaluation as it identifies existing problems.

- The absence of formal slogan or logo proves that Manchester likes doing things in its own way and showing example to the world. Manchester representative confirmed this by saying "the vision and our approach is quite different from most other cities; we're hoping to lead the way that destinations interact with potential visitors" (Respondent I1). Probably no one will argue that such tactics perfectly differentiate Manchester from other cities. However still needs to be accepted by the general public; evaluation can assist with this.

- Finally, the case study of Manchester proved applicability and usefulness of the framework despite the situation in relation to Manchester brand and minor changes suggested by the research participants. Framework still has practical value as it enables the assessment of place brand performance providing comprehensive picture and identifying problem areas.

- Based on findings in previous chapter, the proposed framework is considered to be adaptable to other urban places by amending its components to reflect particular situations. Components of vision are more or less universal and may not change so much; brand elements are flexible and lists of visual triggers, functional attributes, symbolic attributes or experiential attributes can be easily adapted to suit particular situation; groups representing general public can be selected depending on the objectives of the research, etc. Furthrmore, it has been noticed that the prism can be used in the evaluation of any marketing activity with the selection of appropriate components.

The suggested framework is considered to be a good guide for place brand evaluation; furthermore, it is thought to be particularly useful in evaluating existing place brand. As findings of the Manchester case study demonstrated, it can give insights into what brand is and what elements/ processes make it; framework can also assist in identifying issues. This validates the usefulness of the evaluative framework.

8.4 Research methodology analysis

In principal, the chosen research methodology is suitable for this study. The primary aim of this research was fulfilled: an evaluative framework for place branding, enabling brand practitioners or city governors, clients/ designers, marketing agencies, etc. to check whether the brand vision and brand elements reflect public perceptions was developed (Figure 7.2).

First of all, the literature reviews helped to understand the subject under investigation, identified good aspects of practice as well as gaps, i.e. the need for the evaluation of place brands and a lack of measurement tools for them (Chapters 2 and 3). The proposed framework was developed using information from literature reviews as a basis (Chapter 5). As case study allows testing of specific theory, analysing a complex of issues in one case and validating the framework using multiple data collection methods, it was chosen as the research strategy in this thesis to test the evaluative framework (Chapter 6). Qualitative and quantitative data was collected using a mix of workshops and surveys to gather perceptions of public and semi-structured interview was organised with the marketing representative. People who work and live in Manchester attended workshops while previously visitors in Manchester or people who never visited Manchester were sent survey questionnaires as workshops were not possible due to time differences, etc.

The researcher believes that workshops/ surveys and interview proved to be valid data collection tools as they enabled collection of the relevant information (perceptions on branding in general, vision, Manchester brand, etc.) that was necessary for verification of the proposed framework. A mix of methods enabled the development of a comprehensive picture of research topic. However, there was a limitation in a sense, that only one marketing representative was available for an interview. It is likely that reliability of findings would increase if more respondents would have participated in interviews. Nevertheless, the interviewee represented two different organisations and had relevant direct experience therefore strongly contributing to this research. Furthermore, the workshop and survey participants also validated the framework (the researcher felt that it is important to consult public regarding place brand evaluation, not only its creation in order to enhance their ownership and engagement) and they were selected purposefully to represent different groups of people in terms of their status in the city (they could be also grouped by age, gender and occupation). This supports the validity of findings.

For the sequence of data collection, the interview with marketing representative after literature review was conducted provided more clarity on the subject and eliminated misleading interpretations found in media (see Section 2.2.5.1). Based on this information workshop/ survey questionnaire was developed to gather public perceptions. This way more accurate results were achieved. In order to get public perceptions in greater detail the researcher asked a number of questions in the test questionnaire but some of the respondents felt that survey could have been shorter. When developing workshop/ survey questionnaire, all of the questions seemed to be important but after the test questionnaire it became obvious, that some of the questions could be combined or incorporated and re-phrased.

The use of the single case study in this research might be seen as a limitation. However, research findings indicated that the proposed evaluative framework is versatile; furthermore, with the appropriate list of brand elements it can be applied not only to places, but buildings, products, etc.

As mentioned above, the chosen research methodology, i.e. workshops and surveys, enabled to gather public opinions on the latest marketing concept which then were compared against the information found in literature and provided by the marketing representative. When it comes to describing success, it is up to the person or entity using the framework to decide what quantitative value/ what degree of match they would call as success.

8.5 Limitations

Using Manchester as a single case study in this thesis is one of the limitations of this research. It can be argued that validity of the proposed framework would have been greater if it had been tested on more than one urban place having its own brand. In addition, benefits of the evaluative framework have not been explored fully because of the situation and existing confusions in relation to Manchester's brand with no formal slogan and logo.

Perceptions of Manchester expressed by 30 respondents, despite representing various groups in terms of age, sex or status in the city (live and work, visitor or never visited), do not represent a full picture and only give an insight what these perceptions are. The large number of variables in the brand makes the task of evaluation difficult.

It should be noted that it was difficult to arrange interviews with brand developers and representatives (7 persons whom are understood to be related/ involved in the Manchester branding initiative were contacted); they explained they did not have enough time and they also get a lot of requests from students. This posed a major obstacle in the attempts to get in-depth knowledge on the research subject. Instead the researcher was suggested reading "Original Modern" handbook and

"Manchester Forward" that can be found on Marketing Manchester website. As already mentioned before, information contained in these sources of literature can be interpreted in different ways in the absence of accurate explanation and clarification. Only personal connection made during the unrelated social event provided a chance to engage with marketing representative who was willing to help. Furthermore, it is likely that framework validation would be more reliable if more respondents (experts) would have expressed their views.

Perceptions of respondents who visited Manchester in the past or never visited are as important as opinions of people who live and work in Manchester, the later took part in workshops. Because of location and time difference, people who visited or never visited Manchester were sent survey questionnaires and interpreted questions to their understanding. Respondents found some of the questions difficult to answer. Some of the respondents stressed their limited knowledge about Manchester, especially those who never visited Manchester. Further, this could have been because of the specific terms used as some of the respondents were from other countries, not UK. One of the respondents suggested that choices in questions could be given. For the purpose of the study, the researcher did not want to suggest any ideas or limit the description of the subject, instead wanted to gather opinions from general public. However this could be considered in the future research using single case study too.

8.6 Novelty of the research

Despite the limitations described above, the research presented in this thesis is fruitful and novel as it supplements the existing knowledge base (Daymon and Holloway, 2002). It presents a framework designed to assist in place brand evaluation. Although a number of place branding models exist, there is a lack of frameworks enabling brand evaluation along a lack of guidance on how to develop evaluative framework. To fill in this gap in the literature, this study not only confirms components of brand and elements of the evaluative framework, it also empirically tests them by applying to the city of Manchester. This research not only tests the relevance of the framework, but also elaborates its elements and offers insights into relationships between framework components. It is thought that the framework can be applied to test any place brand. Furthermore, the prism (Figure 7.1) with its main components of vision, brand elements and people's perceptions appears to be universal and applicable to any marketing activity be it place, company or building, etc. Obviously, tools to measure vision or perceptions would differ as well as list of brand attributes (see Section 7.2).

The brand evaluation framework does not claim to be a comprehensive overview of all possible brand elements; a list of components can be adjusted to suit a particular situation. It rather serves as a guide, as a tool for the evaluation and even development of brand for the place. The proposed framework makes a contribution to branding theory in the following respects:

- The proposed framework offers guidance for brand evaluation aiding practitioners in brand creation and development processes. It allows assessing current situation which can help to determine further steps. Evaluation process enables to check the reality and measure how far it is from the desired result providing basis for future strategies or can show changes over the period of time. It can also use combinations of tools for evaluation of vision and perceptions. This was supported by the empirical findings.

- The proposed framework is user friendly; it integrates stakeholders into the branding process and takes into account public perceptions. People take part in the evaluation process (Chapters 3 and 5 discussed the role of people and importance of their involvement in the branding process). This was also supported by the empirical findings.

- The framework is useful for gaining perceptions on vision and brand elements and relationship between them. This research also identifies which brand elements and components are perceived as positive and make positive contribution to the brand along negative points providing insights for improvements.

- This research has shown what important role plays vision and has given an insight into how place's attributes having negative or destructive effect (for example, no greenery or high crime levels) are being addressed. Sufficient communication and clarification of the brand is of no less importance (empirical findings supported this).

Additionally, identification of the acceptance level of the branding initiative by public at the time of the research and future studies conducted in a similar way would enable comparisons between results then and now, and hence, identifying the changes in public perceptions over the period of time. Measuring the performance of the place brand will not only provide a comprehensive picture of how brand is performing, but it will also identify problematic areas. Finally, this research showed that place brand needs to be transparent so that it can be recognised and accepted by the general public at the same time demonstrate what added value this brand has.

8.7 Recommendations for future research

Although the aim of this research was achieved and framework enabling brand evaluation was developed and tested, it would be useful to apply the proposed framework to other places in order to demonstrate its versatility at the same time helping locations to understand level of performance of their own brands. In addition, it might be useful to conduct a comparative study with brands of other urban developments. The same framework could be potentially used to evaluate place identity.

Balakrishnan (2008) suggested that survey tool for customer perceptions would help in place branding studies. Anholt City Brand Index (Anholt, n. d.) appears to be used widely for rankings and benchmarking based on people's perceptions. It might be useful to develop a universal and comprehensive tool for the evaluation of vision.

As place brands are complex and unique constructs with so many different elements, as a result brand models are complex as well. For this reason it might be useful to identify universal elements in the place brand applicable to any location development. Also, ranking of the brand evaluation elements would be useful as this would give insights into which components are perceived to have strongest impact when talking about the place branding phenomenon; problematic indicators would guide the establishment of priority strategies.

Experimental research could be undertaken to investigate what ideas representing Manchester to the world would be suggested by the public. In such a way public would be engaged and would feel more ownership as well as they would understand such concepts better and possibly avoid negative critiques as it happened, for example, with the brand of city Randers.

Additional work is needed in order to understand what shapes negative perceptions of the place and its vision. Such results would identify areas for improvement.

Further research is needed to develop a better understanding why some places are using logos and slogans in their marketing activities while others (for example, Manchester) refrain from using them and what tools and practices they use to spread the message about themselves. Such observations would be particularly useful for places with no logos and slogans.

8.8 Chapter summary and end note

This chapter summarised and presented key findings from literature review and researcher investigations proving that evaluation of the place marketing initiatives is an important element in brand management. Despite some limitations, this research makes contribution to the existing knowledge. This study questions the usefulness and appropriateness of brand evaluation framework as a means of assessing performance of the place's brand, i.e. public awareness of it as well as acceptance, in other words "emotional bond" (Vandenwalle, 2010) with the public. In spite of difficulties in getting in-depth knowledge on the research subject, this study presented valuable results and insights that could be refined in the future for the purpose of dissemination. As a consequence of this research, a couple of publications in academic conferences were presented and further presentations along academic journal publications are being considered.

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APPENDIX A

Important component of existing frameworks and destination branding cases (Balakrishnan, 2009)

Component	Sub-categories	Author
Vision	Vision, mission, heritage and culture, people and values, philosophy	Balakrishnan, 2008; Rangan *et al.*, 2006; Wong *et al.*, 2006; Aaker, 2004; Trueman *et al.*, 2004; Davis, 2002; Javalgi and White, 2002; Balmer, 2001; de Chernatony, 1999; de Chernatony and Riley, 1998
.	Country of origin/reputation/credibility of brand (destination) name, tourism quality	Balakrishnan, 2008; Eraqi, 2006; Rangan *et al.*, 2006; Trueman *et al.*, 2004; Thakor and Lavack, 2003; Beverland, 2001; de Chernatony, 1999; Herbig and Milewicz, 1997
Stakeholders	Perception, position, people, needs	Balakrishnan, 2008; Ferguson and Hlavinka, 2006; Phillips, 2006; Rangan *et al.*, 2006; Merrilees *et al.*, 2005; Pike, 2005; Trueman *et al.*, 2004; Balmer, 2001; de Chernatony, 1999
	Strong government support	WTTC, 2003
	Assessing external environment	Davis, 2002
Target market	People (customer)	Balmer, 2001
	Human capital; Employment	Wong *et al.*, 2006; WTTC, 2003; Davis, 2002
Marketing mix	Marketing Mix – 4P; 7P for services	Moorthi, 2002; Balmer, 2001
	Facilities	O'Cass and Grace, 2003
	Prices (expensive)	Pawitra and Tan, 2003
	People in service interaction	Wong *et al.*, 2006; O'Cass and Grace, 2003; Grace and O'Cass, 2003
	Identify product portfolio	Wong *et al.*, 2006; Aaker, 2004; Hankinson, 2004
	Anholt_GMI City Brand Index (Nations branding: tourism; exports; governance; investment and immigration)	Shikoh, 2006
	Licensing	Rangan *et al*, 2006
Positioning	Positioning	Davis, 2002
	Culture and heritage; and people	Trueman *et al.*, 2004
	Matching consumer mind – confidence; rational performance and emotional/psycho-social	de Chernatony and Riley, 1998
	Experience with the brand and image of the user	O'Cass and Grace, 2003
	Usage occasions	de Chernatony and Segal-Horn, 2003; Grace and O'Cass, 2003
Differentiation	Differentiation – needs; attributes	Balakrishnan, 2008; Correira *et al.*, 2007; Hankinson, 2005; 2004; Pawitra and Tan, 2003; González and Bello, 2002; Leisen, 2001; Gamage and King, 1999
	Image	Balakrishnan, 2008; Davis, 2002
	Color	White, 2005
	Logo design and development	Balakrishnan, 2008; Rangan *et al.*, 2006; Blain *et al.*, 2005

(*continued*)

Component	Sub-categories	Author
	Personality	de Chernatony and Riley, 1998
	Feelings and self-image congruence	O'Cass and Grace, 2003; Jamal and Goode, 2001
	Visual identity	Trueman *et al.*, 2004
	Image	Balakrishnan, 2008; Davis, 2002; de Chernatony and Riley, 1998
	Personality	Hosany *et al.*, 2007
	Brand alliances, ingredient branding, halo effect	Balakrishnan, 2008; McCarthy and Norris, 1999; Herbig and Milewicz, 1997; Javalgi and Moberg, 1997
Communication	Communication mix – consistency and honesty	Balakrishnan, 2008; Rangan *et al.*, 2006; Law *et al.*, 2004; Trueman *et al.*, 2004; Davis, 2002; Balmer, 2001; de Chernatony and Riley, 1998
	Emotional advertising	Hankinson, 2005; Grace and O'Cass, 2003; Mattila, 1999; Pritchard and Morgan, 1998
	Tangibilizing	Balakrishnan, 2008; Bang *et al.*, 2005; Hankinson, 2005
	Sevicescape	O'Cass and Grace, 2003
	Experience or flavor	Wood, 2007; Roberts, 2005; O'Cass and Grace, 2003; Trueman *et al.*, 2004
	Word of mouth	Nielsen Media, 2007; Future Brands, 2006; O'Cass and Grace, 2003; 2004; Wangenheim and Bayón, 2004; Grace and O'Cass, 2002
	Slogans and licensing	Rangan *et al.*, 2006
Feedback	Marketing intelligence; netnography	Martin *et al.*, 2007; Simeon, 2006

APPENDIX B

Drivers of strategic vision for destination branding (Balakrishnan, 2009)

Vision drivers	Subsets	Author
Economic	GDP/revenues	Balakrishnan, 2008; Wong *et al*., 2006; IMD, 2005; Rangan *et al*., 2006; Hankinson, 2004
	Business/FDI	Balakrishnan, 2008; Hankinson, 2005; IMD, 2005; Trueman *et al*., 2004
	Infrastructure investments; globalization and networking	Balakrishnan, 2008; Hankinson, 2005; IMD, 2005; Taylor, 2005; Trueman *et al*., 2004; Chen and Gursoy, 2001
	Welfare, security, human capital, employment	Balakrishnan, 2008; Wong *et al*., 2006; Rangan *et al*., 2006; Trueman *et al*., 2004; WTTC, 2003; Chen and Gursoy, 2001
Services	Government – policies; operation	WTTC, 2007; Rangan *et al*., 2006; IMD, 2005; Trueman *et al*., 2004; McDougall and Levesque, 2000
	Business opportunities	Future Brands, 2006; Rangan *et al*., 2006; IMD, 2005; McDougall and Levesque, 2000
	Consumer/personal – intellectual, social etc.	Rangan *et al*., 2006; IMD, 2005; McDougall and Levesque, 2000
Transit Hub	Passengers and cargo	Hankinson, 2004; Chan, 2000; Siddiqi, 1999
	Immigration	Shikoh, 2006; Bontis, 2004
Retail	Tourists (domestic, international)	Wong *et al*., 2006; Rangan *et al*., 2006; Davis, 2006; Woodside and Dubelaar, 2002
	Expatriate	King, 1999
	Locals/national citizens	Balakrishnan, 2008; Davis, 2006
	Real estate	Zahid, 2006
Trade	Logistics	Hankinson, 2005; Siddiqi, 1999
	Transportation	Balakrishnan, 2008
Tourism	Destination promotion (internal/external)	Balakrishnan, 2008; Eraqi, 2006; Rangan *et al*., 2006; WTTC, 2003; González and Bello, 2002; Gamage and King, 1999

APPENDIX C

Branding components (Balakrishnan, 2009)

	Authors
Tangible; visual; functional elements	
Name, logo, trade mark, graphics	Rowley, 2004; de Chernatony and Riley, 1998
Symbols	Moorthi, 2002
Slogan, adjectives	Pawitra and Tan, 2003; Moorthi, 2002
Colors	White, 2005
Service delivery process/servicescape	Robledo, 2001; Warnaby and Davies, 1997
Postcards, pictures, movies, ads – images; information	Trueman *et al.*, 2004; O'Cass and Grace, 2003; Woodside *et al.*, 2002; Human, 1999
Buildings architecture, facilities, places of interest, scenery; attributes	Correira *et al.*, 2007; Hankinson, 2004; 2005; O'Cass and Grace, 2003; Pawitra and Tan, 2003; Leisen, 2001; Warnaby and Davies, 1997
Souvenirs, shopping items	Leisen, 2001; Warnaby and Davies, 1997; Gordon, 1986
Heroes and heroines	Reichheld, 2001
Functionality,	Hankinson, 2005; Warnaby and Davies, 1997; Pearce, 1991
Ingredient/associated brands, sponsorships, events	Pawitra and Tan, 2003; Moorthi, 2002; Woodside *et al.*, 2002.
Intangible and symbolic elements	
Perceptions of image	Hosany *et al.*, 2007; Runyan and Huddleston, 2006; Hankinson, 2004; 2005; Knox, 2004; Pawitra and Tan, 2003; Palumbo and Herbig, 2000
Service satisfaction	McDougall and Levesque, 2000; Warnaby and Davies, 1997
Personality of place, culture, heritage, ambience	Hosany *et al.*, 2007; Runyan and Huddleston, 2006; Hankinson, 2004; Pawitra and Tan, 2003; Moorthi, 2002; Leisen, 2001; Chen and Gursoy, 2001
Relationship, bond, familiarity, interaction and empathy	Kayaman and Arasli, 2007; Bang *et al.*, 2005; Moorthi, 2002
Relevance, representational; self-image congruence	Jamal and Goode, 2001; Sirgy *et al.*, 1997
Personal and social values, self-personality; lifestyle, self-expression	González and Bello, 2002; Jamal and Goode, 2001; Davis, 2002
Needs (physiological; safety; relationship; self-esteem and fulfillment needs)	Chen and Gursoy, 2001; Pearce, 1991 – see travel career ladder
Emotions/mood/senses	Wood, 2007; Roberts, 2005; O'Cass and Grace, 2003; Davis, 2002; Jamal and Goode, 2001; Pritchard and Morgan, 1998
Legends	Reichheld, 2001
Image/roles of people associated with service delivery or destination	Ball *et al.*, 2006; Hankinson, 2005; Grace and O'Cass, 2003; Katzenbach, 2003; Moorthi, 2002; O'Cass and Grace, 2003; Pawitra and Tan, 2003; Warnaby and Davies, 1997
Occasion association, experiences, ambience	Hankinson, 2005; O'Cass and Grace, 2004; 2003; Chen and Gursoy, 2001; Schreuer, 2000; de Chernatony and Riley, 1998
Perception of others perception (WOM, public relations, publicity)	Hankinson, 2004; Wangenheim and Bayón, 2004; O'Cass and Grace, 2003; Bansal and Voyer, 2000
Value/expense perceptions	Cunningham *et al.*, 2006; Hankinson, 2005; Pawitra and Tan, 2003
Association with other brands	Rangan *et al.*, 2006

APPENDIX D

Examples of place brand studies (2005-2010) (Zenker, 2011)

Source	Research object	Method	Brand dimensions/elements
Baxter and Kerr (2010)	Wollongong (Australia)	Quantitative questionnaire with semantic-differential scale and qualitative questions	Brand personality Likes and dislikes
De Carlo *et al.* (2009)	Milan (Italy)	Case study Semi-structured interviews Qualitative interviews	Cultural offerings Brand symbols Brand personality
Hankinson (2005)	15 English cities	Qualitative interviews Repertory grid analysis Exploratory factor analysis	Economic Physical environment Activities and facilities Brand attitudes People
Herstein and Jaffe (2008)	Holon (Israel)	Case study Qualitative interviews	Top of minds associations City's population aspects City's physical aspects
Kerr and Johnson (2005)	Bargo (Australia)	Case study Qualitative questionnaire Qualitative interviews SWOT analysis	Positive and negative assets Festivals Tourist accommodation Sport/lifestyle Arts/crafts Industry/manufacturing
Laaksonen *et al.* (2006)	Vaasa (Finland)	Qualitative collage technique Focus group interviews	Nature Industry Culture Built environment Atmosphere
Lee and Jain (2009)	Dubai (United Arab Emirates)	Case study SWOT analysis	Strengths and weaknesses Psychological Functional Economic
Cheng and Taylor (2007)	Almaty (Kazakhstan)	Qualitative focus groups interviews	Greenness Cultural and ethnic diversity ArchitectureHistorical places Leisure time activities
Merrilees *et al.* (2009)	Gold Coast (Australia)	Exploratory factor analysis Multiple regression analysis	Nature Business creativity Shopping Brand (reputation) Intentions Transport Cultural activities Government services Social bonding
Parkerson and Saunders (2004)	Birmingham (UK)	Case study Semi-structured qualitative interviews Quantitative survey	Tangible elements (e.g. culture, history, nightlife, shopping, infrastructure, housing and business)

(*continued*)

Source	Research object	Method	Brand dimensions/elements
			Intangible elements (e.g. personality and emotional aspects)
Prayag (2010a)	Cape Town (South-Africa)	In-depth qualitative interviews Semi-structured questionnaire	Top of minds associations Cognitive images Affective images Holistic images
Prayag (2010b)	Cape Town (South Africa)	Semi-structured questionnaire Exploratory factor analysis	Facilitators Augmented tourism product Activities and entertainment Climate and scenery Cultural and natural attractions Novelty and image of place
Trueman *et al.* (2007)	Bradford (UK)	Survey with open and closed questions	Positive assets (e.g. environment, location, architecture, people and infrastructure) Negative assets (e.g. cleanliness, crime and facilities)
Vaidya *et al.* (2009)	Surat and Ahmedabad (India)	Quantitative questionnaire with additional Qualitative open-end questions	Brand personality Culture/lifestyle People Place and infrastructure Traffic system/ transportation Employment and business
Vanolo (2008)	Turin (Italy)	Case study	Buzz Art Diversity Nightlife Public spaces Higher education
Wagner and Peters (2009)	Ischgl and Serfaus-Fiss-Ladis (Austria)	Qualitative collage technique	Colour Emotion Picture
Zenker *et al.* (2009)	15 German cities	Conjoint analysis	Urbanity and diversity Nature and recreation Job chances Cost efficiency
Zenker *et al.* (2010)	Hamburg (Germany)	Brand concept map method	Top of minds associations

APPENDIX E

Sample letter – invitation to participate in the study

Date

Dear Participant,

I am currently studying at the University of Salford for a PhD qualification and undertaking research on place branding for my dissertation. I am particularly interested in how place brand can be evaluated. I am interviewing various groups of stakeholders including people who never visited Manchester and I would like to use this opportunity to invite you to take part in this research and answer some questions in relation to Manchester and its brand.

The purpose of my study is to gather perceptions of general public on Manchester brand and compare them with the existing branding initiatives and views of those directly responsible for the city brand. This research will provide valuable insights into place branding as well as its evaluation.

Presently, I am in the process of gathering data from client side/ brand representatives/ those involved in the latest branding initiative for Manchester as part of my data collection and hope for your assistance. Your answers will be compared with perceptions of people (residents, visitors, etc.).

I would like to assure you that this is anonymous study, all the responses will be treated as strictly confidential; no names or personal information will be disclosed to third parties and all the data collected for this study will not provide any personal information.

I will be very grateful for your help and participation in this study.

Yours Sincerely,

Jolanta Ruzinskaite
PhD Candidate
School of the Built and Human Environment
University of Salford

APPENDIX F

Interview questionnaire

I. Background information

1. What is your role in this organisation?
2. What is your role in Manchester brand? How are you involved in the latest branding initiative for Manchester?

II. Vision for Manchester

1. How do you describe Manchester?
2. What does Manchester try to achieve?
3. What does represent Manchester best?
4. What is vision for Manchester? Has it been achieved?
5. What are the values?
6. What long-term strategies have you got to achieve with this vision?
7. Who are the stakeholders? (e. g., perception, position, people, needs)
8. What is the target market? Who is this vision targeted at?
9. Nesta report (Kestenbaum, 2009) suggests that focus in Manchester should shift from buildings and infrastructure to people and culture, developing home-grown talent, improving education, supporting families, etc... How do you address these issues?

III. Manchester brand

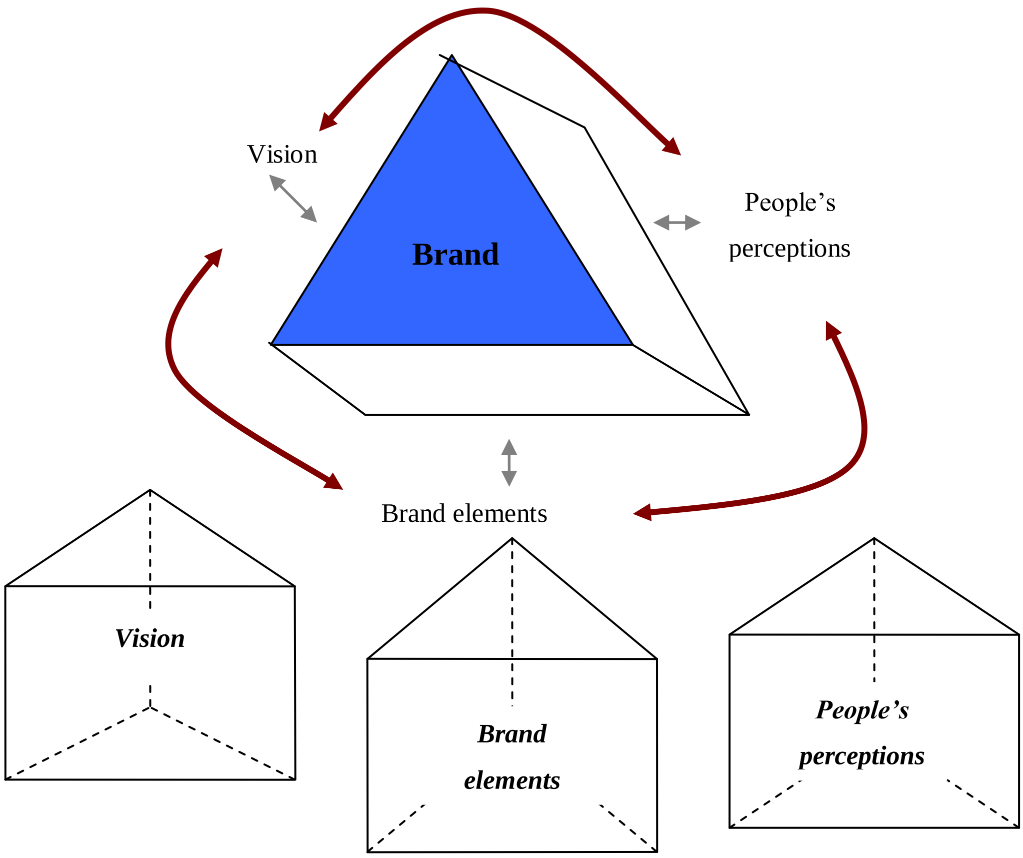
1. What is Manchester's brand? What for (for what reason) it was chosen?
2. Why Manchester needs campaign "original modern"? Does it represent any values?
3. Why the multicoloured "M"?
4. Do colours of "M" have any meaning?
5. Does the graphic representation reflect values of the city?

III. Brand evaluation and framework

1. From you experience, is it important to evaluate the place brand?
2. Have you looked at previous Manchester/other places logos and analysed their weaknesses?
3. Were any models or frameworks used in the analysis?

4. You say that Manchester has no logo or slogan. Is this the outcome of the analysis of the previous logos and their weaknesses?
5. Have you looked at people’s perceptions?
6. Have you tried evaluating the success of the current Manchester brand?
7. I have developed a framework for brand evaluation. Do you think the proposed framework would be useful in the evaluation of place brand (in general) (brand components can be amended to suit any place)? Is it valid as a tool for understanding the performance of the place brand?
8. Would this framework be useful in the evaluation of Manchester brand?
9. Looking at the framework, are the factors in the framework applicable to Manchester?
10. Is there anything missing in this framework?

Thank you



- Future
- Purpose
- Values

- Vision
- Mission
- Heritage and culture
- People and values
- Philosophy
- Country of origin/ reputation/credibility of brand (destination) name, tourism quality
- Uniqueness

- **Visual triggers:**
  - Symbol - Slogan
  - Logo - Name
- **Potential functional attributes:**
  - Urban residential services
  - Social services and relations (interpersonal relationships)
  - Museums, art galleries, theatres, concert halls and other cultural services
  - Leisure and sports activities and facilities
  - Conference and exhibition facilities
  - Natural environment, public spaces and recreational services
  - Hotels, restaurants, night clubs and entertainment
  - Architecture and quality of the built environment
  - Transport infrastructure and access
  - Hygiene facilities (car parks, toilets, baby-changing facilities, street cleaning, etc.)
  - Vibrancy (business vibrancy including growth of jobs)
- **Potential symbolic attributes:**
  - Place symbolisms, souvenirs and handicraft
  - The character of the local residents
  - The profile of typical visitors (age, income, interests and values)
  - Descriptors of the quality of service provided
- **Potential experiential attributes:**
  - How the city make residents/ visitors feel (relaxed, excited, fascinated, etc.)

For example:

- Visitors, workers etc??? Of different sex, religion...
- Etc.

- Descriptors of the built environment (historic, modern, green, spacious, etc.)
- Descriptors related to security and safety
- Quality of life
- The physical characteristics of air
- Sound, smell and taste
- Colours
- Relationships/ interactions
- **Other:**
  - Benefits
  - Personality
  - Users
  - Patents
  - Trademarks

APPENDIX G

Workshop/ survey questionnaire

Manchester Brand

Thank you for very much for agreeing to answer some questions about Manchester and its brand which is the subject of research project, I am just completing PhD at the University of Salford. I am trying to find out how city of Manchester and its brand is perceived by various groups of people. I would like to ask you some questions and get your thoughts on this. I would appreciate your own opinion.

I would like to assure you that this is anonymous survey, all the responses will be treated as strictly confidential; no names or personal information will be disclosed to third parties and all the data collected for this study will not provide any personal information.

I. BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Questions in this section are for statistical purposes and to ensure that I have a representative sample.

1. Would you please tell me whether you:

- Live/ work in Manchester (go to Q4)
- Visit Manchester (go to Q4)
- Have never visited Manchester (go to Q3)

3. Have you ever heard of Manchester?

Yes No

4. Are you:

- Employed
- Unemployed
- Student

5. What is your occupation?

6. What is your sex:

- o Female
- o Male

7. Which of the following age groups do you fit in to:

- o Under 30
- o 30 to 60
- o Above 60

Awareness of place branding

1. **Thinking generally, do you think branding is important for places and why?**
2. **In your opinion, what forms a brand for the place?**
3. **Do you think that residents should also be involved/ consulted in creating place's brand and have their say? Please comment your answer.**

II. PERCEPTIONS OF MANCHESTER

1. **What do you think of Manchester/ how would you describe Manchester? What has shaped and informed these perceptions?**

2. **In your opinion, what does represent Manchester best?**

3. **How do you think, what vision for Manchester is/ what does Manchester try to achieve?**

   The vision for Manchester is that by 2020, the city region will have pioneered a new model for sustainable economic growth based around a more connected, talented and greener city region, where all our residents are able to contribute to and benefit from sustained prosperity and a good quality of life. **Would you agree that this vision encompasses your expectations/ needs?**

4. **In your opinion, what values of Manchester this vision portrays?**

III. MANCHESTER BRAND

In 2004 Peter Saville was commissioned by the Manchester City Council to come up with an idea of marketing Manchester to the world and he devised the concept "original modern" which acts as a vision/ ethos and the strategic promotional strategy for Manchester and introduced the signifier M for the city. Manchester does not have logo or slogan.

1. It is claimed that Manchester is the brand. **Are you aware of it/ do you agree with such a brand concept?**

Original Modern

2. It is claimed that „Original Modern" is both Manchester identity and the brand vision. **Do you agree with this statement?**

3. **Why do you think concept "Original Modern" was chosen as a promotional strategy/ vision for Manchester?**

4. **How would you explain concept "Original Modern"?**

5. **Would you agree that the brand vision "Original Modern" supports the vision for Manchester? Please explain.**

6. **In your opinion, what values of the city does brand vision "Original Modern" portray?**

Multicoloured "M"

The multicoloured 'M' is Manchester's brand signifier, not the formal logo and it is used for national and international communications.

7. **Do you think colours of „M" have any meaning?**

8. **In your opinion, does the graphic representation reflect values of the city?**

9. Currently Manchester has no logo or slogan. **Do you think Manchester needs a world famous logo and slogan? Would you agree concept "Original Modern" is used as the official slogan and multicoloured "M" is used as the official logo for Manchester?**

IV. FRAMEWORK

The literature reviews and empirical findings accumulated the need for analysis of branding initiatives and the need for an evaluative framework for place branding. I have developed a framework for brand evaluation (page 4) demonstrating the complexity of brand elements with three constituent components which are vision, brand elements and people's perceptions. In essence, this framework is designed to measure the performance of a place brand and it also enables brand authors/ clients/ designers/ Destination Marketing Organisation to check whether the brand vision coincides with the opinion of the public. At this stage, my aim is to assess the effectiveness of Manchester brand by applying this framework.

1. **Do you think the proposed framework would be useful in the evaluation of place brand?**

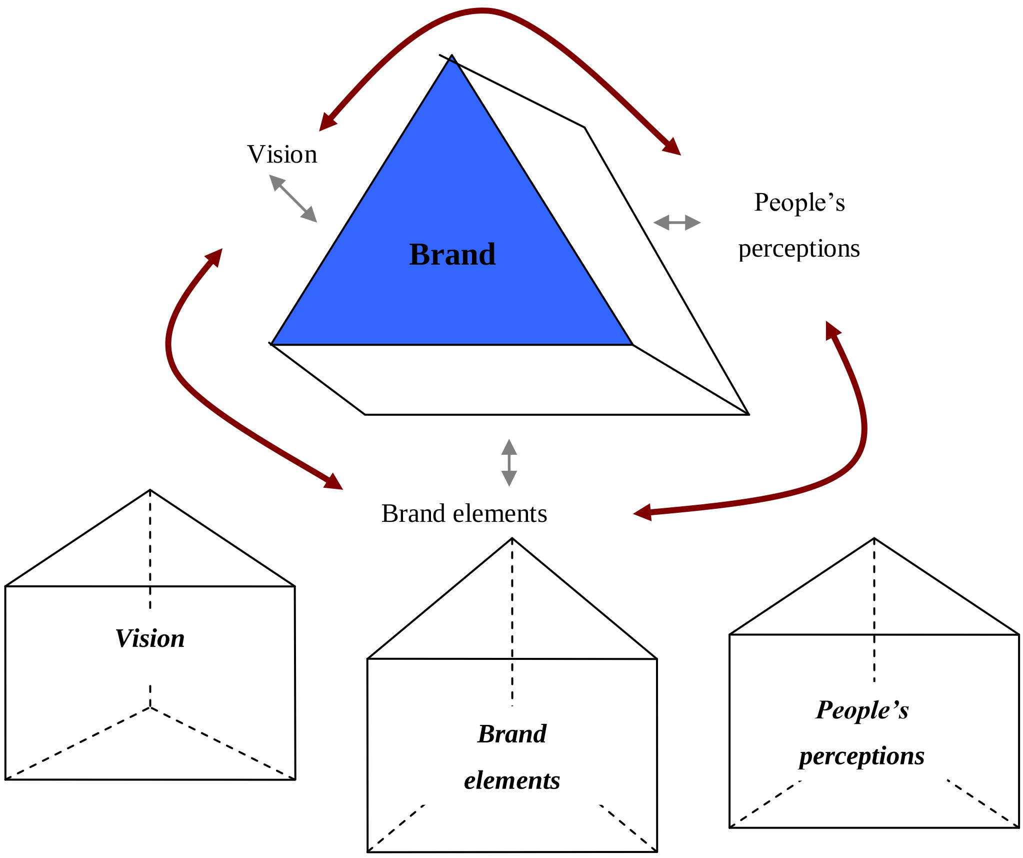
2. **Looking at the framework, does Manchester brand cover any of the elements from this framework?**
3. **Does this framework encompass your needs/ expectations?**

4. **Is there anything missing in this framework?**

THE END

Thank you so much for your time and opinion. If you have any other comments about Manchester and its branding please write them below.

Thank you



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- **Other:**
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APPENDIX H

Corrections

Chapter 1	
Please observe consistency in using the terms “Place branding” and “City Branding” throughout the thesis (Place + city branding? P18 change, so do not here interchangeably)	Done – p18
Update Table 1-1. Theoretical position should be redefined clearly. What does the theory say about place branding evaluations? What is it that you are investigating? – pg 20	Done – p20
Please confirm the scope of the study. Since Manchester is used as a case study only, please remove “Manchester” from the overall scope of the study (in Aim and other places where Manchester has been used to hint the scope)	Done – p27, etc.
Update aim and objectives. The objectives should lead to the achievement of the aim and should be SMART	Done – p28
Add a table / diagram highlighting the links between each of the objectives and what research methods have been used to achieve each of the objectives	Done – p29 (Figure 1.1)
Explain the theoretical contribution to your knowledge in a paragraph (Why need for brand evaluation? Beneficiaries → Contribution to theory What gaps exist in place branding that need to be looked at? P21 Research need – write one paragraph on justification + contribution to knowledge + theory + beneficiaries)	Done – p26
Chapter 2	
Change the title in page 33, 44 to remove the word “definition” and a more representative title (P 33/34 are they all definitions of Manchester? Change heading to “terms”)	Done – changed to “common terms” p35
Chapter 3	
Add a paragraph to discuss suitability and issues of considering place branding to be in-line with product branding (Compare place + product branding. What are advantages + disadvantages of doing so? Can it be used for product branding?)	Done – p103

Image 3.1 on page 75, adjust for the margin. – pg 75 (P75 3.1 amend diagram + quality of some images + figures → improve)	Done – p76
Chapter 4	
Add a paragraph to justify the suitability of single case study for the given study. Use authoritative references (e.g. Yin) to improve the validity of your arguments in this regard (Single case study + generalisability? How reliable results? P165 Use Yin – map your work to this (one case) + why chosen Manchester P149 Table of Manchester!!! 1st sentence check and amend)	Done - p168 Done – p151
Clarify and justify how each of the approaches (interviews, survey and the workshops) fit and contribute to the research results (How survey, interview, workshops affected/ contributed to research results? could you have achieved outcome without these results?)	Done – 170
Figure 4-1 – Redraw for clarity (Show how achieve)	Done – p161
Figure 4-2 – Redraw for clarity – pg 174	Done – p177
Chapter 5	
Definition of a Framework – Use a better source – pg 180	Done – p183
Differentiate between a framework and a model (What is difference between model/ framework? Clarify in thesis model + framework especially since literature says models)	Done – p183
As the three facets of the proposed framework are based on literature review (Pg 181), please put a table highlighting the sources for each of the facets to highlight the significance of each of the facets given in the literature (P181 How determine 3 facets of framework? More explanation. Directly reference as common theme themes for these 3 Add paragraph on how + why P180 last sentence → say what literature!!! Not people's perceptions "mostly from literature" – be precise)	Done – p185 (Table 5.1)
Explain all the texts (variables, facets, etc.) related to framework presented in page 199. Explain how the framework is to be used	Done: Elements –

by intended users for place branding evaluations in their own contexts (P199 table of sources/ references for each element Check all sub elements discussed in framework + Guidance of framework use? can elements be used for others? 1) clarify as for Manchester 2) clarify as general + offer guidelines)	p193 and p198 Table of sources/ references - p203 (Table 5.3) Guidance for framework use – p207
Chapter 6	
Justify how did you decided that one interview is sufficient in a paragraph and explain how did you negate his/ her biasness? – pg 208 (P 208 Impact of interviews on outcome Bias? Where mention document review for Manchester? P208 Make more positive. Purpose →to strengthen Knowledge from literature. Why go ahead with one interview Paragraph to justify the need + value in (P210)) Why number of people? 30 too little? Selected (samplify → justification) not random (criteria, how)	Done – p216 Criteria – p218
Chapter 7	
Figure 7-1 Redraw for clarity – pg 265	Done – now p274
Figure 7-2 Redraw for clarity – pg 268	Done – now p277