RESIDENT ATTITUDES, PLACE ATTACHMENT AND DESTINATION BRANDING: A RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

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Abstract
Purpose – This paper aims to propose a new line of research that explores the relationship between residents and destination brand building behaviours through the concept of place attachment.

Design and methodology – We conducted a literature review on place attachment and brand building behaviour, and focused more specifically on place identity as an accumulation based dimension of place attachment and word-of-mouth as a behavioural outcome.

Approach – With the emergence of new technologies, tourism managers no longer have a complete control over the development of destination brand, since various communication tools enable for residents to engage in the destination branding process. This calls for rethinking the role of residents in destination branding and the necessity to explore various place attachment dimensions and their outcomes.

Findings – This study proposes a conceptual framework to understand the role of residents in the construction of the image of their place of residence as a tourism destination. Within this framework, we suggested that place satisfaction may affect residents’ internalisation process, contributing to residents’ behavioural output process, resulting in positive word-of-mouth, participation in tourism activities, and demonstration of destination ambassador behaviour.

Originality – Despite the wide interest of researchers in human-place relationship, few studies have focused on residents’ place attachment and its outcomes. This framework suggests that it is important to understanding how residents form place attachment; how they perceive their place of residence as a tourism destination, and what they communicate in order to create positive destination image and strong destination brand.

Keywords: Local residents, place attachment, self-congruity, destination branding, brand building behaviours, WOM

INTRODUCTION

In general, a destination is more than just a geographical unit, and, as such, is subject to people’s judgement and evaluation (Jančič 1999). The latter has been studied in the form of numerous concepts, e.g. sense of place, place attachment, topophilia, insidedness, and community sentiment (Low and Altman 1992), which have been defined differently in various disciplines (Cross 2001) (the review of the disciplines is available in the Appendix). Discussions on this complex human-place relationship consist of two perspectives: (1) relationship to place refers to the different ways that people relate to places, or the types of bonds people can have with a place; (2) place attachment, on the other hand, refers to the depth and types of attachments to one
particular place (Chen, Dwyer and Firth 2014a). Relationship to place is usually created instantaneously and often impossible to alter (e.g. one cannot change his/her birth place), while degree of place attachment is subject to change and may be affected by factors such as satisfaction, length of residence, events, expectation, etc. Moreover, tourism studies focused its attention on the relationship between place identity (as a dimension of place attachment) and destination visitors, suggesting that a fit between one’s self-image and destination image would result in various positive behavioural outcomes (e.g. willingness to visit, intention to recommend etc.) (Sirgy and Su 2000). However, this has been neglected within the tourism studies in relation to local residents.

On the other hand, the emergence of new technologies (i.e. internet) has facilitated residents’ empowerment in destination branding. Nowadays, residents’ advocacy of a destination is not limited to their family and friends, but is available to the wider public through various communication channels (such as travel forums, social media, travel websites etc.) that encourage tourism service participation and word-of-mouth (WOM). The latter is becoming the most powerful form of marketing in the new information age (Simpson and Siguaw 2008). In this context, tourism managers should take more notice of the role of residents in the destination branding process, since they do not have a total control over its outcomes.

This calls for rethinking the role of residents in destination branding and the necessity to explore various place attachment dimensions and their outcomes. In this sense, understanding how residents form place attachment, how they perceive their place of residence as a tourism destination and what they communicate may be useful in creation of positive destination image and strong destination brand. In addition, tourism managers should take into account that residents are also patrons of destinations, regardless of destination representing their place of residence, since by using destination resources they express in- and extra-role brand-building behaviours. Those may be considered a valuable asset in the portrayal of genuine and honest destination promises.

These arguments justify the objective of this paper, which is to propose a new research framework that relates to the role of residents in the process of destination branding, with an emphasis on the concept of place attachment.

Therefore, this study centres the variable aspect of sense of place, place attachment, as the construct to indicate human-place relationship, explores its antecedents and examines its consequences. After this brief introduction, a literature review of the two main concepts – place attachment and brand building behaviours – is presented in the next section. The third section proposes a new research framework on the role of residents in destination branding. The final section concludes with the main contribution of this study.
1. LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1. Place Attachment

Chen, Dwyer, and Firth (2014a) reviewed two streams of place attachment research and developed a six-dimension construct. The two streams distinguish between: (1) accumulation based dimensions (from environmental psychology) that consider place attachment as an outcome of an individual’s evaluation and attitude towards a place based on his/her knowledge of this particular place accumulatively; and (2) interactional dimensions (research in interaction) that ascribe the bond formed by an individual with a place via the meaning given to the place through experiences and expectations.

In environmental psychology realm, a number of dimensions are proposed in different studies (e.g. in Figure 1), of which, place identity as the outcome of the identification process between the self and the place is the basis of the conceptual development of place attachment.

Figure 1: Dimensions of place attachment studied in environmental psychology

![Diagram of dimensions of place attachment](source: compiled by the authors, sources identified within the figure)

Place identity is defined as “those dimensions of self that define the individual’s personal identity in relation to the physical environment by means of a complex pattern of conscious and unconscious ideals, beliefs, preferences, feelings, values, goals, and behavioural tendencies and skills relevant to this environment” (Proshansky 1978, cited in Kyle, Graefe and Manning 2005). For this definition, place identity is part of individual social identity, which is “a substructure of a more global self-identification in the same way that one might consider gender identity and role identity” (Jorgensen and Stedman 2001, p. 234).
Place identity is formed through a complex process. Using Breakwell’s model, Twigger-Ross and Uzzell (1996) suggest four principles of place identity: continuity, self-esteem, self-efficacy, and distinctiveness. A resident from a specific place (such as a city or town) has an association with this place, and this bond enables the resident to differentiate himself/herself from people from other places, i.e. distinctiveness or uniqueness (Twigger-Ross and Uzzell 1996). Eyles (1968, cited in Twigger-Ross and Uzzell 1996) in his research finds that people who live in a location tend to create an identification to which certain attributes are ascribed. Recent research indicates that people use place identification to differentiate themselves from others, and place functions in a similar way to a social category.

The principle of continuity is evident. This refers to the continuous needs of a person to maintain his/her identity over time (Twigger-Ross and Uzzell 1996). In addition, place continuity can be categorized into two distinct types of self-environment relationship which focus on the maintenance and development of the continuity: place-referent continuity (Csikszentmihalyi and Rochberg-Halton 1981; Graumann 1983; Korpela 1989; Giuliani 1991; Lalli 1992) and place-congruent continuity (Twigger-Ross and Uzzell 1996). Accordingly, a place can act as a referent to a person’s past self and actions; and a person may seek a place which he/she feel to be congruent with his/her settlement identification. Self-esteem refers to the idea that the identification should achieve a positive evaluation of one’s identity. This positive evaluation of oneself has been regarded as a central motive in social identity research (e.g. Gecas 1982). For instance, a person can feel a sense of pride by association through living in an historic place (Lalli 1992). Self-efficacy, developed within the framework of social learning theory (Bandura 1977), is used to regard people’s need for capabilities to meet situational demands. Twigger-Ross and Uzzell (1996) suggest that to achieve a high self-efficacy, residents should be able to “organize information from their immediate socio-physical environment in such a way that they can develop a predicative system that allows them to judge whether a setting supports their goals and purposes” (Winkel 1981, cited in Twigger-Ross and Uzzell 1996), i.e. the environment is manageable. Therefore, the extent to which the environment is manageable can influence the level of a resident’s level of self-efficacy, and further influence his/her level of place identity. In addition, place identity penetrates all levels of self-identity defining how a place establishes an inner relationship with a person from self-definition, to values, goals, beliefs (Ashforth, Harrison and Corley 2008), and then to behaviours.

In addition to the place identity as a dimension of place attachment, self-congruity theory has been widely used in marketing studies to explain and predict one’s behaviour (Erickson 1997; Sirgy, Lee, Johar and Tidwell 2008, Liu, Li, Mizerski and Soh 2012). It was also been applied to tourism studies in order to explain tourist destination choice (Chon 1992; Sirgy and Su 2000; Ekinci and Hosany 2006; Usakli and Baloglu 2011; Ahn, Ekinci and Li 2013). The latter showed that individuals form a match between their self-image and destination image (or image of a typical visitor of a destination), which influences their behaviour (intention to visit, intention to recommend, loyalty etc.). Placing a focus on destination visitors, the literature does not inform on the self-congruity effect among local residents, who also play a very important role in shaping destination image through place promotion (Chen, Dwyer and Firth, 2014b). In this sense, residents are considered to be tourists, who regularly
use destination resources and also portray tourists’ behaviour in their place of residence.

As for the other accumulation based dimensions of place attachment, place dependence, social bonding, and affective attachment reflect the conative, social, and affective aspects (Kyle, Graefe and Manning 2005; Schreyer, Jacob and White 1981; Williams and Roggenbuck 1989; Yuksel, Yuksel and Bilim 2010). Previous research has found effects of these dimensions on specific behaviours related to the place such as retention and word-of-mouth intention (Chen, Dwyer and Firth 2014b; Chen, Dwyer and Firth 2015).

Attitudinal attachment is often formed long term. Nevertheless specific circumstances may lead to strong attachment within a limited period of time. To address this in the dimensionality of place attachment, Chen, Dwyer and Firth (2014a) proposed another two dimensions to capture the attachment formed on a short-term experience or long-term expectation: place memory and place expectation. Place memory is the retrieved memory reflecting attachment to a place, and place expectation is the reflected expectation of future experiences in a place.

1.2. Brand Building Behaviours

In the context of tourism, residents can be considered a destination’s internal consumers, while residents can take some employees’ role in the destination branding. Tourist destinations would benefit if residents and experienced tourists serve as goodwill ambassadors, advocating the destinations to their friends and families (Simpson and Siguaw 2008), which is similar to points of view of internal brand building behaviours, considering employees as brand ambassadors who transform brand vision into brand reality (VanAuken 2003; Berry, 2000). Morhart, Herzog and Tomczak (2009) indicate that internal brand-building behaviours can be classified into three categories: retention, in-role brand-building behaviour, and extra-role brand-building behaviour.

Retention, which refers to “employees’ upholding their professional relationship with the corporate brand” (Morhart, Herzog and Tomczak 2009), can be extended to residents’ upholding their residing relationship with the target destination in the context of tourism. In-role brand-building behaviour, in the context of tourism destination, refers to residents’ role as destination brand representatives (Chen and Dwyer 2010). It is crucial that representatives perceive the destination brand consistently with how the destination conveys itself through public messages and marketing communications. Extra-role brand-building behaviour refers to employee actions that are discretionary and generated individually by the employees themselves (Morhart, Herzog and Tomczak, 2009). In the context of tourism destination, extra-role destination brand-building behaviour can be categorised as tourism service participation and word-of-mouth (WOM). The latter is becoming increasingly important not limited in the context of tourism, because positive WOM is becoming the most powerful form of marketing in the new information age (Simpson and Siguaw 2008). It is as well advocated that WOM is more credible because the generator is not seen as having direct profit in selling the recommended product or service (Herr, Kardes and Kim 1991; Murray
1991; Silverman 2001). In addition, WOM is particularly important in a service context
as tourism, because services are intangible and difficult to evaluate before purchase
(Mazzarol, Sweeney and Soutar 2007).

2. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK DEVELOPMENT

One aim of the present paper is to explore the psychological mechanisms by which
place satisfaction and place attachment may influence residents’ destination brand
building behaviours. The central constructs of the proposed model are elaborated based
on the in-depth literature review. The primary question of interest is the psychological
mechanism how residents form their destination brand building behaviours. The basic
conceptual model and relevant hypotheses are proposed in this section. The conceptual
framework integrates several different streams of literature, including brand equity
theory, social identity theory, and brand-building theory (shown in Figure 2).

Figure 2: Overview of relevant theories and connections

![Conceptual Model](source:prepared by the authors)

Most research on branding tends to construct a multiple-step conceptual model. For
instance, Morhart, Herzog and Tomczak (2009) propose a four-step conceptual model
to interpret two processes of brand leadership resulting in brand building behaviours;
Funk and James (2001; 2006) construct a four-stage psychological continuum model to
synthesize a diverse body of literature about consumers’ psychological connection with
a brand; Pike (2005; 2007; 2009) proposes a four-stage conceptual model of consumer-
based brand equity for destinations to provide benchmarks at the commencement of a
new destination brand campaign; Miles and Mangold (2004) develop a four-step
employee branding process to describe a feedback loop through which managers can
monitor the process; etc. Almost all the multiple-stage models are consistent with the
basic construct of brand equity (Aaker 1996), as well as psychological dynamics (Funk
and James 2001; 2006). Accordingly, the conceptual model of this study is proposed in
Figure 3, integrating a three-stage destination brand building behaviour formation
process.
2.1. Residents’ Internalisation Process

The concept of consumer satisfaction occupies a central position in marketing, which is a major outcome of marketing activity and links to post purchase activities such as attitude change, repeat purchase, and brand loyalty (Churchill and Surprenant 1982). According to Churchill and Surprenant (1982), consumer satisfaction is defined as “an outcome of purchase and use resulting from the buyer’s comparison of the rewards and costs of the purchase in relation to the anticipated consequences”. On the other hand, in psychology, Shin and Johnson (1978) define life satisfaction as “a global assessment of a person’s quality of life according to his chosen criteria” (cited in Diener, Emmons,
Larsen and Griffin 1985). In contrast, consumer satisfaction focuses on an individual’s subjective evaluation with material possessions over the entire product or service lifecycle, while life satisfaction emphasizes the effectiveness of circumstances and life experience. Satisfaction to places, based on the discussion, cannot be simply drawn equal to either consumer satisfaction or life satisfaction. Accordingly, place satisfaction can be defined as residents’ subjective evaluation of benefits across the rich bundle of goods and services during the residential “life cycle” in the particular place, including public service, community experience, and so on. As indicated by Low and Altman (1992), physical space is called as a place when “personal, group, or cultural processes have been given meaning through it” (cited in Insch and Florek 2008). Place satisfaction depends on social and physical resources within residential environments and can result in residents’ attachment, which is indicated as loyalty in marketing terminology (Insch and Florek 2008), to the place (Shumaker and Taylor 1983). Thus we propose the following proposition to be studied in the further research:

**Proposition 1**: Greater place satisfaction leads to more residents’ attachment to the place.

### 2.2. Residents’ Behavioural Output Process

In the context of tourism, it is appropriate to use customer loyalty to measure consequences of satisfaction for tourism products. However, as to a destination level, customer loyalty is not a sufficient construct as place attachment, since residents/tourists’ experience in the target destination does not involve only the tourism product purchase, but also the interaction and generated bonding between residents/tourists and the place. Similarly indicated as customer loyalty which can lead to customers brand building behaviours, dimensions of place attachment are proposed and found to affect different customer brand building behaviours in the tourism destination context (Chen, Dwyer and Firth 2014b; 2015). The following relationships come from the model (Fig. 3), but need to be further tested by researchers:

**Proposition 2**: Place attachment encourages residents’ positive word of mouth.

**Proposition 3**: Place attachment encourages residents’ participation in tourism activities.

**Proposition 4**: Place attachment encourages residents’ destination ambassador behaviour.

**Proposition 5**: Place attachment encourages residents’ retention to the destination.

### 2.3. The mediating role of self-congruity

Self-congruity is defined as a match/mismatch between destination image (i.e. image of a typical visitor of a destination) and one’s self-image. In the context of this study, destination image is not limited to a portrayal of a typical visitor of a destination, but it refers to the place identity as a dimension of place attachment that is relevant for the formation of destination image among its residents.
Because there are at least four different types of self-congruity (actual, ideal, social and ideal social) (Sirgy and Su 2000), the propositions of this research framework should follow the four corresponding types of self-congruity. In the context of this study, actual self-congruity refers to the degree of match between a resident’s actual self-image and destination image, or the fit between how residents actually see themselves in relation to the image of their place of residence. Ideal self-congruity denotes the degree of match between a resident’s ideal self-image (how residents would like to see themselves) and the image of their place of residence. Social self-congruity refers to a fit between how residents believe they are seen by others in relation to the destination patron image. And lastly, ideal social self-congruity refers to the degree of match between how residents would like to be seen by others and image of their place of residence.

In the majority of studies on destination image, the outcome of tourists’ behaviour relates to the revisit intentions (Petrick, Morais and Norman 2001; Petrick 2004, Gartner and Ruzzier 2011; McKercher and Basak 2011; Assaker and Hallak 2013; Xie and Lee 2013), and very often WOM is incorporated within this outcome, instead of being separated as a variable (Papadimitriou, Apostolopoulou and Kaplanidou 2014), since the research showed that WOM is affected by self-congruity (Hung and Petrick 2011; Hollenbeck and Kaikati 2012; Papadimitriou, Apostolopoulou and Kaplanidou 2014). Figure 4 displays some of the key relationships.

Figure 4: The mediating role of self-congruity on residents’ behavioural outcomes

The relationships in Figure 4 raise a number of research issues. Some of these relate to the following propositions (6-9):

**Proposition 6:** Actual self-congruity affects residents’ behaviour. That is, residents who experience a match between place identity and their actual self-image will be motivated to recommend their place of residence as a tourist destination.
Proposition 7: Ideal self-congruity affects residents’ behaviour. That is, residents who experience a match between place identity and their ideal self-image will be motivated to recommend their place of residence as a tourist destination.

Proposition 8: Social self-congruity affects residents’ behaviour. That is, residents who experience a match between place identity and their social self-image will be motivated to recommend their place of residence as a tourist destination.

Proposition 9: Ideal social self-congruity affects residents’ behaviour. That is, residents who experience a match between place identity and their ideal social self-image will be motivated to recommend their place of residence as a tourist destination.

CONCLUSION

The main objective of this study was to justify the need for new research framework that relates to the role of residents in the process of destination branding, with an emphasis on the concept of place attachment. To do so, we provided a general literature review on place attachment and brand building behaviour, and focused more specifically on place identity as an accumulation based dimension of place attachment and word-of-mouth as a behavioural outcome. This literature review shows that despite the wide interest in human-place relationship, few studies have focused on residents’ place attachment and its outcomes. And more, that self-congruity theory, focusing on the fit between one’s self-image and place identity, has been neglected within tourism studies in relation to local residents.

Having identified this gap, we proposed a conceptual framework to understand the role of residents in the construction of the image of their place of residence as a tourism destination. Within this framework, we highlighted nine relationships between the concepts that inform on the hypotheses for further research by theorists. In this sense, we suggested that place satisfaction, as an antecedent of place attachment, may affect residents’ internalisation process, contributing therefore to residents’ behavioural output process, and thus resulting in positive word-of-mouth, participation in tourism activities, and demonstration of destination ambassador behaviour. In addition, we suggest that residents’ willingness to recommend their place of residence as a tourism destination will depend on the match between place identity and their self-image, because if they experience a positive match, they will more likely be encouraged into positive word-of-mouth.

Overall, with the emergence of new technologies, tourism managers no longer have complete control over the development of destination brand, since various world-wide-web communication tools (i.e. forums, travel sites, social media) enable for tourists and residents to participate in the destination branding process. This calls for rethinking the role of residents in destination branding and the necessity to explore various place attachment dimensions and their outcomes. In this sense, understanding how residents form place attachment, how they perceive their place of residence as a tourism destination and what they communicate may be useful in creation of positive
destination image and strong destination brand. In addition, tourism managers should take into account that residents are also patrons of destinations, regardless of destination representing their place of residence, since by using destination resources they express in- and extra-role brand-building behaviours. Those may be considered a valuable asset in the portrayal of genuine and honest destination promises.

Thus, it would be very interesting to embark on this research journey by focusing on the countries of South-Eastern Europe that have experienced a change in country’s identity since the 1990’s. In addition, tourism is one of the most important industries for these countries, directly contributing up to 13% of total GDP (i.e. for Croatia in 2014) (WTTC 2014). And each year, destination residents take on the role of destination hosts, who express their satisfaction with a place in a form of various behavioural outcomes that affect destination brand. Moreover, it would be interesting to explore whether residents consider their self-image when engaging in destination branding process through the word-of-mouth. In this sense, it would be of benefit to undertake research on their social media activity in terms of how they visually portray their place of residence and with what words its visual representation is accompanied. Finally, it would be of benefit for tourism managers and administrators to identify what dimensions of place attachment contribute the most to each of the three branding process outcomes—brand ambassador behaviour, resident’s participation in tourism activities, or retention—in order to consider the development of human-place relationship strategies, which may be important for promoting tourism with the help of residents.

REFERENCES


Appendix

Table 1: Different definitions of human-place relationship

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Discipline</th>
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<tr>
<td>the symbolic relationship formed by people giving culturally shared emotional/affective meanings to a particular space of piece of land that provides the basis for the individual’s and group’s understanding of and relation to the environment... is more than an emotional and cognitive experience, and includes cultural beliefs and practices that link people to place. (Low and Altman 1992)</td>
<td>Place Attachment</td>
<td>Anthropology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the particular experience of a person in a particular setting (feeling stimulated, excited, joyous, expansive, and so forth). (Steele 1981)</td>
<td>Sense of Place</td>
<td>Environmental Psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the combination of characteristics that gives some locations a special ‘feel’ or personality (such as a spirit of mystery or of identity with a person or group). (Steele 1981)</td>
<td>Spirit of Place</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the affective bond between people and place or setting. (Tuan 1974, 260)</td>
<td>Topophilia</td>
<td>Geography</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>something that we ourselves create in the course of time. It is the result of habit or custom... A sense of place is reinforced by what might be called a sense of recurring events. (Jackson 1994)</td>
<td>Sense of Place</td>
<td>Landscape/Architecture/History</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>people’s subjective perceptions of their environments and their more or less conscious feelings about those environments. (Hummon 1992)</td>
<td>Sense of Place</td>
<td>Sociology</td>
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Source: from Chen, Dwyer and Firth (2014a) and based on the summary by Cross (2001)

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