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The Role of Place Image in Business Location Decisions

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THE ROLE OF PLACE IMAGE IN BUSINESS LOCATION DECISIONS

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Dedication

This manuscript is for my family, for the city of Cleveland, and for those
in heaven polishing stars.

Acknowledgment

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THE ROLE OF PLACE IMAGE IN BUSINESS LOCATION DECISION

CANDICE MARIE CLOUSE

ABSTRACT

The location where businesses choose to locate or re-locate their businesses, also known as site selection, is an important policy matter for economic development practitioners and academics since significant amount of resources are spent in this area. As places spend a great deal of public dollars marketing their city, region, and state to potential investors and businesses, private sector dollars from business invest a significant amount on land, labor, and capital to get these new facilities and sites up and running. To date, most of the literature as it relates to place image and business site selection decisions examine traditional factors related to the decision-making process. This dissertation presents exploratory research which for the first time summarizes this multi-disciplinary literature and deconstructs its five components into: brand, visual image, reputation, sense of place, and identity. Beyond this, this research continues to open the scholarly conversation on how locations are advertised and sold and how this marketing can affect where businesses locate their headquarters. Using a literature review, interviews, grounded theory, a survey of professionals in the field of site selection, and an analysis of the five components of place image using structural equation modeling, this research quantitatively investigates the association of place image on site selection of headquarters. In all, the analysis found that brand, visual image, and reputation have a positive effect on place image. And place image had a positive direct effect on site selection decision. Also, brand and reputation showed a stronger effect in east and west coast states, and reputation was more important for small and medium sized

companies and public companies. The measures for sense of place and identity were not found significant in the model. since place image is a complicated concept and hard to quantify. In the end, this research found that the concepts of place image are complicated, highly personal, and difficult to change. Through empirically linking place image components to headquarters site selection decision making this dissertation creates a valid argument for what economic development practitioners and academics have known but not been able to tangibly measure: that place image matters and it can influence the business of site selection.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The image of a place is important to the field of economic development as image has implications for investments made in cities. Place image incorporates thoughts, feelings, and pictures of what that place represents, which can be seen through concepts such as place brand, visual image, reputation, sense of place, and identity of the residents – all of which create an overall image of a place and can lead to investment or abandonment. Place image has ramifications for decisions made about the city, including where a business will locate (Smith, 2006). Place image is deeper than marketing and messaging; it is comprised of all the components of place that can make one place seem better or worse than its counterparts. This has massive consequences for cities that have a struggling image in the market.

Cities such as those across the industrial Midwest and parts of the Northeast of the United States have faced image problems because people external to those cities see them

as areas of economic decline located in the “Rust Belt.” These ideas and images taint cities and may have an impact on site selection choices that businesses make. Cities with poor place image lack the ability to command attention in the site selection market, and this reduces their competitive advantage. Although place image is rarely the driving factor of a business location decision, image does play a role when business leaders are faced with choosing between a list of potential cities that fulfill other basic criteria. Additionally, some research suggests that economically unsuccessful places have bad images. It is unclear in the literature which comes first, a poor economy or a poor image, but research has established a link between image and economic wellbeing (Comunian et al., 2010).

Cities, regions, and states develop marketing campaigns, in part, to highlight their locational advantages in efforts to woo businesses and industries. Such marketing efforts require the “sale” of a place’s image “to make it attractive to economic enterprises, to tourists and even to inhabitants of that place” (Philo & Kearns, 1993, p. 3). Marketing is one way to encourage economic growth through self-promotion and to “manufacture an environment that will secure the acceptance and even the affection of peoples who might otherwise rebel against it” (Philo & Kearns, 1993, p. 23). The selling of place makes one location stand out from its competition (Trejo, 2008; Avraham & Ketter, 2008). Practitioners argue that 71% of location decisions are based on image, and these decisions are, in fact, made based on emotions but rationalized with data (E. Burghard, personal communication, December 2, 2010).

The ability to attract and retain firms that complement the industrial makeup of a place and bring revenues, jobs, and payroll has become a focus of local and state policies.

The art of selling place image has become big business due to the economic declines and job losses many areas have faced (Fretter, 1993). For example, as many former manufacturing hubs in the Midwest struggle to attract “knowledge economy,” these regions have had to contend with an “image which frightened any potential investor” (Goodwin, 1993, p. 23). The literature contains many studies on location decision-making patterns of firms and, while the industries, locations, and techniques of the research vary, the common theme is *why* firms locate where they do and *how* to improve business attraction for places.

This dissertation presents exploratory research which for the first time summarizes this multi-disciplinary literature and deconstructs its five components into: brand, visual image, reputation, sense of place, and identity. Beyond this, this research continues to open the scholarly conversation on how locations are advertised and sold and how this marketing can affect where businesses locate their headquarters. This research aims to examine the role of place image in business site selection decision-making. Factors that have been studied include how business site selection is related to place amenities, the quality of place, and the reputation of place. None of the research to date has focused on the role of the different concepts surrounding place image in the business location decision process and this research examines the role of place image in the location decision. Chapter 2 presents a review of the literature surrounding the concepts of place image and business location decisions. The third chapter outlines the generation of the theory. The fourth chapter presents the methodology and data analysis. Chapter 5 details the results and the sixth chapter presents the discussion and concluding thoughts.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The concepts and terminology surrounding place image are mixed in both the academic literature and among practitioners. What one source calls “image,” another might call “identity,” and a third terms “brand” (Stock, 2009). This confusion is one of the major challenges for those researching this topic. Due to the confusion in the literature, there is a great need to clarify the terminology and begin to set research standards for how place image is described. The literature offers few empirical studies of this topic, instead relying mostly on case studies and anecdotal practitioner information (Dinnie, 2004; Fan, 2010).

A lack of definitional cohesion surrounding all aspects of image has been pervasive in the literature dating to Lynch (1960), with respect to concepts such as brand, image, reputation, stereotypes, sense of place, quality of place, identity, and quality of life. Gertner (2011) examined 212 articles in a meta-analysis of the place-marketing and place-branding literature between 1990 and 2009. He found that most articles were not in

business, management, marketing, or branding literature, but instead in the fields of public diplomacy, urban planning, geography, and political science. This perhaps reflects the lack of mutual coherence between disciplines. Most articles were essays or editorials of “doubtful scientific value,” with 144 articles based on personal opinions and secondary sources (Gertner, 2011, p. 96). Moreover, several articles discussed brand and image as interchangeable concepts. Only 16 articles reported statistics, a finding indicating that little progress had been made in building theoretical knowledge in the field (Gertner, 2011).

Brand

Promoting a city usually involves adopting a new tagline and logo. Taglines, such as *The Best Things in Life Are Here*, *Cleveland's a Plum* and even *Believe in Cleveland*, offer no information about a place and have a very short shelf-life. A brand is more than these taglines. Branding is the intended message of the place. Branding is often presented as half science and half art (Franzen & Moriarty, 2009). It is a complex bundle of images, meanings, associations, and experiences in the minds of people (Fan, 2010). A brand is the personality of a product, and that personality is how people associate with it (Aaker, 1997). Brand enables the place to differentiate itself from the competition; plan its future economic, human, social and cultural developments; retain and create new human capital; develop and capitalize on its cultural heritage, sports teams and attributes; attract major investment; and define or redefine the strengths upon which it can build (Allan, 2004). The brand is a complex bundle of what the place offers.

The marketing of cities in the United States grew out of a long history of what is termed “boosterism,” which dates to pioneer days. Boosterism was a way to encourage growth in lightly settled areas that needed more people to ensure their survival and success. Campaigns were aimed at luring potential residents, businesses, customers, and investors, as well as selling a sense of pride and civic awareness to those already living there to encourage them to stay (Anholt, 2010a; Ashworth & Voogd, 1990).

The modern concept of branding places grew out of the industrial revolution when companies were looking to identify themselves as makers of certain products (Morgan, et al, 2004). Following World War II, amateur boosterism began to turn professional, mirroring the work of product marketers (Anholt, 2010a). Cities started identifying with industries: Detroit the motor city, Pittsburgh the steel city. Beginning in the mid-1970s, the selling of places had begun to be big business (Fretter, 1993). The Midwest, for example, has long been associated with manufacturing.

By the mid-1970s, areas that had flourished in the “post-war Keynesian boom,” which was based on growth through the demand side, began to see decline. Goodwin (1993) contends that this decline led directly to a competitive battle among receding industrial hubs to increase their respective positions. Goodwin (1993) further argues that cities began pursuing efforts to polish their image and promote themselves to attract investment, build confidence, boost civic pride, and raise their profiles. These are the modern goals of branding.

Greenberg (2000) examined the history of urban lifestyle magazines as tools of city branding. Greenberg (2000) argues that place promoters, which he dubs “urban imaginers,” have been influencing perceptions of cities and communities through

guidebooks, reviews and orchestrated media coverage for 150 years or more. The way places are written about and presented in the popular press have long influenced how people perceive those places. Thus, cities and regions intent on shaping public perception have often sought to generate favorable presentation in the local and national news media, whether through promotional press releases, through advertising, or, frequently, by enlisting media outlets as partners in branding campaigns. New York Magazine was the launch site for the now much-imitated “I (heart) NY” campaign as it showed up in the shopping guide for the city in 1977 (Greenberg, 2000). The way places are advertised and written about in the media influences how people see places.

Branding is storytelling about a place that compels people to see it in a deliberately articulated way (Jensen, 2007). Branding can be defined as imaginative marketing supported by investment in key services and facilities required to deliver the experience (Hankinson, 2004). It has been argued that branding is not about developing a sales pitch or slogan but instead involves creating a place (Hankinson, 2004; On Three Communication Design Inc., 2008). Branding can be demonstrated through various means, including functional, symbolic, legal, strategic, differentiating, and ownership devices (Medway & Warnaby, 2008). Branding generates a set of expectations and images that highlight what a community should offer (Runyan & Huddleston, 2006).

A brand is the promise of value a place offers (Van Gelder, 2008). Branding, per Allan (2006), is about creating value for all who have stake in the reputation of a region: business owners and workers who provide products and services, but also customers who purchase such items. A brand may be reinforced by positive associations with companies located within a place’s boundary. For example, Cleveland’s reputation as a leader in

health care activity is due, in large part, to the presence of the world-renowned Cleveland Clinic. A brand also may serve as an organizing tool, shaping how products and services are created and brought to market, as well as uniting stakeholders around common values (Allan, 2006).

In his investigation of post-Katrina New Orleans, Gotham (2007) describes branding as a process of differentiation and diversification in that places build images to attract people and investment. He also notes that a place brand can extend beyond the place itself to brand other products, such as film, music, and culture, associated with it. A brand should reveal not only which locations place promoters want to be compared to but, maybe more importantly, which they do not (Jensen, 2005). Much of the current branding literature focuses on comparisons that highlight the standout features of individual places (Merrilees et al., 2009). Branding is important because it helps a place stand out from other locations, which is especially important as more places are competing for ever fewer investments (Trejo, 2008, & Avraham & Ketter, 2008). Branding involves defining what Avraham and Ketter (2008) call the “unique selling position”: Places must determine their unique character and endeavor to make public perception reflect that character (Avraham & Ketter, 2008). This uniqueness, as far it is known, is the brand.

However, crafting a single image of place is difficult. Studying changes in the way Brooklyn has been perceived over time, Parkerson (2007) noted “tremendous potential for mixed messages” in branding due to the numerous ways in which people gather information. Despite best efforts to keep messages about a place on brand, people will interpret them differently (MacKay & Fesenmaier, 1997). No two people have the

same experiences or knowledge; therefore, no two people will think about a single place the same way.

Levine (2002) stresses that places should not bet on the next big “silicon chip,” but instead build on their existing businesses. Places cannot afford to lose what they have just to chase the next big thing (Levine, 2002). Branding statements and positioning programs are extremely valuable but must be simple, strong, memorable, different, accurate and appeal to those inside the place as well as outsiders (Levine, 2002). He argues that places need to be realistic in their goals, but also start thinking outside of the box. For example, Detroit may have a legacy of automotive dominance, but it must look toward the future, which may or may not be based on such industry activity.

Many leaders of destination marketing organizations and convention and visitors bureaus see branding as merely logos and taglines, but it needs to be much more (Baker, 2007; Blain, Levy, & Ritchie, 2005). Anholt (2010b) condemns what he calls the “logos and slogans” school of thought, which purports that perceptions of places can be directly influenced by targeted communications and that people’s concept of place can be influenced as easily. Arguing that places need to be interesting and attractive to businesses at least to some degree, Anholt (2010b) describes much place-branding efforts as attempts at selling to people who are generally not interested in the product. Moreover, branding is more a tool for selling the products and services of a place than for changing its overall image or reputation (Anholt, 2010a). Anholt (2008) argues that deeds create public perceptions, not words and pictures. Citing a lack of evidence to suggest that marketing communications can positively influence public perceptions, Anholt, (2008) and Zenker & Martin (2011) deem place branding a waste of taxpayer

dollars. Yet, many communities continue to launch campaigns that attempt to change how their place is seen just by adding a new tagline. For example, Seattle's "metronatural" campaign, launched in 2006, attracted more ridicule than respect with its clunky combination of words. It likely encouraged no one to visit or move to the city.

The Detroit Metro Convention & Visitors Bureau has worked to build the brand DNA of Detroit. Chris Baum, who had led marketing efforts for the Convention & Visitors Bureau, notes "Detroit was really five different things.... cars, culture, gaming, music, and sports. Those are the things that Detroit could deliver on as well or better than any place in North America and certainly in the Midwest" (personal communication, August 2, 2011). Detroit is using the most recognizable piece of its economy as its brand. Similarly, Cleveland promoters have worked to capitalize on the power of the Cleveland Clinic and Rock and Roll Hall of Fame and Museum brands to attract attention (Jarboe, 2011). The positive connotations associated with these institutions clearly associated with the city give legitimacy to the city's name brand.

A city's marketing success has also been tied, in part, to the success or failure of its local sports teams – as they are part of the local brand (Rowe & McGuirk, 1999). Sports teams are typically branded with place names and, thus, will reflect positively or negatively upon it. Researchers Rowe and McGuirk (1999) analyzed this effect in terms of rugby teams, finding that the success of a team is becoming more and more important to city imaging and economic status. They cite four reasons: Sports teams generate significant income, reflect and project changes in economic structure toward the service sector, promote the brand of the city, and provide a form of community identity and engagement (Rowe & McGuirk, 1999). They further argue sporting team failures and

failure to attract major events, such as losing an Olympic bid or an NCAA championship, may have devastating effects on local image beyond mere symbolism due to losses in potential revenue and local pride (Rowe & McGuirk, 1999).

Branding a place is different from branding a product because it requires resident buy-in and adoption (Hankinson, 2004). It is important to see how the locals see a place to improve it (Nasar, 1990). As Jensen points out, “You don’t have to ask the beans in the can how they feel about the label” (Jensen, 2005, p. 13). However, when the beans are the residents, input must be taken. Taking stock of the people is of utmost importance as residents are necessary for the success of a branding campaign that aims to convey the intended message of the place.

Visual Image

The visual image is what people see when they think of a place. For example, when city leaders in Toledo, Ohio, began working through a branding campaign, they found that it was not that outsiders had a bad image of Toledo, it was that outsiders did not have one at all (Baker, 2007). People may picture the Empire State Building, the St. Louis Arch, or the Golden Gate Bridge. People distinguish Orlando as a family tourist destination and Las Vegas as a city of vice. Images of the social system, attitudes of the people, culture, and food are envisioned about places (Downs & Stea, 1973). “We rely on these images for understanding and explaining the event because ‘you would expect that sort of thing to happen there’” (Downs and Stea, 1973, p. 9).

Visual images represent a simplification of all the information one has of each place. They are the product of each person trying to essentialize huge amounts of information about a place (Kotler, Haider, & Rein, 1993). Image is a “purposive simplification...made by reducing, eliminating, or even adding elements to reality” (Lynch, 1960, p. 87). Lynch (1960) further argues that people are always trying to organize their surroundings to understand them and that people create their own meanings and connections. These connections become their visual image of a place.

A prevalent definition of place image is that it represents the sum of beliefs, ideas, and impressions people have of a place (Kotler et al., 1993). Place image also includes evaluations of these items (Burgess, 1982, as cited in Ashworth & Voogd, 1990). Images are the “mental conceptions” that pull together everything an individual knows, evaluates, and prefers about places (Walmsley, 1988, as cited in Ashworth & Voogd, 1990, p. 83). Thus, images are preferences that have been filtered through everyone’s own personality construct (Ashworth & Voogd, 1990). Visual images are individually held.

Image is formed through different mechanisms. Luque-Martinez, Del Barrio-Garcia, Ibanez-Zapata, & Rodriguez Molina (2007) modeled how city image is formed in Granada, Spain, through a detailed survey of residents. The authors identified 12 dimensions of city image that lead to a level of satisfaction living in the city (Luque-Martinez et al., 2007). The authors argue that dimensions such as physical, social, cultural, and economic factors impact how residents see their city. The nine factors in their model suggested that positive city image strongly influenced how satisfied people

felt living in their city (Luque-Martinez et al., 2007). Image can affect how people feel about places.

Marketing a place is not about advertising, but rebuilding and reconstructing the image of a place to target specific types of activity and people and to both “reflect and boost the image” (Paddison, 1993). In examining marketing, image reconstruction, and what he called “urban regeneration” in Glasgow, Scotland, Paddison (1993) argued that the goals of place marketing were to raise the competitive edge of the city, attract inward investment, improve the image and increase the well-being of the population (Paddison, 1993). These were the goals of the marketing program in Glasgow, and according to the article, the city has been seen in a more favorable light.

Laaksonen, Laaksonen, Borisov, and Halkoaho (2006) conducted a unique study on city image for the city of Vaasa, Finland. The authors note that different types of people (students, entrepreneurs, tourists, etc.) have different images and sub-images of cities. Those living inside the city have a more developed image than outsiders. The researchers tried to reach a common “core umbrella image” through 20 focus groups with a total of 100 participants (Laaksonen et al., 2006). The method they chose was a collage study that involved five steps. First, participants from both within and outside the city created a visual collage of Vaasa. Participants were then asked to add adjectives to their collage. They then discussed the collages in groups and answered the questions “What do I think about Vaasa?” and “What does Vaasa think about me?” The final step was a group discussion that tied together the results (Laaksonen, et al, 2006). The researchers found that responses did not vary greatly in terms of main themes: nature, built environment, culture, and industry (Laaksonen et al, 2006). This was interpreted as

evidence that people do not see places as separate pieces, but instead as a sum of the total surroundings (Laaksonen, et al, 2006). The researchers also found that individuals could describe the same city of Vaasa in contradictory terms, such as both unkind and likeable (Laaksonen et al., 2006). Although most image studies try to find the most important factors influencing image, the authors note that the approach could create bias as there was no agreement among participants on which aspects were most important (Laaksonen, et al, 2006). The authors even went a step further with their findings and worked with city officials to develop a plan to market the city both internally and externally (Laaksonen et al., 2006). The fact that the research was translated into work on the ground in Vaasa leads to the conclusion that the results were valuable and that place image is multidimensional.

Some authors argue that positive image is crucial to places, and image has become an active part of the economic success or failure of place (Ashworth & Voogd, 1990). A place with a positive visual image has an easier time exporting goods and attracting talent (Anholt, 2010b). Ergo, visual image is important in the way a place is represented. A visual image of a place involves more than a tagline or brand; it is the personal embodiment of how an individual symbolically thinks about a place.

Reputation

Reputation is how a city is colloquially known. Reputation represents feedback from outsiders about claims made by those endogenous to the city, region, or state (Fan, 2010). Reputation is based on certain entrenched clichés and prejudices (Anholt, 2007). Reputation represents a widely-held belief that is simplistic and carries a certain attitude about a place that is either positive or negative (Kotler et al., 1993). Examples of

reputations include that of Paris as romantic and New Yorkers as pretentious. Public opinion is usually in agreement on the reputation of places (Nasar, 1990). Reputations exist outside of a physical place and can be held by people who have never even visited it (Anholt, 2010a). Reputation is specific knowledge that is a preconceived notion about a place.

Place representation is built through various mechanisms. The media plays a role in the creation and dissemination of place reputation (Pocock & Hudson, 1978). Part of this is due to the popularity of negative stories (Avraham & Ketter, 2008). The role of the media is even more important now in making a place recognizable (Allan, 2006). With the reach of print, television, and the Internet, the representation that the media creates and distributes plays a role in defining places by shaping opinions of them (Allan, 2006). The media can, because of the proliferation of negative stories, reinforce negative stereotypes of places (Baker, 2007). In addition, the media can reinforce outdated messages, further impacting a city (Baker, 2007). Avraham and Ketter (2008) note that the media is the very mechanism through which the public constructs their view of a place. If crime is the main topic of news stories told about a place, any positive stories will be lost (Avraham & Ketter, 2008). Anholt & Hildreth (2004) argue that good stories just do not have the same power as bad ones and that the public is not likely to trade down from a juicy story to a boring one. However, the media does not function solely as an adversary; it can also serve as an ally, the mechanism many cities use to promote themselves. Reputations are convenient and fit within what Anholt & Hildreth (2004) likened to the spirit of the times. This *zeitgeist* is largely influenced by the media.

As with visual image, reputation is defined by public perceptions (Barber, 2008). Reputation is distributed through a wide network for the public to accept or reject (Barber, 2008). However, by the very nature of the media distribution network, the portrayed reputations of places are the work of an elite group that possesses the power to command these forums (Barber, 2008). Often the reputation of a city is cemented into place, even if positive change occurs in the area. Places or regions with poor reputations, such as the Rust Belt, may have a harder time attracting people and investment due to the way the region is seen.

Many city leaders believe that a poor reputation is an obstacle for economic growth (Avraham, 2004). In 1979, Cleveland was known as a place with a bad reputation for business under then- Mayor Dennis Kucinich. This negative reputation has often been cited as the reason Diamond Shamrock Corporation moved its headquarters to Texas. The former mayor's stance on certain policies facing businesses is noted as one of the main reasons the company moved.

Sense of Place

Unlike branding, visual image, and reputation, the sense of place must be experienced on the ground. Every neighborhood or city has a distinct sense of place stemming from its physical infrastructure and sociological makeup (Billig, 2005). Sense of place is the experience of being involved in the human aspect of place (Birch, 2001). Jorgensen and Stedman (2006) argue that it is a multidimensional construct made up of beliefs, emotions, and behavioral commitments about a specific geography. The sense of place is a deeply personal attachment people hold to specific places. It represents the

idea of “topophilia” – from the Latin word meaning “to love” (Barber, 2008; Holcomb, 1993). This may be an experience held by a vacationer, a person doing business, or residents. People remember the unique atmosphere of places as it relates to them (Billig, 2005). Shamai (1991) argues that places are not just objects, but instead the experiences in places. A sense of place is the feelings, attitudes, and the behavior toward a place: an essence that exists in the beholder’s senses and mind (Shamai, 1991). The character of a place is defined by the people in it imposing upon it their views, attitudes, beliefs, symbols, and myths (Shamai, 1991). Sense of place is a feeling within a place that can be held by anyone in a place. Tamera Brown, the former vice president of marketing at Positively Cleveland notes,

We need to address an attitude...thinking about Cleveland as a tourist destination. I’m imagining that if you talk to most people walking down the street and asked if they think Cleveland is a tourist destination, the answer would be no. We need to change that thinking. We need to be welcoming. We need to stop asking visitors why they are here and really roll out the red carpet because if you have a great experience, you’re going to post it on Facebook, you’re going to tweet about it, all of your friends are going to hear about it and they are going to want to come visit. We need to make sure that people are running into very happy, very positive ambassadors for this region. (T. Brown, personal communication, August 10, 2011).

Sense of place is often inspired by the natural environment or skyline (Barber, 2008). The scenic nature of a place is often used to make inferences about the local people (Nasar, 1990). Sense of place includes the density of the area, variety of offerings, urban qualities, and positive “street culture” (Jensen, 2007, p. 222). It is how one feels when inside a place and what one remembers about it. The “vividness and coherence” of a place is crucial for enjoyment and use (Lynch, 1960, p. 118). Lynch (1960, p119) further notes

By appearing as a remarkable and well-knit place, the city could provide a ground for the clustering and organization of these meanings and associations. Such a sense of place in itself enhances every human activity that occurs there, and encourages the deposit of a memory trace.

A sense of place can “provide feelings of security, belonging and stability, like the feelings that arise from a fully developed pair bond” (Hay, 1998, p. 25). Sense of place is the memory and the associations made about a place.

Chamlee-Wright and Storr (2009) found in their research on New Orleans’s Ninth Ward that residents who returned to The Big Easy after Hurricane Katrina desired the unique characteristics that could not be found elsewhere. Sense of place was found to be a strong determinant for those who returned quickly (Chamlee-Wright & Storr, 2009). For these displaced people, sense of place was raised to a level of consciousness beyond which most people are aware. Their sense of happiness, well-being, and even their sense of self was tied to the city. The sense of place for those who returned was so high that they even expected other people to hold it as well (Chamlee-Wright and Storr, 2009). After Hurricane Katrina, the sense of place itself was brought back to New Orleans.

German sociologist Gerhard Schulze argued that we are living in “*erlebnisgesellschaft*” or “experience society” (Jensen, 2007, p. 212). The primary concern has shifted away from mere sustenance toward seeking ever more stimulating experiences (Jensen, 2007). The way a place is represented has profound implications on the level of *erlebnisgesellschaft* offered. Orleans (1973) argues that any knowledge of a place comes from how it is experienced. Evans (2003) argues that city location alone is not enough to generate interest, but the package of entertainment can capture those looking for an urban consumption experience. Boddy (1992) contends that people may

even prefer stimulation to reality. Take the case of Disneyland, as presented by Sorkin (1992). Often a popular vacation spot – Disneyland is by its very nature created space. Sorkin (1992) argues that Disneyland is just like the world, only better. Travelers to Disney are putting a preference on simulation over reality – urbanism without the city. Additionally, sense of place is shaped by trends that can change over time. For example, in the 1960s, Cleveland was known as a basic “meat and potatoes” city, but by 2017, media reports labeled it a destination for “foodie” tourism.

In his analysis of the microbrewery industry in America, Flack (1997) notes that people seek unique places and want to experience what it means to truly be in that place. The localized meaning of a city’s microbrewery gives patrons the feeling of truly being in that city, which is not found when dining in a chain restaurant or a visiting new suburban subdivision. It is an example of the truly local flavor that makes a place distinct.

Sense of place, or way a place is experienced, impacts decisions on whether to stay or invest. The sense of place concept requires that one experience the place firsthand. A positive experience may encourage further exploration or investment. The importance of this is evident in marketing and attraction agencies inviting site selection experts to visit their cities to experience what they are like. Dave Schute of the Global Center for Health Innovation in Cleveland noted that getting people to the city and the site was key in his ability to attract businesses; because of the low expectations held by some visitors, they often are positively overwhelmed by their experience in the city (personal communication, July 11, 2015).

Identity

The concept of places and their people's unique identity is not new. Since the days of agrarian societies, people have felt connected to the land and identified themselves from where they came. This is evident in the many surnames that identify location, such as the "Tweedie" clan of Scotland and their roots on the River Tweed. Clans, tribes, and city-dwellers throughout history have identified themselves by location. Finding out where people are from is often one of the first questions asked when meeting a new person. Based on his analysis of mining towns in Mexico, Harner (2001) argues that identity is "a cultural value shared by the community, a collective understanding about social identity intertwined with place meaning. Place is a process, and it is human experience and struggle that give meaning to place" (p. 660). The construct of place identity stems from work on both the concepts of self and that of identity as it is theorized that "who we are" is rooted in our physical environment (Coen, Meredith, & Condie, 2017). Place identity is created and affected by belonging to a place and its people (Simpson, 2016). All of this comes from the basic idea that people try to make sense of their selves and how they relate to their surroundings and place is very much tied to self-narratives (Baker, 2016; Kyle, Jun, Absher, 2014).

The identity of a place is the personal connection residents have to it. This self-image is how one is a "Cleveland" or a "New Yorker" (Tigger-Ross & Uzzell, 1996). The identity exists within the people within a place (Anholt, 2010a). Proshansky (1978) defines a "place-identity" in terms of the self – all pieces of the person as they relate to their environment. People organize their place identity as it suits them. It should be noted that places do not have single identities but instead, like all characterizations of

place representation, have different meanings to different people (Goodwin, 1993). Those who live in an affluent section of town will identify with a city very differently than those who reside in low-income housing. Former employees identify with an abandoned factory site in a very different way than a politician or a real estate developer (Goodwin, 1993). Every place has unique features that distinguish it from others including how things are done in that place like a “code of conduct” for locals (Sheather & McIntyre, 2013). As Sheather and McIntyre (2013) note “The social, cultural and symbolic capital that are acquired and assist in identity formation are not easily transferrable to other areas and are the result of a deeply imbued sense of connection to the place from which people originate.” Place identity is tied to how one interacts with his or her environment and is therefore an important determinant in decisions that are made about the place. If the identity of a region is opposed to growth and change, the likelihood of a site selection decision decreases.

People want to be proud of their city and where they come from. Lalli (1992) contends that self-esteem is positively correlated with living in a prestigious place. Anholt (2010a) argues that “loyalty builds success, and success builds loyalty, and no place on earth – city, town, country, village or region – can hope to make others respect and admire it unless it first respects and admires itself” (p. 67). Place identity, formed through unique culture, history, land, traditions, genius, and imagination, is a strong force in creating identity (Anholt, 2010a). Anholt (2010a) argues that “...people want their nation to *count*. They want to feel proud of where they come from” (p. 67). Identifying with a place is essential to residents, and the stronger the identification, the more likely they will remain. Researchers Kyle, Jun, and Absher (2014) found support for their

model that included three aspects of place identity: place dependence, affective attachment, and social bonding. Identity of self is linked to place identity.

Changing the way people feel about their home is not easy, but how they identify with place can be enriched through improvements. Lowe (1993) argues that any physical improvement, although important to the place representation, may be even more important to the confidence of the residents, which arguably may lead to further place regeneration in the long run. Improving a place not only has implications for how it is seen outside its borders, but also greatly impacts how people within the place interact and identify with it. If people have a strong identity due to being from a certain place, they are more likely to remain in that place. When the company Monolith was looking for a new business location, it wanted to be in a place “where people share their values, who are very hardworking, and who they can trust” (Bartels, 2015, p. 2).

This section outlined the five concepts of place image. A brand is the intended message of the place, a visual image is the symbolic knowledge of a place, reputation is specific knowledge about a place, sense of place is the subjective experience in a place, and identity is the extent to which people are willing to associate themselves with a place. These five concepts are combined in a conceptual model of place image that will be presented later.

Business Location Decision

Cities have faced increasingly difficult times attracting businesses due to factors noted in the previous section. This section will outline what factors businesses consider in their location decisions, how places work to attract businesses, and the influence of

place image on this decision. This is key as site selection decisions have implications for firm profitability and sustainability that, if left unexamined, can lead directly to failure.

The importance of business site selection can be traced back nearly 90 years to the work of Weber in what is now known as classical location theory. Weber (1929) focused his analysis on where firms locate based on transportation costs, labor costs, and profit maximization. This model is based purely on firm efficiency and effectiveness (Maimon, 1986). Many scholars critique the classical location theory because of its minimization of the importance of transportation, labor force scope, and profit maximization, which reduces the validity of his argument as it omits so many other potential variables. Also, measures that are important for a manufacturing site are very different than those for a retail location. More recent literature has shown that this model does not consider enough factors that contribute to the actual location decisions of firms. More and more studies are emerging with numerous and diverse variables starting as early as the 1980s (Czamanski, 1981).

The list of factors that are included in the business location decision research is growing. Czamanski (1981) argues that previous research is problematic because location decisions are often reduced to a few cost factors and noted that researchers are beginning to add more and more specific factors to the examination of firm location decision. Site selection decision factors fall into three overall categories: characteristics of the locating unit, characteristics of the product, and characteristics of the locations. Czamanski's study used seven factors, which each consisted of more than one variable: transportation advantage, quality of the labor force, attractiveness of location, accessibility, local facilities, government incentives, and the physical environment.

Transportation and labor force factors were found to be the most significant to the location decision (Czamanski, 1981). This study helped open the door for more detailed research on the factors that affect the business location decision.

Over the past 80 years, classical location theory has changed, and three models are discussed in the current literature related to business site selection decisions. These models are the natural advantage model, the production externality model, and the new economic geography model. The natural advantage model discussed in LaFountain (2005) focuses on the idea that places are different and that these differences are what make areas attractive to firms. The production externality model, also used in LaFountain (2005), centers on knowledge spillovers and the necessity of having alike firms near each other for their mutual success. Finally, the most prevalent model in the recent literature is the new economic geography model, popularized by Krugman (1991). Krugman's model, which is also used in Strauss-Kahn and Vives (2008), Koo and Lall (2007), and LaFountain (2005), assumes that firm agglomeration occurs because transportation of goods is costly, encouraging both consumers and producers to be close to each other.

To compare these three models, LaFountain (2005) focused on the new economic geography model and different industries that have the best fit with each of the three models commonly discussed. The author found that, for most industries, the natural advantage model was most fitting: Differences among regions are what sets them apart and attracts firms to those regions. The industries most represented by the natural advantage model were textiles, furniture and fixtures, paper, chemicals, petroleum, primary metals, electronics, transportation equipment, and instruments. The industries

best represented by the production externality model were apparel, furniture and fixtures, and miscellaneous manufacturing. Those best represented by the new economic geography, or market access, model were food, primary metals, fabricated metals, industrial machinery and equipment, and transportation equipment. Strauss-Kahn and Vives (2008) also employed the new economic geography model. They used this model to incorporate agglomeration variables, input costs, corporate taxes, congestion, cost of moving headquarters activities, merger activities, size, and age of the firm. They found that firms located in places with good airport facilities, low corporate taxes, low average wages, high levels of business services, industry specialization, and agglomeration of headquarters in the same sector, all of which support the model. Strauss-Kahn and Vives (2008) focused on headquarters, arguing that maintaining firms' headquarter functions was critical due to the negative externalities places would face if they left. The loss of a headquarters contributes to direct and indirect employment loss, a decrease in market thickness, and a decrease in the quality of the local labor market. Headquarters also may contribute to the image or trademark of a city and serve as protection against potential economic downturns (Strauss-Kahn & Vives, 2008).

Koo and Lall (2007) tested the validity of new economic geography as a model of site selection. They used a conditional logit model to regress location choices on firm attributes and location attributes for manufacturing firms in India. The authors found that the importance of market access and distance to transportation hubs has been greatly exaggerated in previous studies for many industries, including chemicals and chemical products; rubber, petroleum, and coal products; electronic and electrical machinery, parts, and apparatus; paper and paper products; and leather and leather products (Koo and Lall,

2007). Although the new economic geography model is currently the most prevalent in the literature, Koo and Lall (2007) demonstrate that the range of applicability is limited. In fact, these studies indicate that different industries examine various considerations for potential new sites. In other words, each of the three models explain location choices for some firms, industries, and places.

Today's business site selection process begins with consideration of factors such as transportation, tax incentives, real estate costs, energy cost and availability, workforce, and proximity to supply chains, markets, and resources. Additional factors may include proximity to industry clusters, anchor institutions, and the presence of an innovative culture and social networks. Agglomeration economies are gaining in importance as firms seek to locate near their competition (Porter, 2000). All these factors reflect firms' quest to lower their operating costs through their location choices. Sites that do not meet minimum requirements, such as closeness to a rail line or fresh water, do not make the preferred "first cut" list. Not having a presence or being ranked low on these preliminary lists can be detrimental to a region when place rankings or reports are released. Even if a place would be a great fit for a certain company, that place may be ignored due to preconceived perceptions.

Companies all have unique needs when they are choosing a site. Czamanski (1981) argues that not all firms behave in the same way and that they have different needs in terms of site selection. He proposed three categories of firms sharing site selection commonalities: traditional, managerial, and public enterprises. Additional considerations include whether the industry is basic or non-basic to the regional economy; whether the firm has a service or manufacturing focus; what the need is for a supply chain; and what

intensity of capital is required. Various factors irrespective of place that are important to the business location decision may be based on how the firm is managed.

Many studies have focused on various pieces of the location decision in the manufacturing industry (Bartik, 1985; Granger and Blomquist, 1999; Koo & Lall, 2007; Schmenner, Huber, and Cook, 1987). Henderson and Ono (2008) looked at manufacturing firms' headquarters, specifically the trade-off between locating headquarters in a service-oriented area away from the main production sites compared to locating them with or near production. The authors examined firms by size and found that the most important factors were proximity to market and proximity to firms' production facilities. Henderson and Ono (2008) also found that, after firms moved away from their production sites, their location decisions were based more on the attributes of the location. Schmenner, Huber, and Cook (1987) examined manufacturing plant location decisions by employing a methodology that considered steps in the business location decision. The authors assumed that firms make their location decisions in two phases. First, they select a set of potential sites for consideration and, second, the firms choose their sites. The attributes of the area of choice were operationalized with such variables as the area's input costs, land or office availability, tax rates, and geographic and demographic factors. Schmenner, Huber, and Cook (1987) found climate and population density to have a strong positive association with the location decision in the first step of the site selection process but far less important in the second. This finding suggests that where a firm is in the long process of selecting a new site will dictate which factors are most important.

Bartik (1985) underscored the significance of such a finding for policymakers: “An understanding of business location decisions in the United States is important to state, local, and federal officials who wish to encourage economic development in particular areas” (p. 14). Bartik (1985) examined manufacturing business location decisions in relation to unionization rates and focused on how the decisions for new branch plants were influenced by the characteristics of states. Using firm-level data, he found significance in land area and unionization rates, and an increase in land area almost exactly corresponded to an increase in the number of new plants. He also noted that a 10% increase in the percentage of a state’s labor force that was unionized led to a 30-45% reduction in the number of new branch plants. Finally, he found that existing manufacturing activity also caused an increase in the number of new plants (Bartik, 1985). Manufacturing sites have very specific needs in terms of their production requirements.

There has also been work to analyze firm location decisions beyond data analysis. Karakaya and Canel (1998) researched an extensive list of factors considered in location decisions, focusing on those making the location decisions. The authors surveyed CEOs and site selection professionals on which of 27 variables were most important to them when deciding on a new location. Karakaya and Canel (1998) identified six factors that were most important: cost (land, construction, utilities, and tax), living (colleges, education, recreation, cost of housing, and industrial zoned land), location (airport, highway/seaport, skilled labor, and medical services), resources (unskilled labor, industrial parks, fresh water, and low-cost labor), business environment (local investment and state regulatory environment), and existing buildings (availability of existing

buildings). The significance of the variables differed based on the type of industry that was responding. The most important individual variables were availability of skilled labor, transportation facilities, state tax rates, state regulatory environment, real estate tax rate, proximity to major highways/seaports, proximity to major U.S. airports, cost of utilities, construction prices, and the availability of a local airport. For manufacturing firms, the most important factors were skilled labor and local investment incentives. For the banking industry, skilled labor, proximity to the airport, and available transportation facilities were most significant. The insurance industry revealed skilled labor, real estate tax rate, state tax rate, and state regulatory environment to be the most important. The highest significance for consultants was airport proximity and availability. Finally, for retail, the most significant variables were land prices, construction prices, availability of capital financing, and the presence of competing businesses. The qualitative research mirrors the quantitative research in terms of the most important factors facing businesses when choosing new sites.

Locations Attracting Businesses

In his seminal work on city image, Lynch begins by noting that “the city is a construction in space,” meaning that what people know of a city is constructed by a variety of actors (1960, p. 1). The way places are represented can be influenced by marketing, and a place can be sold just like any other product (Allen, 2007).

Stakeholders in each place need to meticulously define, design, and market to the outside world the assets of their place (Kotler et al., 1993). By neglecting marketing, places run

the risk of (further) decline and failure (Kotler et al., 1993). Places and their images are constructed for encouraging growth.

The act of selling a place is popular to economic development professionals because it offers a chance to improve prospects for “trade, aid, economic development, political influence and general respect” (Anholt, 2010a). As Hill, Wolman, and Ford conjectured, “If the region has a poor image, risk perceptions will increase, business start-ups with locational choices will take place elsewhere, and plants and other operations will have strong incentives to do their expanding in other places” (1995, p. 167).

As once-dominant industries have shrunk or disappeared, places have been forced to adapt or have struggled to adjust (Sadler, 1993). At the height of the industrial Midwest, Pittsburgh was known as the location for steel production, and Detroit dominated automobile manufacturing. Competition has increased with globalization, leading Sadler (1993) to conclude that place is decreasingly relevant as a factor for business. Each place must compete with every other for its share of commercial, political, social, and cultural transactions (Anholt, 2010a; Short, Benton, Luce, & Walton, 1993). This competition forces places to work on their image to attract businesses.

The word “industrial” itself may be associated with negative images of a deteriorating economic base, pollution, and obsolescence (Short et al., 1993), and regions throughout the Midwest are trying to turn around their negative images. Regions going through deindustrialization or having become post-industrial face “a deepening sense of insecurity that grows out of the collapse all around them of the traditional economic base of their community” (Bluestone & Harrison, 1982, p. 47). This can be seen through the

change in lexicon on how these cities have been named throughout the years from “Rust Belt” to “legacy cities.”

Major infrastructure improvements and investments may lead people to take a closer look at a place, whether at the city or national level. For example, spreading the word that Cleveland has a strong bioscience industry or that Pittsburgh is a city with a concentration of technology companies can contribute to the economic success of these cities. In a phone interview, Edward Healy, vice president of marketing for Visit Buffalo Niagara, stated that efforts to improve the waterfront, art, and architecture were leading people to take a closer look at Buffalo. Healy noted, “The story that I would have to tell would just be empty spin if all of this very concrete investment weren’t taking place...there is real substance behind the story we are trying to tell” (personal communication, September 12, 2011). Dewitt Peart of the Allegheny Conference in Pittsburgh noted, “A lot of Pittsburgh’s transformation was very place-based and focused – improving the appearance and the land use” (personal communication, September 19, 2011). Positive promotion showcasing new assets leads people to look at a place differently and piques their interest about places to which they may have been indifferent to or had a negative opinion of previously. Changes in the way a place is seen does not happen suddenly. Although Pittsburgh’s previously dominant steel industry had all but died by 1983, the city’s transformation did not begin in earnest until 2005 (D. Peart, personal communication, September 19, 2011). Improvements to a place are important to place image as they show growth and improvement, but they alone cannot change the image completely.

Every time the name of a place is mentioned, there is an opportunity to add or subtract value to its equity (Gertner, 2007). Economic development professionals try to manage the image of their cities based on this idea (Stock, 2009). Not everything that is part of place image can be controlled, but places have the capacity to create positive messages that may contribute to growing the regional economy. Marketing a place does not end with the launch of a catchy slogan or a bumper sticker (Steward, 2008). It is a continuous process that must be cultivated and updated as necessary to meet changing economic conditions and new opportunities (Kotler et al., 1993). The image of cities must be monitored and maintained to ensure that the intended message is the one being told.

Business attraction agencies work to ensure the correct and desired message about their place is conveyed. Businesses and site selectors rely on information they already possess about specific places. Because of this, business attraction organizations sometimes offer site selectors “familiarization tours” to showcase the assets and possibilities in their areas. Economic development organizations invite professional site selectors to a region to showcase assets such as sports teams, museums, and cultural institutions while also showcasing potential space for clients. The intent is that these tours will improve perceptions the site selectors have about the places and put the cities in the forefront of their minds when they are working with businesses.

Business attraction agencies work with both businesses and site selection professionals. Industry site selection leader Development Counsellors International conducts a survey of executives and site selection professionals on how best to engage them. The top five ways are: corporate executive visits, websites, special events, trade

shows, and media relations (Development Counsellors International, 2013). These top five methods are handled by various actors in a place ranging from local government and business attraction agencies to chambers of commerce and destination marketing organizations.

TeamNEO, the business attraction agency for Northeast Ohio, outlines the decision factors and influencers that enter the location decision process. This framework assumes four business goals influence the location decision: minimizing cost, maximizing productivity, mitigating risk, and increasing shareholder value (Foran, 2011). These goals feed into four factors: skills, business friendliness, physical assets, and opportunities (Foran, 2011). Under business friendliness, two items relate to place image -- international friendly and quality of life -- while the other eight items in this category are unrelated to image (Foran, 2011). This framework shows that there is a place for image in the big picture of the business location decision.

Place Image and the Business Location Decision

Within a large pool of academic site selection literature, few studies have looked at place image as one of the site selection factors for companies that are expanding or relocating to a new region. Some studies have examined an aspect of the way places are represented, such as amenities akin to a quality of life measure. Granger and Blomquist (1999) studied place amenities as they related to manufacturing location decisions. The authors argue that the success of an urban area's economic development strategy depends partly on how it deals with issues relevant to attraction and retention. The authors note that amenities affect profit as much as other traditional economic factors. Using a quality

of life index to measure amenities of urban counties in the areas of environmental quality, climate, and urban conditions, they found that amenities do influence manufacturing firm locations in urban areas and that this influence differs by industry and type of amenity (Granger and Blomquist, 1999).

The concept of quality of life is found in the literature on place image and urban design but is not prevalent in the site selection literature. Love and Crompton (1999) surveyed individuals at companies that had moved in Colorado to examine what effect quality of life had on actual location decisions. Using a factor analysis, the authors identified five factors: quality of life, labor and cost issues, government involvement and taxes, daily living concerns, and proximity to relevant publics. The results showed that the most important factors were labor and cost issues and daily living concerns. Quality of life was found to be important after initial factors were satisfied. The authors also found that companies from outside Colorado placed significantly more importance on quality of life than those from within the state. Quality of life does prove to be an important factor for the decision process, but the concept of quality of life is nebulous and does not have a perfect definition in the academic literature (Love & Crompton, 1999). Area Development, a site selection company, echoed this sentiment “Of the 13 site selection criteria we [use to] evaluate sites, quality of life has relatively minor impact in the early stages....in the later stages, it becomes more important and is measured relative to the other short-listed location candidates” (Area Development, 2010, p. 1).

Kimelberg and Nicoll (2012) investigated place reputation in their study of medical device firms. The authors argue that such firms combine the needs of both the industrial economy and the knowledge economy. They found that businesses in the

industrial economy focus on traditional factors for location, including cost, taxes, and infrastructure, while the businesses in the knowledge economy focus on different factors, such as quality of life/local amenities, housing, schools, institutions, and local resources. The location factors Kimelberg and Nicoll (2012) identified for medical device companies fell into six categories: labor, permitting process, development and operating costs, business environment, transportation and access, and quality of life/social environment. The highest significance was in labor force, on-site parking, timeliness of approvals and appeals, crime rate, and state tax and financial incentives. The interesting variable in this study was “municipal reputation as a good place to live,” with a mean score of 2.38, just slightly above the midpoint on the researchers’ scale. This variable is of mid-level importance to those surveyed but is more important than some traditionally studied variables like tax rates, in the model.

Many studies have used factor analyses to identify the most common factors across long lists of variables (Karakaya and Canel, 1998; Love and Crompton, 1999). Karakaya and Canel (1998) surveyed CEOs and site selection professionals on the most important of 27 potential variables in the site selection process. The authors found six factors that were most significant: cost, living, location, resources, business environment, and existing buildings. Karakaya and Canel (1998) found that the different components influencing business site selection differed by industry. Factor analysis can be a valuable way to tease out the most important components to include in the model for further research.

Articles in the site selection literature that described results of quantitative studies featured various mathematical models. Among the many statistical methods used in site

selection studies, the most frequently used were multiple regression models (Gottlieb, 1995; Granger and Blomquist, 1999; LaFountain, 2005), conditional logit models (Bartik, 1985; Koo and Lall, 2007; Schmenner, Huber, and Cook, 1987), multinomial logit models (Henderson & Ono, 2007), and three-level nested logit models (Strauss-Kahn and Vives, 2008). Table I shows an overview of the literature and the variables from each study. Overall, there are 171 variables, 35 of which were found to be significant. The variables can be organized into 11 groups: demographics, education, environment, financing, government, image, industry, infrastructure, necessities of life, quality of life, and workforce.

Table I: Overview of Literature and Variables

Author	Title	Variables
Karakaya & Canel (1998)	Underlying dimensions of business location decisions	Airport, capital financing, colleges/universities, competing businesses, existing buildings, fresh water, industrial parks, industrially zoned land, labor cost, medical services, recreational facilities, unskilled labor, suppliers, construction prices, utilities, education, housing, land prices, local incentives, distributors, highways, airports, real estate tax, skilled labor, state tax, transportation facilities
Czamanski (1981)	Some considerations concerning industrial location decisions	Airport, competing businesses, fresh water, medical services, suppliers, climate, demographics, employment rate, history of labor unrest, housing, local incentives, local wage rate, pollution, power rates, distributors, highways, airports, state regulations, state taxes
LaFountain (2005)	Where do firms locate? Testing competing models of agglomeration	Inputs, land availability, labor mobility, transportation costs
Henderson & Ono (2007)	Where do manufacturing firms locate their headquarters?	Employment rate, establishments in the area, local wage rate
Strauss-Kahn & Vives (2008)	Why and where do headquarters move?	Agglomeration, corporate tax rate, employment rate, local wage rate
Blair & Premus (1987)	Major Factors in Industrial Location: A Review.	Inputs, business climate, education, energy pricing, familiarity, labor force, personal reasons, proximity to market, tax rates, transportation costs
Koo & Lall (2007)	New Economic Geography: Real or Hype?	Capital financing, infant mortality rate, labor rate, literacy, population density, proximity to market, transportation infrastructure, urbanization economies

Author	Title	Variables
Kimelberg & Nicoll (2012)	Business location decisions in the medical device industry: evidence from Massachusetts	Airports, highways, railroads, agglomeration, cultural/sports amenities, labor, suppliers, brownfields, neighborhood organizations, labor cost, complementary/supplemental business services, housing cost, crime, minimum wage, trade unions, fast-track permitting, municipal website, land prices, local incentives, reputation for living, reputation for working, reputation for economic development, on-site parking, permitting ombudsman, physical attractiveness, predictability in permitting, property tax, universities, restaurants, public transit, schools, infrastructure, rental rates, state tax, timeliness of approvals, traffic congestion, undesirable abutting land use, zoning
Bartik (1985)	Business location decisions in the United States: Estimates of the effects of unionization, taxes, and other characteristics of states	Construction prices, corporate tax rate, education level, energy pricing, existing manufacturing, land area, population density, property taxes, road miles, unemployment insurance rate, unionization, wage rate, work stoppages, workers' compensation insurance rate
Gottlieb (1995)	Residential amenities, firm location and economic development	Airports, state parks, daily vehicle miles, amusement employment, distance to city, distance to shore, expenditures per pupil, graduate students, land waste, local expenditures, recreation expenditures, percentage black, rush hour trains, state authority highways, teachers per pupil, total employment, toxic emissions, violent crime rate, volume on state roads
Granger & Blomquist (1999)	Evaluating the influence of amenities on the location of manufacturing establishments in urban areas	Climate, environment, labor intensity, land area, manufacturing establishments, manufacturing establishments with over 500 employees, manufacturing establishments with less than 500 employees, population density, quality-of-life index, urban conditions

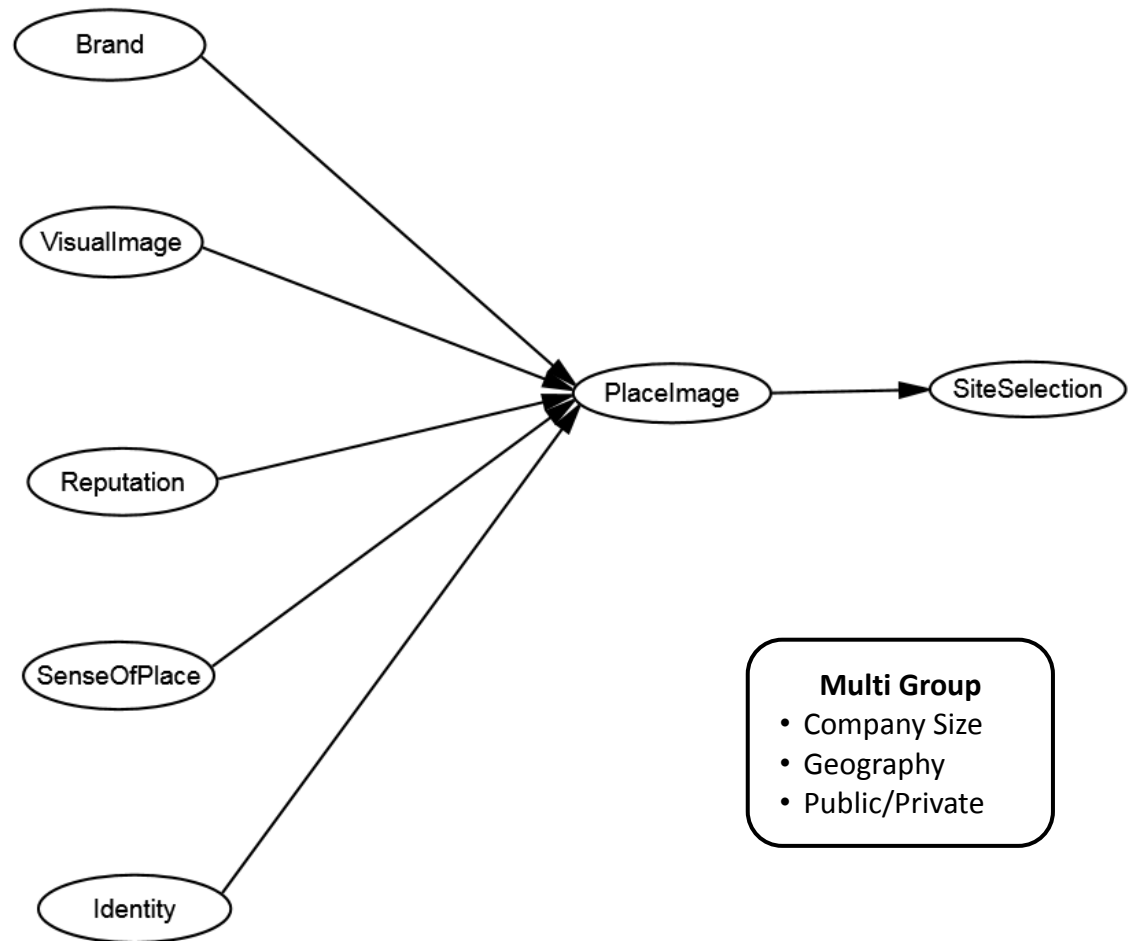
Author	Title	Variables
Love & Crompton (1999)	The role of quality of life in business (re)location decisions	Transportation, ambiance, capital financing, child care, labor, foot and bike trails, business operating costs, climate, entertainment, commuting time, cost of office or plant, cost of relocation, cost of utilities, cost to relocate employees, crime rate, cultural opportunities, environmental quality, government assistance with training, health services, housing costs, labor costs, labor unionization, libraries, government cooperation, recreation, natural environment, outdoor recreation, personal safety , potential for expansion, potential for interaction with other companies, private recreation, proximity of suppliers, universities, proximity to competitors, proximity to headquarters, proximity to customers, state and national forests, wildlife sanctuaries, landscaping, schools, local parks, size of community, skill of labor force, spouse employment opportunities, state government support, tax incentives, taxes on business and property, taxes on personal income and property, work ethic of labor force, workers' compensation insurance rate
Schmenner, Huber, & Cook (1987)	Geographic differences and the location of new manufacturing facilities	Benefits and expenditures, building costs, climate, education, energy pricing, geographic region, labor rate, population density, tax rates, type of plant, unionization rate, wage rate

Hypotheses

This research focuses on business location decisions as a key factor in the economic development effort of places seeking to maintain their current economic base as well as attract new businesses. Specifically, this research investigates how place image plays a role in the site selection process of headquarters. Chapter 2 reviewed the many factors of why businesses locate in certain places, but there is scant literature on how marketing of places influences these decisions. This research aims to quantify the effect place image, and its components (brand, visual image, reputation, sense of place, and identity), has on places through business location decisions. The relationships

between the overall place image and the five aspects of place image -- brand, visual image, reputation, sense of place, and identity -- will be examined independently. The overall research question is “What is the role of place image on the business location decision?” Figure 1 shows the structure of the hypotheses.

Figure 1: Organization of Hypotheses



Hypothesis 1: Place Brand

Place branding, the marketing of a place, has a positive impact on place image. As Don McEachern, the CEO of North Star Destination Strategies, noted, “Your brand is what people say about you when you’re not around” (Trejo, 2008, p. 1). Allan (2004), a

practitioner and the founding director of Placebrands Limited, warned that merely relying on gimmicks and clever taglines would do nothing but hurt the image of a place. The brand must be authentic and build on the strengths of the region, attempting to unify the often chaotic and contradicting messages that exist about the place (Allan, 2004). In the global information economy, it is very easy to become famous for the wrong reasons. Practitioners Van Gelder & Roberts (2007) argue that, when people have made up their minds about the image or brand of a place, it is easier to fit new plans and ideas into the current brand than to recreate it.

Many leaders of destination marketing organizations and convention and visitors' bureaus see branding as merely logos and taglines, but it is far more (Blain et al., 2005; Baker, 2007). Anholt (2010b) condemns what he calls the "logos and slogans" school of thought. He argues that this is based on the belief that perceptions of places can be directly influenced by targeted communications and that the concept of place can be influenced as easily. Anholt (2008) argues that deeds create public perceptions, not words and pictures. There is no evidence to suggest that marketing communications can positively influence public perceptions, meaning such efforts waste taxpayer dollars (Anholt, 2008 and Zenker & Martin, 2011). Branding is a tool for selling the products and services of a place, not for trying to change the overall image or reputation of a place (Anholt, 2010b).

Regardless of the place image, firms of different sizes have different needs when searching for a new site (Carod & Antolin, 2001; Karakaya & Canel, 1998; Moore, Tyler, & Elliot, 1991). The site selection decision of smaller companies is more likely tied to place image than that of medium and large firms (Galbraith & De Noble, 1988). Carod

& Antolin (2001) found that small and medium-sized companies tend to make more subjective decisions than large firms.

Region of the country can also be a factor in business site selection, regardless of place image (Schmenner, Huber, & Cook, 1987; Vlachou & Iakovidou, 2015). A shift has been noted in the literature from studying factors of the business location decision to focusing on sites, their features, and their quality of life options (Vlachou & Iakovidou, 2015). One of the major factors that large firms consider in their site selection decision is ocean port access (Ansar, 2013). This is coupled with site costs, customer proximity, transportation, labor, utilities, land prices, government support, and environmental factors (Ansar, 2013). The United States has been splintered in such a way that much of the recent growth and development has occurred on the east and west coasts of the country while the central regions have faced decline (Guy, Graham, & Marvin, 1997). Additionally, growth in certain industries, such as those focused on technology, are most likely to thrive in existing technology hubs such as Silicon Valley (Dahl & Sorenson, 2007). This has left a void for central states, as most business start-ups have occurred on the east and west coasts.

Public and private firms behave differently as well (Barcena-Ruiz & Casado-Izaga, 2012; Baschieri, Carosi, & Mengoli, 2016; Czamanski, 1981; Feng & Friedrich, 2013; Ogawa & Sanjo, 2007). This difference can be attributed to many factors, including dependence on profitability and wage rates (Barcena-Ruiz & Casado-Izaga, 2012). There has not been significant research in the difference between how public and private firms make location choices, however. Some research suggests that when firms have their initial public offering they may be more likely to move to an area that contains

a cluster in their industry (Baschieri et al., 2016). Therefore, it is postulated that place image and the five antecedents of such are more influential for public firms than private ones.

Guided by the literature, this research explores the effect of place image on site selection specifically within the context of company size, geographic location, and whether the company was public or privately held. The literature suggests the following hypothesis on brand, the intended message of the place:

Hypothesis 1

Brand has (a) a positive direct effect on place image, (b) the positive effect of brand on place image is stronger for small and medium sized companies than large companies, (c) the positive effect of brand on place image is stronger in the east and west coasts of the United States, and (d) the positive effect of brand on place image is stronger for public companies than for private companies.

The survey questions for each will be presented and detailed in Chapter 4.

Hypothesis 2: Visual Image

The visual images people have make up a portion of their overall image of places. A successful place must be able to look honestly at its situation. Any effort to improve the image of a place must begin with a strategic market planning process (Kotler et al., 1993). This process must be a collaborative effort of all relevant players within the place, including city leaders, government, institutional, nonprofit, business representatives (both large and small), and representatives from the citizenry and daytime employment population.

Ashworth & Voogd (1990) argue that the place as a product, both on the producer and the customer side, is heavily dependent on place images. “[T]he potential seller, or purchaser, of a place to live in, work in, invest in or recreate in, depends upon an appreciation of what is expected from the purchase. The characteristics of the place are used to envisage and predict the nature of the place-product and its future use, or for existing customers a validation of current uses” (Ashworth & Voogd, 1990, p. 77). Also, a poor or poorly-defined image is one of the largest hurdles facing cities trying to get their share of the market (Smith, 2006).

Hunt (as quoted in Ashworth & Voogd, 1990) states, “images are more important than tangible resources” (Hunt, 1975, p. 118). This statement implies that only the images held of places matter more than any attribute the places offer the market. Obviously, some images are tied to resources, as for example, being a location that sits on water. However, those images differ greatly – from the picturesque whitewater rafting on the Yellowstone River to the fiery flames of the Cuyahoga River. Images like the San Francisco cable car do little to inform about the place and do not accurately represent its citizenry (Orleans, 1973). Phillips and Jang (2010) surveyed faculty and staff of a Midwestern university and split respondents into those who had and had not visited New York City. In their quick study and correlation analysis, they found that visiting a place does not have a large impact on the images held by tourists or potential tourists. What people found in New York matched what they expected to find, likely because images of the city inundate the media (Phillips and Jang, 2010).

As with branding, some argue that image is everything and that this above all can predict destiny. This fact can be challenged on the basis that images change over time

(Pocock & Hudson, 1978). While Detroit was once known as a world center for the automotive industry as well as research and development, the city center is now seen as a place abandoned and struggling to hold what employment base remains from its legacy. On the flip side, if people had been asked to share their impression of Silicon Valley before it was known as a high-tech hub, their answer would have been nil. Birch (2001) argues that image develops in an incremental fashion: When one image dominates, it is already in the state of change, as was the case in his study on the Bronx moving from the “shame of the nation” to the “all-American city.” Because of the transient nature of city images, they cannot predict a trajectory. Thus, image or city myths (reputation) are created to promote investment and, perhaps more importantly in the Midwest, discourage disinvestment (Goodwin, 1993). The literature on visual image, the symbolic knowledge of a place, suggests the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2

Visual image has (a) a positive direct effect on place image, (b) the positive effect of visual image on place image is stronger for small and medium sized companies than large companies, (c) the positive effect of visual image on place image is stronger in the east and west coasts of the United States, and (d) the positive effect of visual image on place image is stronger for public companies than for private companies.

Hypothesis 3: Reputation

The reputation of places affects overall place image. Avraham (2004) found that the reputation of a city often reflects a real-life problem. Cities must work to solve their

real problems to curb some of the attention they receive (Avraham, 2004). The real-life situation is more important than any media strategy pursued to counter a negative reputation (Avraham, 2004). Barber (2008) states that the relationship between a place and its reputation is a “chicken-and-egg scenario”: A place may have reflected its reputation first or it may have grown to accept and become a likeness of that reputation. A place with a positive reputation will have a positive place image.

The reputations of places are much like the reputations of people, where a bad one is more widely shared than a good one. This principle follows a broad range of psychological phenomena (Baumeister et al., 2001). In general, people process negative information more than positive, which means bad images will tend to hold more weight in people’s overall impression. This follows basic survival logic that people need to be more in tune with threats than innocuous items. Once negative reputations are developed, they are difficult to overcome (Baumeister et al., 2001). This follows the Einstellung effect, in which a currently held belief prevents another alternative from being considered (Bilalić et al., 2010). This assumed relationship between poor reputation, the specific knowledge about a place, and low levels of site selection suggests the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3

Reputation has (a) a positive direct effect on place image, (b) the positive effect of reputation on place image is stronger for small and medium sized companies than large companies, (c) the positive effect of reputation on place image is stronger in the east and west coasts of the United States, and (d) the positive effect of

reputation on place image is stronger for public companies than for private companies.

Hypothesis 4: Sense of Place

A positive sense of place, or how a city, region, or state is experienced by visitors, has an impact on overall place image. Robertson (1999) studied the viability of downtowns and noted that a sense of place was best developed on foot. He also found that welcoming waterfronts and historic and interesting architecture were rated among the best assets of downtowns (Robertson, 1999). Sense of place is created through the space. Similarly, Chamlee-Wright and Storr (2009) found that residents of New Orleans' Ninth Ward who returned after Hurricane Katrina desired unique characteristics of the city that could not be found elsewhere. The sense of place was found to be a strong determinant for those who returned quickly (Chamlee-Wright & Storr, 2009). A sense of happiness, well-being, and even their sense of self was tied to the city.

Durie, Yeoman, and McMahon-Beattie (2005) examined how the history of Scotland creates a sense of place. Arguing that sense of place makes Scotland distinctive and a popular tourist destination, they cite four main components: (1) literature, food, landscape, music, and film; (2) different tastes, differing country; (3) literature and place, nation and region; and (4) heritage, authenticity, and the appeal of Scotland (Durie et al., 2005). They posit that a place without history lacks sense of place (Durie et al., 2005). However, it would be a flawed reading of their work to assume that new places lack authenticity and distinction

Sense of place is often inspired by the natural environment or skyline (Barber, 2008). Sense of place encompasses the scenic nature of a place, which is often used to make inferences about the local people (Nasar, 1990). Sense of place includes the density of an area, its variety of offerings, urban qualities, and positive “street culture” (Jensen, 2007). It is how one feels when inside a place and what one remembers about it. Lynch (1960) notes that the “vividness and coherence” of a place is crucial for enjoyment and use. “By appearing as a remarkable and well-knit place, the city could provide a ground for the clustering and organization of these meanings and associations. Such a sense of place in itself enhances every human activity that occurs there, and encourages the deposit of a memory trace” (Lynch, 1960, p. 119). Hay (1998, p. 25) argues that a sense of place can “provide feelings of security, belonging and stability, like the feelings that arise from a fully developed pair bond.” Sense of place is the memory and the associations made about a place.

Francaviglia (1995) examined the city of Branson, Missouri, in detail. Branson is working to marry the history of the town to the country music scene (Francaviglia, 1995). Branson still has scars from the “Bald Knobber” renegade law enforcement gangs of the 1880s that failed to restore order to the area (Francaviglia, 1995). By embracing this distinct history and even capitalizing on it, Branson has tied its sense of place to its history. The city’s country music scene has given it a distinct sense of place that is widely known.

Over time, as with any form of place representation, the sense of place changes based on societal norms and preferences. In 1997, St. Louis, Missouri, began a public/private partnership spearheaded by the new nonprofit “Downtown Now!” and

embarked on a major infrastructure and amenity campaign to address the way the city was seen. Cloar (2004) found that the city increased the amount of downtown housing options, added new retail and restaurants, built a new major league baseball park for the Cardinals, worked on creative and inviting streetscaping, and had pursued new offices and updates to the convention center. The hope was that the city could maintain its position by staying at the forefront of urban redevelopment and reinvestment (Cloar, 2004). Citygarden, a distinctive collection of public art pieces right downtown, grew out of efforts to create a sense of place.

People tend to trust their own opinions over those of others (Hoch & Deighton, 1989), a fact that is both contradictory and has broad implications for developing sense of place. Additionally, adding new information or learning that initial conclusions were incorrect can change how a person feels about a place (Mann & Ferguson, 2015). Both findings together suppose that having a person visit a place might improve their feelings about the place overall, which has been shown through anecdotal evidence (D. Schute, personal communication, July 11, 2015). Sense of place is the subjective experience in a place and this suggests the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4

Sense of place has (a) a positive direct effect on place image, (b) the positive effect of sense of place on place image is stronger for small and medium sized companies than large companies, (c) the positive effect of sense of place on place image is stronger in the east and west coasts of the United States, and (d) the

positive effect of sense of place on place image is stronger for public companies than for private companies.

Hypothesis 5: Identity

When first meeting someone, one of the first questions asked is, “Where do you live?” The individual identity tied to a place is strong. Harner (2001) argues that identity is “a cultural value shared by the community, a collective understanding about social identity intertwined with place meaning. Place is a process, and it is human experience and struggle that give meaning to place” (p. 660). Identifying with a city is essential to residents, and the stronger the identification is, the more likely residents are to remain rooted in place. This identity is the last component of place image.

Residents’ identity of place is related to place image as individuals are often spokespeople for or against their home. Atkins and Hart (2003) discuss the nature of what they call a “civic identity” as a sense of connection to one’s community coupled with the responsibility of that connection. They argue that the formation of a civic identity is necessary for life in a democracy in that it helps citizens work toward common goals (Atkins & Hart, 2003). Identifying with place is important for keeping residents and keeping them engaged.

Coleman and Williams (2015), working in the field of consumer psychology, found that people tend to make purchasing decisions that fit with their current identity. In fact, they argue that people look at their environment through what they call an “identity-specific lens,” which is a personal examination (Coleman & Williams, 2015). This identity-specific lens may influence how site selection decisions are made since those

with authority are seeing the potential options from their personal points of view. Burghard (2016) noted that the location decisions are often “more emotional than rational” and, when the list of options is between the final two or three choices, emotion becomes the basis for the decision.

In her analysis of Montreal, Boudreau (2003) argues that territory is more than just the geography it represents; it is also a means to broader goals. These goals can include social justice, identity, and quality of life (Boudreau, 2003). Different groups in Montreal mobilized solely on the platform of fighting a movement toward regionalism as an answer to globalization, as it would curtail their individual location identities (Boudreau, 2003). Identity brings people together through place.

Research suggests that entrepreneurs perform better in their home regions. This is due to the fact an area familiar to entrepreneurs is more likely to have the social capital required for a startup company (Dahl & Sorenson, 2007). This may be related to how identity plays a part in the formation of an entrepreneur’s company. The research suggests the following hypothesis on identity, the extent to which people are willing to associate themselves with a place:

Hypothesis 5

Identity has (a) a positive direct effect on place image, (b) the positive effect of identity on place image is stronger for small and medium sized companies than large companies, (c) the positive effect of identity on place image is stronger in the east and west coasts of the United States, and (d) the positive effect of identity on place image is stronger for public companies than for private companies.

Hypothesis 6: Place Image and the Business Location Decision

The final research question looks at the relationship between place image and business site selection. One of the main goals of this research is to create a framework for furthering the academic conversation on the role of place image in the business location decision. It follows from the research that, after the initial set of criteria are met and the decision is left to between two or three locations, place image begins to play an important role in the location decision of firms, especially headquarters. Place image comes into play after the initial site criteria are all met and the final decision set is presented to top management.

People seek to maximize their utility in all areas in which they are able. Many cities, such as those in the Midwest, are hemorrhaging high-skilled individuals as they seek not only higher incomes in more prosperous cities, but also a different sense of place not found in older industrial areas. They are seeking an improved sense of place as well as working to create, symbolize, and establish new selves (Twigger-Ross & Uzzell, 1996). Therefore, it follows that there is an interaction between overall place image and business site selection of headquarters. This relationship is summarized in the following hypothesis as place image is the culmination of the brand, visual image, reputation, sense of place, and identity of residents:

Hypothesis 6

Place image has (a) a positive direct effect on business site selection, (b) the positive effect of place image on business site selection is stronger for small and medium sized companies than large companies, (c) the positive effect of place image on business site selection is stronger in the east and west coasts of the

United States, and (d) the positive effect of place image on business site selection is stronger for public companies than for private companies.

This section has outlined the concepts surrounding place image and business site selection. The next section will discuss the theory driving this research and how it was derived.

CHAPTER III

THEORY GENERATION

Following the literature review, the next phase of this research involved interviews with professionals in the fields of business attraction and tourism in cities on or near the Great Lakes as this area was most accessible. The reason for the small scope in the geography was because this was part previous research that examined cities that had been included in the Rust Belt. Although this could potentially limit the results, this set of cities has faced the most challenges in terms of marketing themselves and bring a deep understanding of all the facets of place image because of this fact. The goal of the interviews of business attraction and tourism was to investigate how the images of each interviewee's respective city had changed over time and how city officials had been working to change the image. These interviews were conducted to look at what organizations in various cities were working on in terms of image creation and dissemination. Interviewees were asked questions regarding how the image of their city has changed and what the cause of that change had been. Responses reflected the

personal opinions of the interviewees, who were all professionals in their fields working diligently in their respective cities on issues related to place image. The interview questions are in Appendix A.

Grounded Theory

This research uses grounded theory, which originated in the work of Glaser and Strauss (1967) on sociological methods and universal theory generation. Glaser and Strauss argued that analyzing patterns, themes, and common categories in observational data could be used to create theory (Babbie, 2004). This method is an inductive approach to the study of social life that involves constantly comparing unfolding observations (Babbie, 2004). It differs greatly from hypothesis testing, which uses theory to generate hypotheses to be tested through observations, and instead follows nearly the opposite pattern. Grounded theory allows for far more creativity and is well-suited for situations that arise in which a theory does not exist in the guiding literature, as is the case with this research done (Lawrence & Tar, 2013). Grounded theory makes its greatest contribution in areas in which little research has been done (Lawrence & Tar, 2013).

There are three basic guidelines for grounded theory formation: 1) periodically step back and ask what is going on here, 2) maintain an attitude of skepticism, and 3) follow the research procedure (Babbie, 2004). Grounded Theory requires that the researcher think about the data in theoretical terms using field notes, interviews, and a traditional literature review (Amsteus, 2014; Paterson, 2013; Simmons, 2010). Also, the theory that is generated must explain something, not merely describe some phenomenon found (Simmons, 2010).

Specifically, Grounded Theory formation involves taking detailed notes on all interactions and interviews, organizing findings, searching for patterns, determining the important components, and deciding what will be shared in the theory (Jennings, Kensbock, Junek, Radel, & Kachel, 2010; Lawrence & Tar, 2013). It involves the continuous interplay between analysis and data collection to build a theory that covers all variations and repeatedly allows for comparison across cases (Jennings, et al., 2010; Lawrence & Tar, 2013). This continuous comparison is what controls for errors within the theory generation.

The main advantages of Grounded Theory are its intuitive appeal, ability to foster creativity, its conceptualization potential, its systematic approach to data analysis, and the fact that researchers using it can gather rich data (El Hussen, Hirst, Salyers, & Osuji, 2014). It additionally encourages the researcher to move through a process of discovery, during which themes and interpretations naturally emerge (El Hussen, et al., 2014). The largest disadvantages of grounded theory are that it is time consuming, can allow for errors when strict methodologies are not followed, and has limited generalizability (El Hussen, et al., 2014).

The grounded theory work in this research began with an exhaustive literature search on place image and how it relates to cities. Interviews were then conducted with professionals working on site selection and place promotion. At this point, an initial place image model was drafted. This model was then shared with business site selection professionals and academics. A second set of interviews was conducted to refine the model and its specificity. The concepts outlined in the next section are the result of this

work. A list of 20 interviewees and one of the strongest quotes from each of them is included in Table I.

Table I: Grounded Theory Interviewees and Top Quotes

Organization	Quote	Related Aspect of Place Image
Detroit Metro Convention and Visitors Bureau	"With the new brand we got national media coverage."	Brand
Positively Cleveland	"We need to improve the perception of affluence."	Reputation
Cleveland+	"Our goal is to grow the economy through marketing...image and perception is a component in decisions."	Visual Image Reputation
TeamNEO	"We are trying to change perceptions."	Reputation
TeamNEO	"People reach judgements on the image they have."	Reputation
Visit Buffalo Niagara	"{We} had to change the image of Buffalo."	Place Image
Buffalo Niagara Enterprise	"{We are} constantly working to dispel perception of image."	Reputation
Allegheny Conference	"Midwest is similar, but all unique."	Place Image
Visit Pittsburgh	"{Investors are} first a visitor."	Sense of Place
Ohio Business Development Council	"The {business location} decision is not rational."	Place Image
The RSH Group, Inc.	"I was at the Silicon Valley Leadership Conference and Sheryl Sandberg of Facebook was asked what community has the best university/business relationships - Her answer, Austin, created a storm of businesses moving into Austin from Silicon Valley."	Place Image
Newmark Grubb Knight Frank	"Data are insufficient for capturing the essence of a place."	Sense of Place
WDG Consulting, LLC	"I believe that image was important for Facebook establishing a presence in Austin, TX."	Place Image
McCallum Sweeney Consulting	"{Image} is usually very important for HQ and R&D facilities."	Place Image
Global Center for Health Innovation	"The sense of place is vastly different than the visual image for Cleveland."	Visual Image Sense of Place
Garner Economics	"Place is a community, all part of a brand and image."	Brand Visual Image
Newmark Grubb Knight Frank	"We did a project for a client that had a very specific brand and culture...we only considered markets that matched their public brand and image."	Brand

Organization	Quote	Related Aspect of Place Image
McGuireWoods Consulting	"When you get to the short list, speed of delivery of a project, quality of life, and often, just a gut feel for the place and whether there is a welcoming environment often come into play".	Sense of Place Identity
Ginovus	"{Image} does not rank in the top five to seven factors, unless there is a negative perception"	Place Image Reputation
Don Schjeldahl Group	"When he worked with Sierra Nevada, image was very important – ended up in Ashville – cool funky town, foodie city, outdoorsy, craft brews."	Place Image Sense of Place

Based upon the literature review, preliminary interviews with place marketing and attraction practitioners, the grounded theory interviews with site selection professionals, a framework of five components of place image were developed: brand, visual image, reputation, sense of place, and identity (Appendix B). These concepts together will herein be referred to as place image. It is important to examine all five of these aspects, as they all interact in the system of how a place is seen by various businesses and actors. Each one of these concepts can shed some light on why businesses choose to stay or leave a place.

A pretest was conducted from a list of business site selection professionals. A short email survey was sent to 45 individuals and 18 responded (40% response rate). The survey listed 10 cities from various regions across the country and asked respondent to “Please list the first word that comes to mind when asked what the *image* is of each place.” The cities included were New York City, Cleveland, San Francisco, Pittsburgh, Detroit, Dallas, Seattle, Indianapolis, Chicago, and Atlanta, which were selected to represent different sections of the country that face different matters with place image. The first analysis of responses was to categorize them as positive or negative. As such, responses including words such as “revitalized,” “global,” and “high tech” were coded as

positive while words like “rust belt,” “struggling,” and “bankrupt” were coded as negative. Any answers that depicted a certain industry (finance) or sports team (Cowboys) was positive. Table II shows the number of positive and negative words that were associated with each city. Seattle had the most positive associations while Detroit had the most negative. It should be noted that this analysis did not control for the location of the respondent; but the respondent pool was spread across the country. Potentially, those located within certain cities had stronger feelings for their home than those outside.

Table II: List of Positive and Negative City-Word Associations

City	Positive	Negative
New York City	16	2
Cleveland	12	6
San Francisco	17	1
Pittsburgh	14	4
Detroit	2	16
Dallas	15	3
Seattle	17	1
Indianapolis	16	2
Chicago	12	6
Atlanta	13	5
TOTAL	134	46

Next, the responses were organized into 11 themes, as outlined in Table III. The highest number of responses was in the industry category, which included words such as “automobile,” “biomed,” “distribution,” “finance,” “headquarters,” and “steel.” Next, was the economic group, which included words such as “bankrupt,” “distressed,” “revitalized,” and “struggling.” Only four responses included place nicknames such as “Big Apple,” “Gotham,” “Lone Star,” and “Mistake on the Lake.”

Table III: Themes of City-Word Associations

Themes	Description	Total
Size	Size of the city	15
Location	Geography	12
Nickname	Common monikers	4
Place/Building/Event	Specific place or event in the city	16
Economy	Government and economic strength	26
Industry	Specific industries associated with the city	46
Company	Specific companies associated with the city	5
Climate	Weather	6
Character	Characteristics of residents	33
Environment	Natural assets	10
Item	Specific products associated with the city	7
TOTAL		180

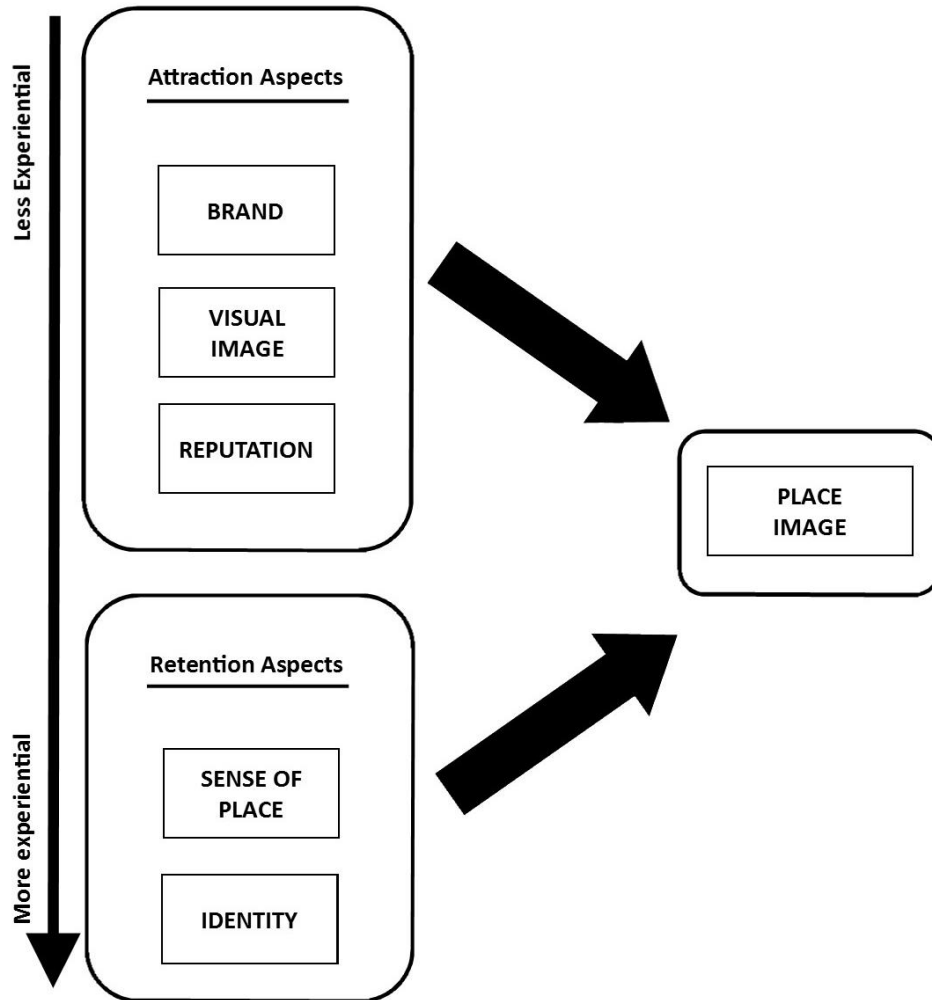
Many case studies regarding how places are seen during the site selection process are in extant academic and practitioner literature (Barber, 2008; Birch 2001; Boyer, 1992; Herstein, & Jaffe, 2008; Laurier, 1993; Ong & Horbunluekit, 1997). As the field of study surrounding place image evolves, one of the key issues facing practitioners and academics alike is the overlapping and contradictory use of terminology (Ashworth & Voogd, 1990). This is addressed through development of the following conceptual model of place image.

Conceptual Model of Place Image

This section presents a model of place image that was originally drafted after the literature review but was reconstructed and refined based on the grounded theory research. The model was adjusted to fit both the literature and the lived experiences represented in the interviews. The proposed conceptual model of place image, presented in Figure 2, addresses identified gaps in the literature. The model ties all five concepts of

place image together and helps answer the research question guiding this study regarding what type of impact place image has on business location decisions.

Figure 2: Conceptual Model of Place Image



As can be seen in Figure 1, the five concepts of place image are divided into two groups – attraction aspects (top box) and retention aspects (bottom box) -- in the conceptual model. The brand, visual image, and reputation of the place are all characteristics utilized by marketing professionals to attract businesses to a specific place. These characteristics can develop away from the place and live outside of it. These three concepts are propagated by organizations and governments, as well as by the media and individuals both inside and outside the place. These concepts are conveyed through

pictures and text and do not require people to physically experience a place. They represent the broad characteristics of a place. However, the concepts of sense of place and identity are concrete place characteristics that can be used by marketing and site selection professionals to retain businesses. To experience sense of place, one needs to be present in the place, one needs to identify with the place, and to have a place identity one must live there. These concepts play a role in the retention of businesses – instead of the solely attraction focus of the characteristics in the top box. An interesting sense of place and a positive place identity will help retain as well as attract businesses.

Additionally, the model proposes that there is a hierarchy from brand to identity, showing an increasing experiential relationship to the physical space (leftmost arrow). The brand can live completely outside the space and be completely unrelated to it. For example, the brand for the city of Pittsburgh is “Mighty. Beautiful.” and shows a logo of a bridge over water (Visit Pittsburgh, 2014). The visual image that a person has of a place can also live outside the place but requires some knowledge of the place, such as visualizing Niagara Falls outside of Buffalo. The reputation of a place requires more specific knowledge; an example is the burning Cuyahoga River for which Cleveland is often remembered. All three can persist in the absence of any direct experience with a place. However, sense of place can be experienced by any visitor, as in the art and agriculture of Detroit’s North End neighborhood creating an interesting sense of place (Huffington Post, 2013). Identity is the concept that is most closely tied to an individual. One must be a current or a former resident of a place to identify with it. For example, residents and former residents of Canton, Ohio, identify strongly with their football-

centric hometown. The concepts of sense of place and identity require experience with a place.

All five concepts lead to an overall place image. While they are clearly delimited here, there is correlation among the five aspects. One goal of this research is simply to clarify the common terms of place image to help guide future research. Another is to test the utility of the conceptual model empirically. Specifically, this research uses the model to examine place image as it relates to the business location decision of headquarters. The next section will focus on the hypotheses used to test the conceptual model empirically.

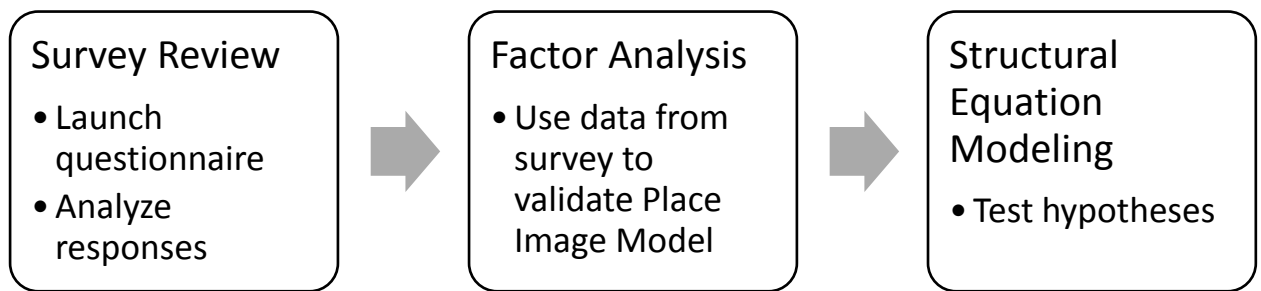
CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY AND DATA ANALYSIS

The overarching question driving this research is “What role does image play in business location decision?” To further focus this query, only business site selection for headquarter locations will be investigated due to two factors: first, searches for headquarter locations follow a distinct path that crosses industry; and second, image has been an important factor in headquarter locations (Henderson and Ono, 2008). Strauss-Kahn and Vives (2008) argue that maintaining the headquarter function is critical to places due to the negative externalities places face if they lose headquarters. The loss of a headquarters contributes to direct and indirect employment loss, decrease in market thickness, and a decrease in the quality of the local labor market. Strauss-Kahn and Vives (2008) also note that headquarters may contribute to the image or trademark of a city and serve as protection against potential economic downturns. Figure 3 outlines the

final three phases of this research: survey review, factor analysis, and structural equation modeling.

Figure 3: Research Outline



Survey

To ascertain the role of place image in headquarter location decision-making, a survey was disseminated to site selection professionals. The survey was web-based through the *Qualtrics* platform under a license that the Maxine Goodman Levin College of Urban Affairs maintains. The survey instrument (Appendix C) was sent by email to site selection professionals from across the entire country via two mailing lists. It should be noted that the sampling frame is limited as there are not available mailing lists that target site selection professionals specifically as they are usually just categorized under real estate agents. The first mailing list was compiled through a snowball methodology as the researcher gathered names and email addresses from organizations, companies, and individuals that specialize in site selection. The list contained 1,264 contacts made through the research process and gathered from the internet. The link was also posted on LinkedIn, Twitter, Reddit, and on various Facebook pages related to site selection. Second, a mailing list was purchased from List Solutions targeting those working in site selection. The original launch of the survey was on April 18, 2017, to only the first mailing list. On Tuesday, April 25, 2017, the link was sent to the purchased mailing list

consisting of 9,671 contacts, of which 8,573 were delivered. Of those, 76 respondents completed the questionnaire (0.0089%).

After the initial launch of the survey via these two lists, additional research to gather more email addresses was necessary as the response rate was very low (n=122). The websites of three large international commercial real estate firms, CB Richard Ellis, Colliers, and Jones Lang LaSalle, were combed for all professionals working in the United States who noted “site selection” as one of their areas of practice. This yielded an additional 2,849 email addresses. Subsequent rounds of emails were sent to this list which was combined with the researcher’s original list created through the research on May 2nd, May 9th, and May 16th. The survey was closed on Sunday, May 21st when a total of 375 responses were received. Of these responses, 174 were incomplete which left a total of 201 responses, just above the 200 responses required for structural equation modeling.

It should be noted that web-based surveys come with inherent bias (Bethlehem & Biffignandi, 2012, p. 386). First, the original mailing list compiled through personal contacts is not exhaustive of the universe of site selection professionals working in the United States. Second, many email server filters may have pushed the invitation for the survey into a junk or spam folder. Next, there is the issue of undercoverage, which refers to those who will never be found in the target population due to some constraint, such as not having access to the internet or not having an email address (Bethlehem & Biffignandi, 2012, p. 283). There is also the issue of overcoverage. This concept refers to responses that may have come from people outside of the target population who should not be part of the analysis but are included because it is not known that they lie outside of

the target (Bethlehem & Biffignandi, 2012, p. 283). Finally, there is the issue of self-selection. This refers to the concept that the sample is based on the decision of a participant whether to complete the survey, and therefore, a probability sample cannot be achieved (Bethlehem & Biffignandi, 2012, p. 303). Rewards for participation have been shown to increase survey response rates (Fowler, 1993, p. 52). As an enticement for participating in this survey, respondents were entered in a chance at winning one of two \$100 Visa gift cards.

The survey noted that the study is examining place image and site selection. It then asked the site selection professional to think about all the clients he or she has assisted in locating a headquarters facility. Survey questions included the size of the company in terms of employment, whether the business is public or private, the state chosen for the headquarters, measures of project success, questions on the five measures of place image, and questions on one measure of place image overall. Respondents were asked to rank the importance of considerations for businesses during the site selection process for a headquarters on a five-point scale: not at all important, slightly important, moderately important, very important, and extremely important.

Brand

Place branding is the way a product is seen in the market derived from culture, politics, and geography (Allen, 2007). There are many scales that measure branding, but few focus on how branding relates to places, so that is why the scale developed by Allen (2007) was adopted. One study identifies place branding in terms of three phases: pre-place experience, place experience, and post-place experience (Allen, 2007). Each of these three stages is tied to individual inputs that can affect it, including the media, education, experience, and word-of-mouth. Their survey questions asked about:

- Celebrity endorsements
- Known entertainment options
- Magazines and printed materials
- News stories
- TV and movies
- What others say

Visual Image

The measurement of visual image, often called destination image, varies greatly throughout the academic literature. Researchers Echtner & Ritchie (1991) performed a comprehensive survey of visual image research. They provide a list of attributes of image used across 14 studies that used structured methodologies. This list of variables gives a basis for measuring visual image as the researchers determined four conclusions: Visual image is based on attributes; it is both functional and abstract; it is based on common themes as well as uniqueness; and it must be measured in a way that captures all aspects of visual image (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991). Drawing on their very detailed investigation, the survey questions were taken from Echtner & Ritchie (1991) and asked about:

- Local architecture and buildings
- Cleanliness
- Attractive urban vibe
- Historic sites and museums
- Scenic qualities

- Recreational amenities
- Tourist attractions

Reputation

Reputation is based on a collection of multiple cognitive representations in a person's mind, is built over time, and is constructed through interactions among the individual and the place (Yang, Shin, Lee, & Wrigley, 2008). In terms of measuring corporate reputation, the most common method is the Harris-Fombrun Reputation Quotient, which was used as a basis for the development of the Fombrun-RI Country Reputation Index. Yang et al., (2008) added political attractiveness. While the Fombrun-RI Country Reputation Index is the most cited, this research used the scale taken from Yang et al., (2008) which included the political climate as an important part of reputation.

Survey questions asked about:

- Emotional appeal
- Physical appeal
- Cultural appeal
- Financial appeal
- Strong leadership
- Global appeal
- Political appeal

Sense of Place

Sense of place refers to how one feels inside a certain place, particularly one's level of satisfaction with it. Researchers Mohan & Twigg (2007) analyzed the results of

the English Housing Survey and extracted variables associated with the sense of place. They found five main foci: crime rates, health and education, cost of living, range of environmental attractions and amenities, and housing and employment prospects. While broad in nature, these five dimensions create a measure for sense of place. The literature does not contain many measures of sense of place, which is why this structure was utilized. The survey questions asked about:

- Crime rates
- Local health and education
- Cost of living
- Range of amenities
- Housing and employment prospects

Identity

Identity refers to how one individually feels connected to a place and identifies with it. Following Breakwell's (1992) four processes of place identity, Knez (2005) outlined how identity and attachment to place relate to climate. Taking out the two measures on the interaction of climate, as they are not relevant for this research, yields eight components of how people identify with their place of residence. These measures include togetherness, feeling like someone from a place (a "Clevelander," a "New Yorker," etc.), positive memories, preference, personal satisfaction, pride, safety, and necessities of life. This measure was chosen as it represents a thoughtful examination of place identity from the psychology literature. The field of psychology has investigated the idea of self in more depth than many other research areas. The remaining survey questions asked about:

- Feeling a sense of togetherness with others who live there
- Feeling like someone from this city/an insider
- Reminiscent of the environment of my childhood/comfortable
- I feel good when I am in this city
- I am or would be proud to live in this city
- Safety and security
- Everything I need in my everyday life is in this city

Place Image

The concept of place image is most often operationalized with two components: cognitive and affective. The cognitive portion is the beliefs and knowledge about the physical attributes of a destination. Recent work has been based in early research by Baloglu and McCleary (1999), who created a general framework for destination image formation. This work was furthered by Elliot, Papadopoulos, & Kim (2011), who argue that, although the research was based at the country level, the model can be applied to any level of place. These findings, highly cited in the literature, guided formation of survey questions asking about:

- Quality of life
- Wealth
- Technology level
- Pleasantness
- Friendly locals
- Trustworthy locals

Site Selection

There are many considerations when selecting a site for a new business operation. The final set of survey questions asked respondents to indicate the levels of satisfaction with their most recent headquarters deal (Castrigano, 2014). As with the issues with measuring sense of place, the literature does not contain viable measures of site selection. Due to that, dissertation research by Castrigano (2014) was utilized. Questions included:

- Overall, how would you rate the success of the site selection project?
- How satisfied were you with the city the company chose?
- How satisfied do you think the client was with the chosen city?
- Do you think your client would recommend the city to a colleague?
- Would you recommend the city to a future client?

Factor Analysis

After data from the online survey were retrieved and aggregated, factor analysis was performed as a data reduction technique. Factor analysis is employed when there are complex, multidimensional relationships among the variables in question (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). This process condenses data into smaller groups called factors, which are the “manifestations of an abstract underlying dimension,” (Hair et al., 2010; Kachigan, 1986, p. 378). This technique is especially useful when there is potential overlap among variables, as is the case with this research where there are likely high levels of correlation across some measures.

Factor analysis is a popular technique in the literature analyzing business location decisions. It is a strong method for both exploratory and confirmatory work that can expand the current knowledge base. Factor analysis reduces the number of variables that are considered important in the business site selection decision by finding structure and relationships among them; the factors themselves can be thought of as different dimensions that underlie the data. Additionally, it removes duplicative variables and indicates those that should be screened out of the model. Typical practice is that only factors with eigenvalues greater than one be maintained and analyzed further.

The first step was confirmatory factor analysis to examine each of the constructs in detail and to eliminate any that may confound the model. Each of the proposed five aspects of place image was examined as its own factor to determine its fit in the confirmatory factor analysis model. Each factor was analyzed with a maximum likelihood extraction method and a promax rotation with Kaiser Normalization in SPSS (IBM Corp., 2013). Promax is an oblique rotation that allows factors to be correlated instead of keeping them independent (Hair, et al., 2010). For the brand component, six variables from the survey were used:

- Celebrity endorsements (BRCeleb)
- Known entertainment options (BREntert)
- Magazines and printed materials (BRMagaz)
- News stories (BRNews)
- TV and movies (BRTV)
- What others say (BROther)

Figure 4 shows the factor loadings for the brand factor. The error terms for BRNews BRMagaz and for BRNews and BROther were covaried to improve model fit. Table IV details each question and the associated factor loadings. Table V shows the model fit indices. The measures for CMIN (chi-square value), SRMR (Standardized Root Mean Squared Residual), RMSEA (root mean square error of approximation), and PClose (p value for testing the null hypothesis) are all acceptable or excellent (Arbuckle, 2014a, p. 599-605).

Figure 4: Factor Analysis for Brand Factor

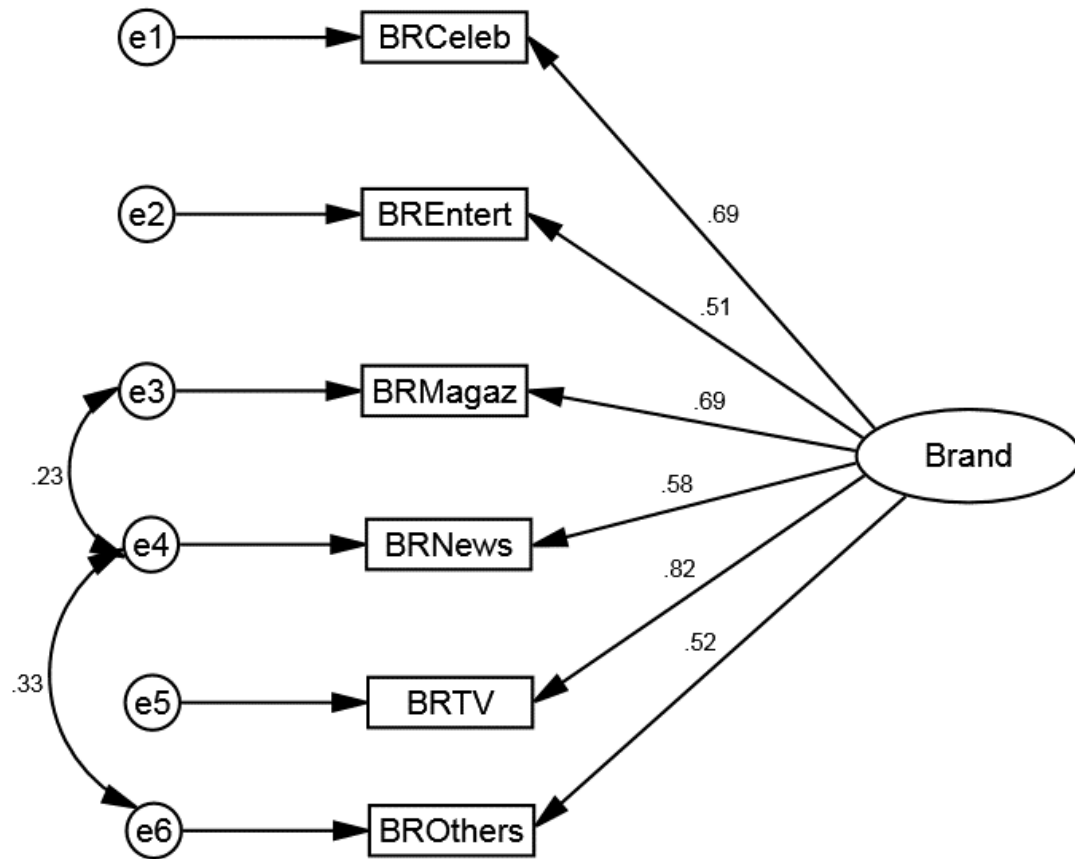


Table IV: Factor Analysis Pattern Matrix for Brand

Survey Questions	Factor Loadings for Brand
Celebrity endorsements	0.69
Known entertainment options	0.51
Magazines and printed materials	0.69
News stories	0.58
TV and movies	0.82
What others say	0.52

Table V: Goodness of Fit Measures for Brand Factor

Measure	Estimate	Threshold	Interpretation
CMIN	12.321	--	--
DF	7	--	--
CMIN/DF	1.760	Between 1 and 3	Excellent
SRMR	0.041	<0.08	Excellent
RMSEA	0.062	<0.06	Acceptable
PClose	0.315	>0.05	Excellent

For the visual image component, seven variables from the survey were used:

- Local architecture and buildings (VIArch)
- Cleanliness (VIClean)
- Attractive urban vibe (VIUrban)
- Historic sites and museums (VIHistoric)
- Scenic qualities (VIScenic)
- Recreational amenities (VIREcreat)
- Tourist sites (VITour)

The error terms for VIArch and VIClean had a high modification index, so e7 and e8 were correlated to improve the model fit (Figure 5 and Table VI). Additionally, the error terms for VIClean and VIUrban and VIScenic and VIREcreat were covaried. The measures of fit are all acceptable or excellent (Table VII).

Figure 5: Factor Analysis for Visual Image Factor

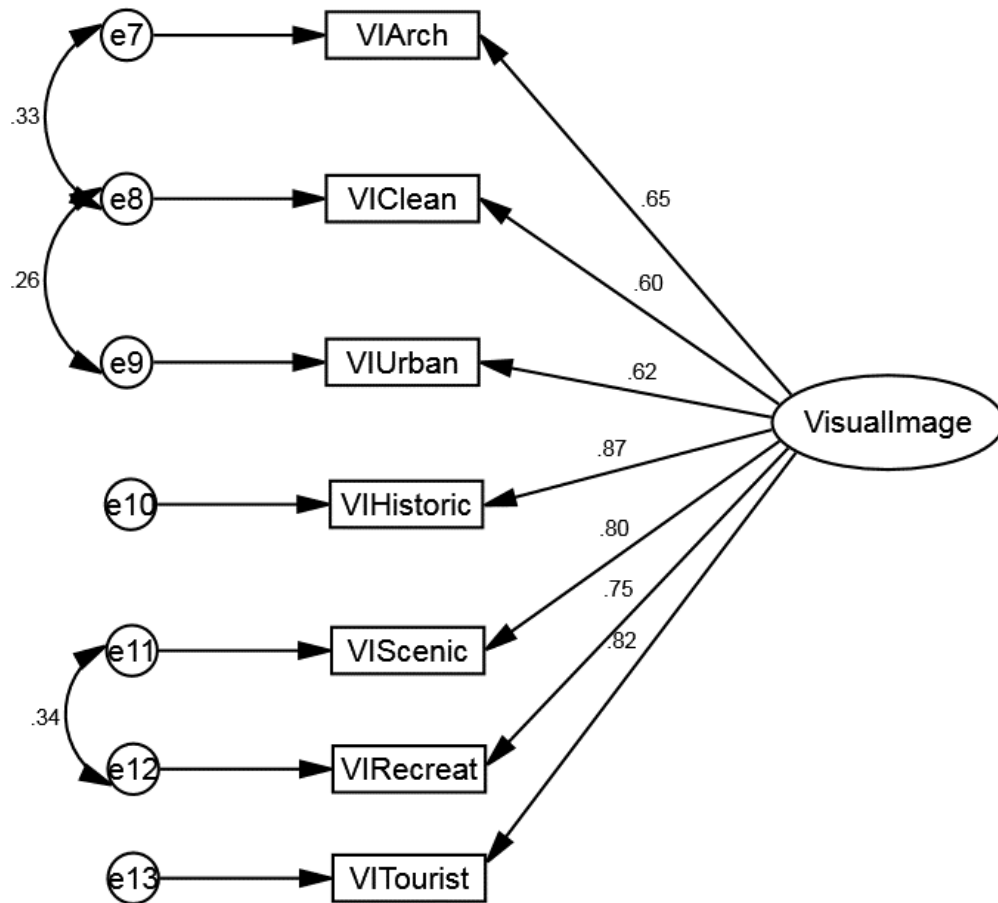


Table VI: Factor Analysis Pattern Matrix for Visual Image

Survey Questions	Factor Loadings for Visual Image
Local architecture and buildings	0.65
Cleanliness	0.60
Attractive urban vibe	0.62
Historic sites and museums	0.87
Scenic qualities	0.80
Recreational amenities	0.75
Tourist sites	0.82

Table VII: Goodness of Fit Measures for Visual Image Factor

Measure	Estimate	Threshold	Interpretation
CMIN	24.786	--	--
DF	11	--	--
CMIN/DF	2.253	Between 1 and 3	Excellent
SRMR	0.034	<0.08	Excellent
RMSEA	0.079	<0.06	Acceptable
PClose	0.112	>0.05	Excellent

For the reputation component, seven variables from the survey were used:

- Emotional appeal (REEmot)
- Physical appeal (REPhysical)
- Cultural appeal (RECult)
- Financial appeal (REFinan)
- Strong leadership (RELeader)
- Global appeal (REGlobal)
- Political appeal (REPolitic)

The variables REFinan and REPolitic were removed to improve model fit (Figure 6 and Table VIII). The error terms for RELeader and REGlobal were covaried as well. All measures of fit were rated excellent (Table IX).

Figure 6: Factor Analysis for Reputation Factor

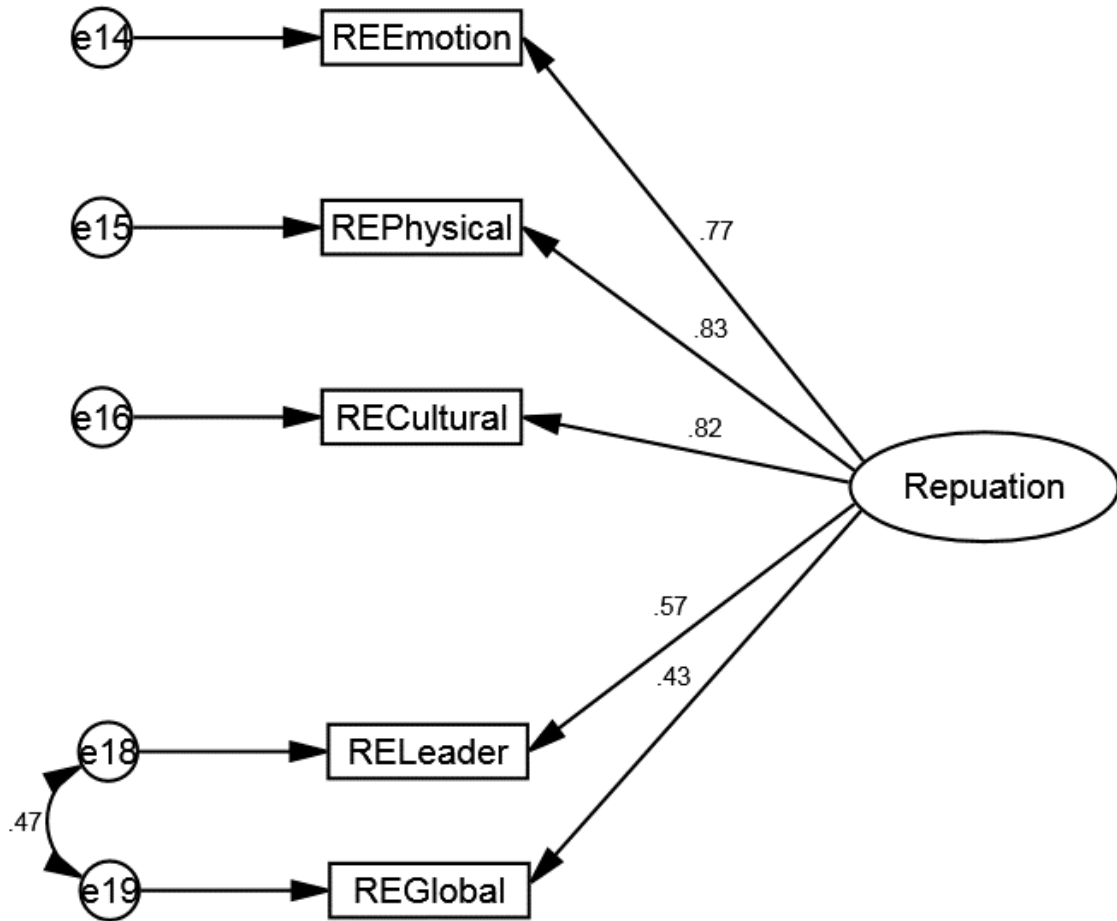


Table VIII: Factor Analysis Pattern Matrix for Reputation

Survey Questions	Factor Loadings for Visual Image
Emotional appeal	0.77
Physical appeal	0.82
Cultural appeal	0.80
Financial appeal	0.43
Strong leadership	0.62
Global appeal	0.49
Political appeal	0.42

Table IX: Goodness of Fit Measures for Reputation Factor

Measure	Estimate	Threshold	Interpretation
CMIN	5.179	--	--
DF	4	--	--
CMIN/DF	1.295	Between 1 and 3	Excellent
SRMR	0.029	<0.08	Excellent
RMSEA	0.038	<0.06	Excellent
PClose	0.499	>0.05	Excellent

For the Sense of Place component, five variables from the survey were used:

- Crime rates (SPCrime)
- Local health and education (SPHealth)
- Cost of living (SPCost)
- Range of amenities (SPAmen)
- Housing and employment prospects (SPHous)

All five of the variables loaded onto the sense of place factor (Figure 7 and Table X).

The error terms for SPCrime and SPHealth were covaried to increase the model fit. As shown in Table XI, the model fit was acceptable or excellent for all measures.

Figure 7: Factor Analysis for Sense of Place Factor

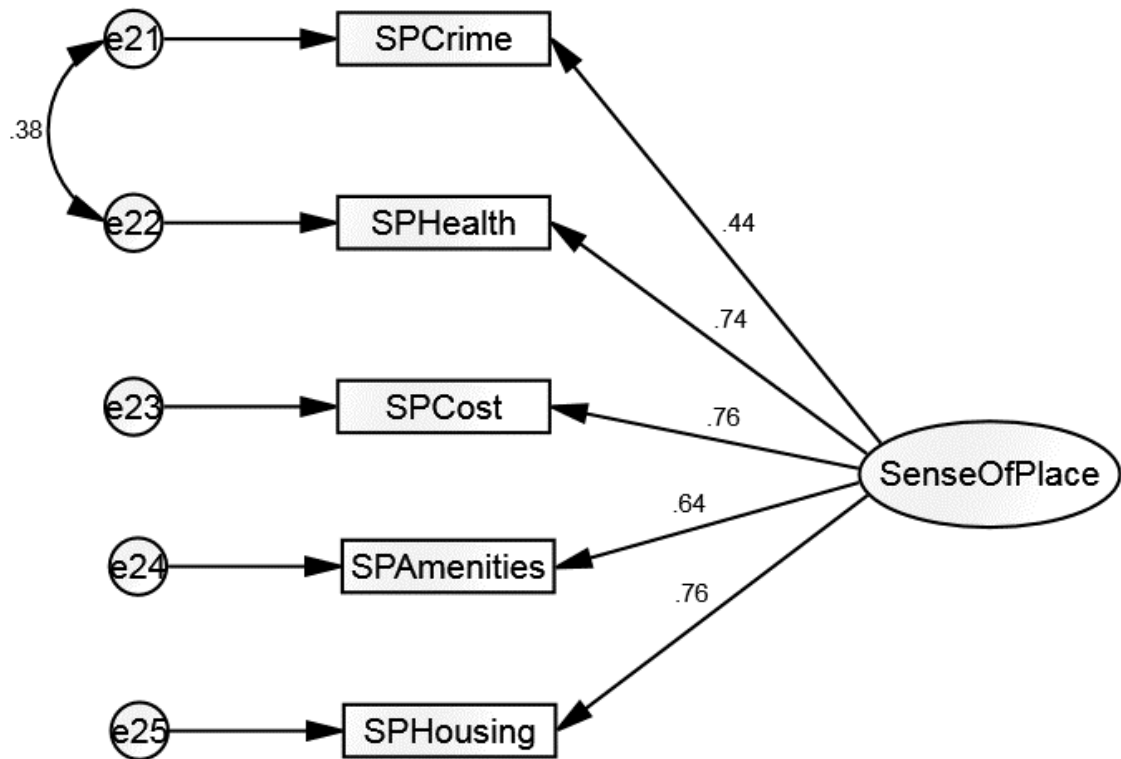


Table X: Factor Analysis Pattern Matrix for Sense of Place

Survey Questions	Factor Loadings for Visual Image
Crime rates	0.44
Local health and education	0.74
Cost of living	0.76
Range of amenities	0.64
Housing and employment prospects	0.76

Table XI: Goodness of Fit Measures for Sense of Place Factor

Measure	Estimate	Threshold	Interpretation
CMIN	4.363	--	--
DF	4	--	--
CMIN/DF	1.091	Between 1 and 3	Excellent
SRMR	0.028	<0.08	Excellent
RMSEA	0.021	<0.06	Excellent
PClose	0.590	>0.05	Excellent

For the Identity component, seven variables from the survey were used:

- Feeling a sense of togetherness with others who live there (Togeth)
- Feeling like someone from this city/an insider (Likesome)
- Reminiscent of the environment of my childhood/comfortable (Childh)
- I feel good when I am in this city (Good)
- I am or would be proud to live in this city (Proud)
- Safety and security (Safe)
- Everything I need in my everyday life is in this city (Need)

Four sets of error terms were covaried for the identity factor: IDTogether and IDLikesome, IDTogether and IDChildh, IDLikesome and IDChildh, and IDSafe and IDNeed (Figure 8 and Table XII). The measures for CMIN, SRMR, RMSEA, and PClose are all acceptable or excellent (Table XIII).

Figure 8: Factor Analysis for Identity Factor

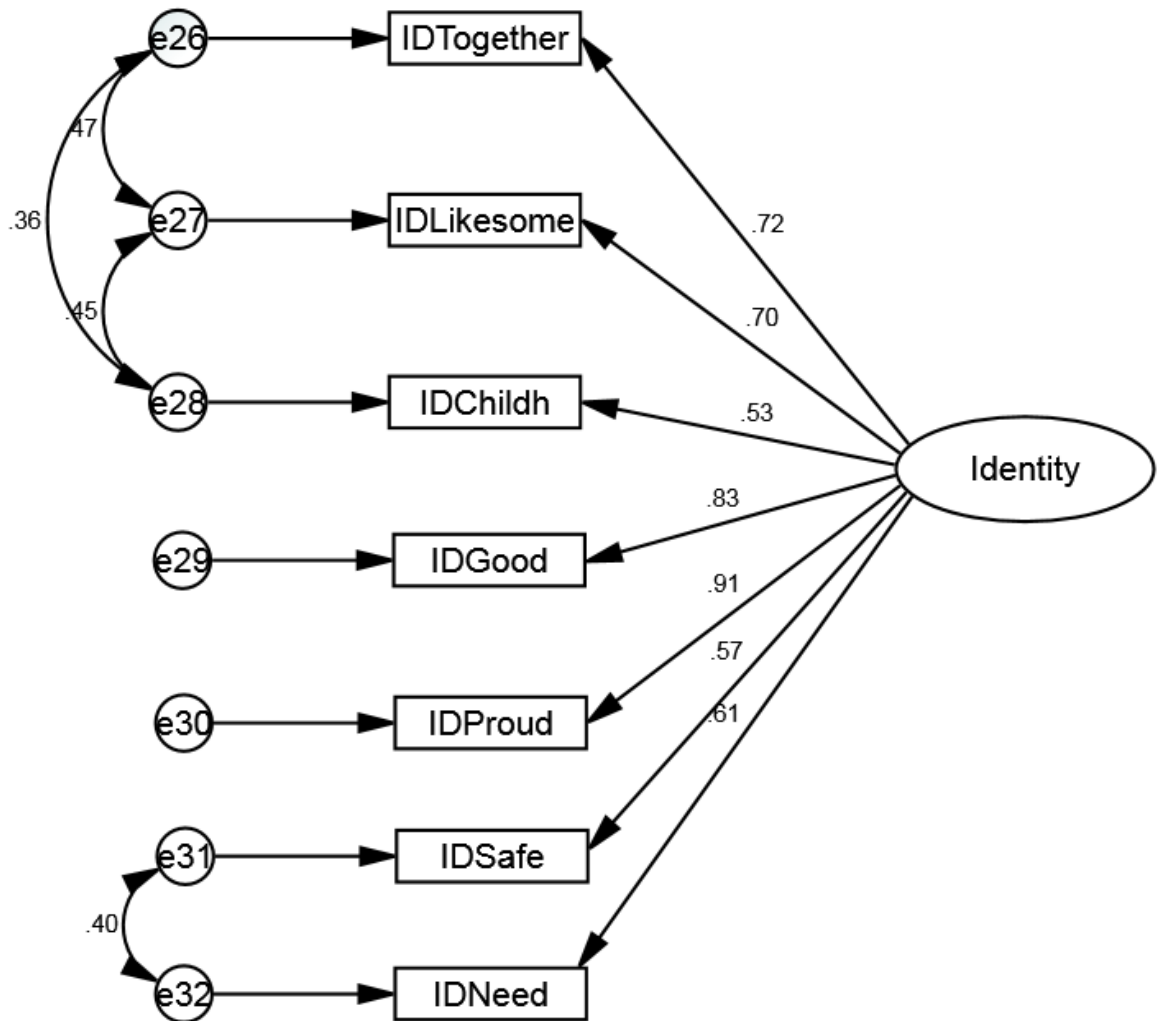


Table XII: Factor Analysis Pattern Matrix for Identity

Survey Questions	Factor Loadings for Visual Image
Feeling a sense of togetherness with others who live there	0.72
Feeling like someone from this city/an insider	0.70
Reminiscent of the environment of my childhood/comfortable	0.53
I feel good when I am in this city	0.83
I am or would be proud to live in this city	0.91
Safety and security	0.57
Everything I need in my everyday life is in this city	0.61

Table XIII: Goodness of Fit Measures for Identity Factor

Measure	Estimate	Threshold	Interpretation
CMIN	20.935	--	--
DF	10	--	--
CMIN/DF	2.094	Between 1 and 3	Excellent
SRMR	0.040	<0.08	Excellent
RMSEA	0.074	<0.06	Acceptable
PClose	0.166	>0.05	Excellent

For the Place Image component, seven variables from the survey were used:

- Quality of Life (PIQuality)
- Wealth (PIWealth)
- Technology level (PITech)
- Pleasantness (PIPleasant)
- Friendly locals (PIFriend)
- Trustworthy locals (PITrust)

One set of error terms were covaried for the identity factor: PIQuality and PIWealth to improve fit (Figure 9 and Table XIV). The five fit measures are all acceptable or excellent (Table XV).

Figure 9: Factor Analysis for Place Image Factor

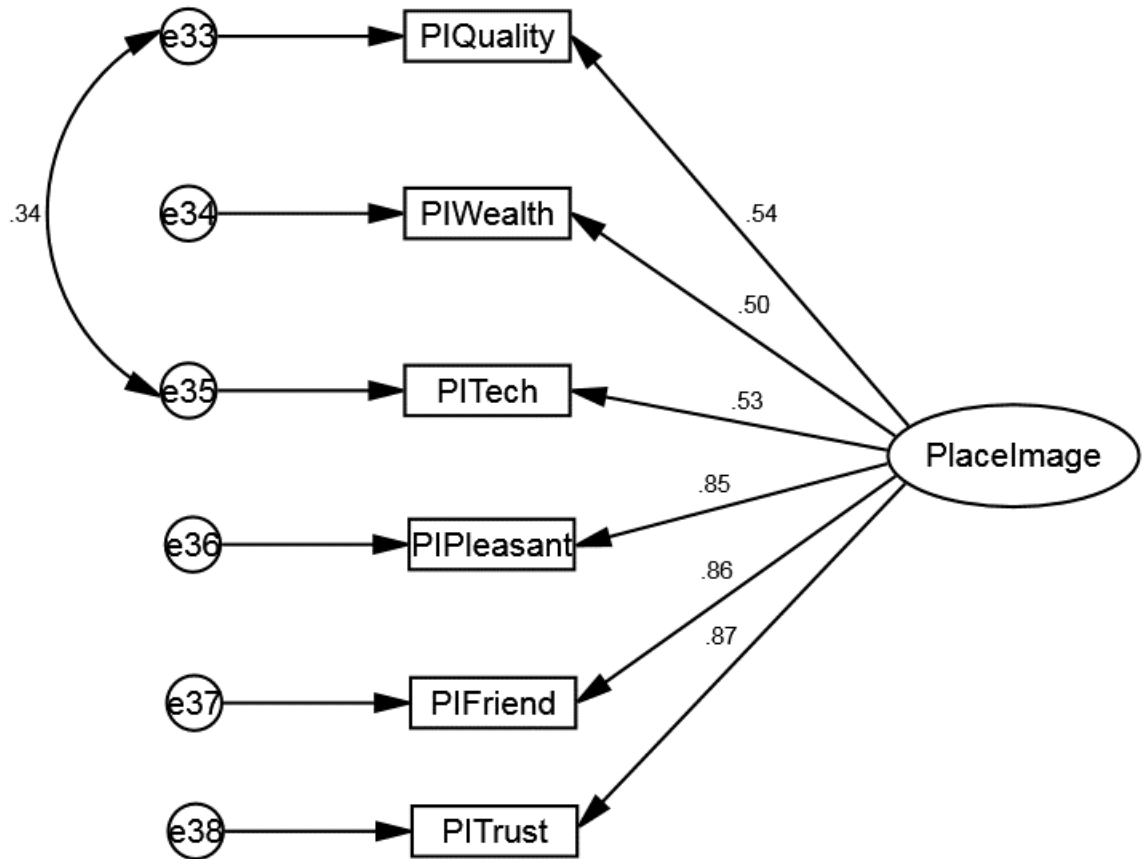


Table XIV: Factor Analysis Pattern Matrix for Place Image

Survey Questions	Factor Loadings for Visual Image
Quality of Life	0.54
Wealth	0.50
Technology Level	0.53
Pleasantness	0.85
Friendly locals	0.86
Trustworthy locals	0.87

Table XV: Goodness of Fit Measures for Place Image Factor

Measure	Estimate	Threshold	Interpretation
CMIN	13.946	--	--
DF	8	--	--
CMIN/DF	1.743	Between 1 and 3	Excellent
SRMR	0.039	<0.08	Excellent
RMSEA	0.061	<0.06	Acceptable
PClose	0.318	>0.05	Excellent

For the site selection component, five variables from the survey were used:

- Overall, how would you rate the success of the site selection project? (SSRate)
- How satisfied were you with the city the company chose? (SSYouSat)
- How satisfied do you think the client was with the chosen city? (SSClientSat)
- Do you think your client would recommend the city to a colleague?
(SSClientRec)
- Would you recommend the city to a future client? (SSYouRec)

Two sets of error terms were covaried: SSClientRec and SSYouRec and SSClientSat and SSYouRec (Figure 10 and Table XVI). The five fit measures are all excellent (Table XVII).

Figure 10: Factor Analysis for Site Selection Factor

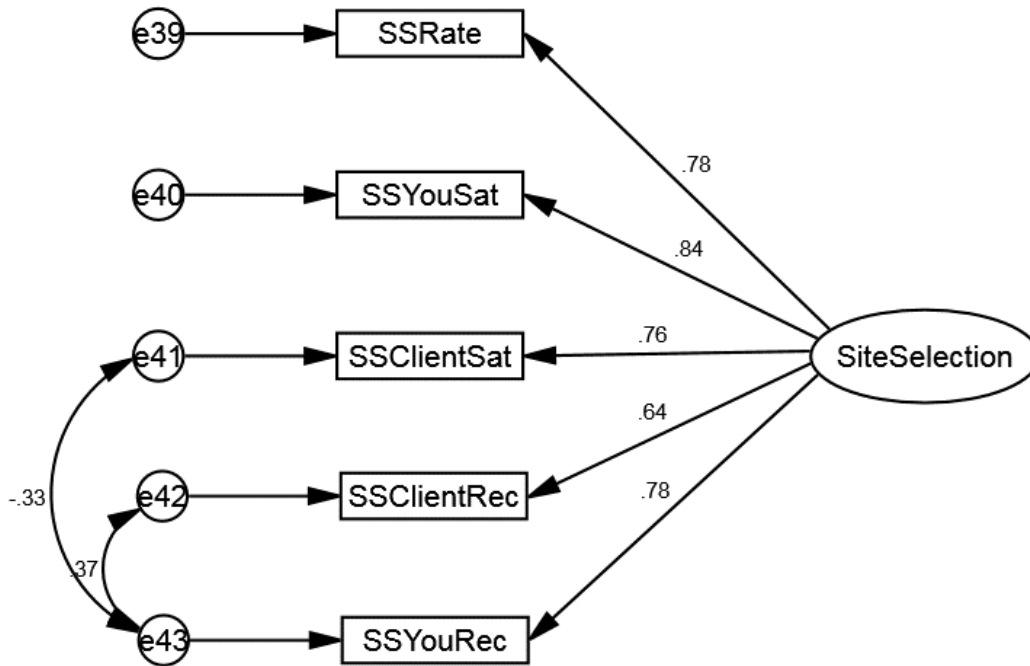


Table XVI: Factor Analysis Pattern Matrix for Site Selection

Survey Questions	Factor Loadings for Visual Image
Overall, how would you rate the success of the site selection project?	0.78
How satisfied were you with the city the company chose?	0.84
How satisfied do you think the client was with the chosen city?	0.76
Do you think your client would recommend the city to a colleague?	0.64
Would you recommend the city to a future client?	0.78

Table XVII: Goodness of Fit Measures for Site Selection Factor

Measure	Estimate	Threshold	Interpretation
CMIN	4.556	--	--
DF	3	--	--
CMIN/DF	1.519	Between 1 and 3	Excellent
SRMR	0.021	<0.08	Excellent
RMSEA	0.051	<0.06	Excellent
PClose	0.396	>0.05	Excellent

Structural Equation Modeling

Structural equation modeling was used to test the model and the associated hypotheses derived from the literature review, interviews, and grounded theory work. Each of the variables were standardized using z scores. The original measurement model is presented in Figure 11. Names for each of the survey question variables are located on the far-left side, feeding into the five aspects of place image. Variable names are also located above the place image variable and to the right of the site selection variable. As was outlined in the literature review section, the main idea is that there are five aspects of place image: brand, visual image, reputation, sense of place, and identity. Then, each of these feed into the overall concept of place image and finally place image feeds into the business site selection decision. Overall, there were 45 observed/measured variables (represented in rectangles) and 7 unobserved/latent variables (represented by ovals). Table XVIII shows the descriptive statistics of the data.

Figure 11: Original Measurement Model

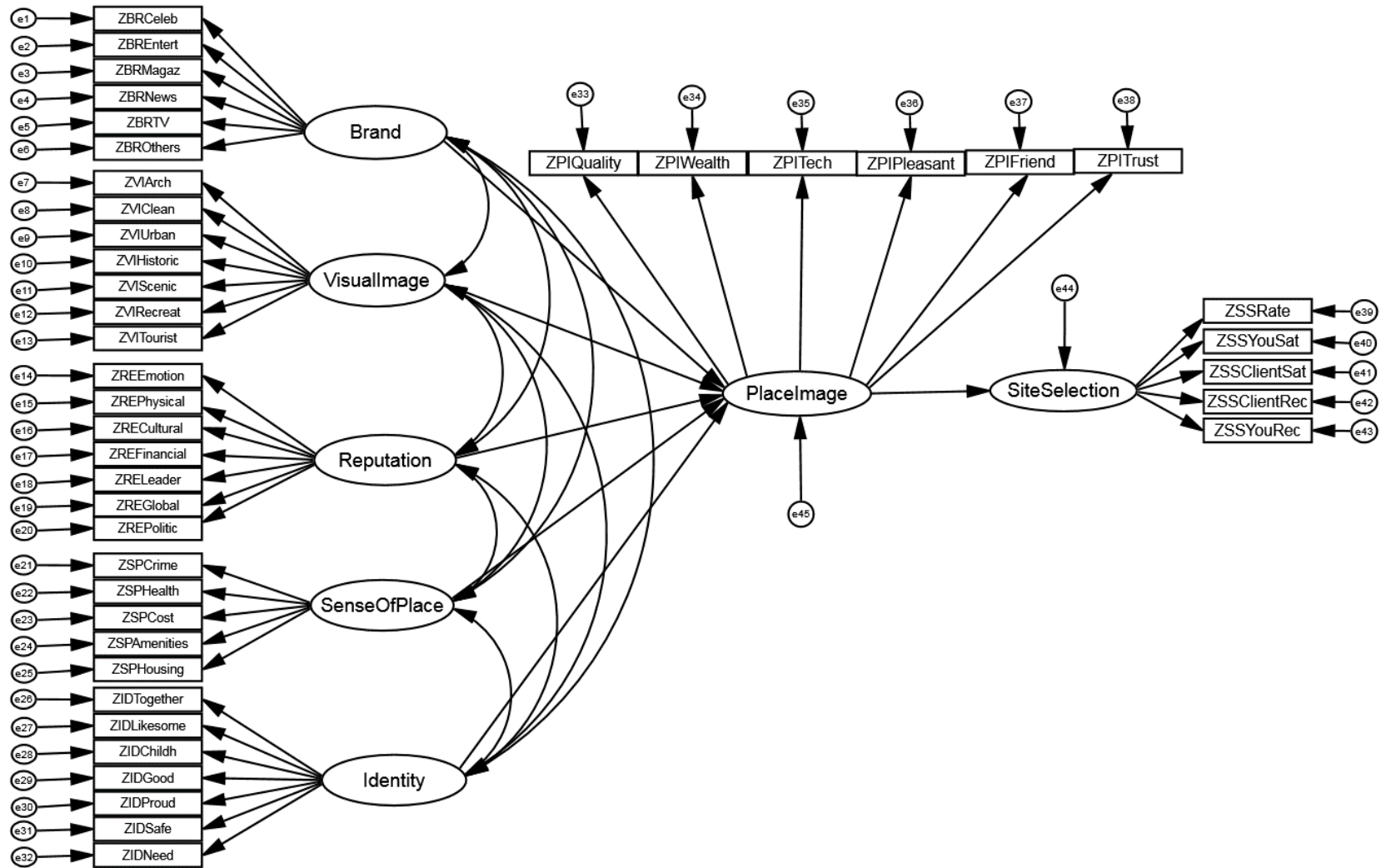


Table XVIII: Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
SSRate	201	1	4	1.60	.701
SSYouSat	201	1	4	1.76	.797
SSClientSat	201	1	4	1.51	.649
SSClientRec	201	1	5	1.65	.781
SSYouRec	201	1	5	1.72	.890
BRCeleb	201	1	5	4.50	.986
BREntert	201	1	5	3.25	1.090
BRMagaz	201	1	5	3.80	1.091
BRNews	201	1	5	3.10	1.123
BRTV	201	1	5	4.19	1.052
BROthers	201	1	5	2.59	1.055
VIArch	201	1	5	2.76	1.093
VIClean	201	1	5	2.22	.827
VIUrban	201	1	5	2.29	1.052
VIHistoric	201	1	5	3.29	1.166
VIScenic	201	1	5	2.85	1.025
VIRecreat	201	1	5	2.50	1.059
VITourist	201	1	5	3.28	1.159
REEmotion	201	1	5	2.67	1.145
REPhysical	201	1	5	2.18	.906
REcultural	201	1	5	2.47	.985
REFinan	201	1	5	1.69	.790
RELeader	201	1	5	2.11	1.099
REGlobal	201	1	5	2.47	1.109
REPolitic	201	1	5	2.75	1.132
SPCrime	201	1	5	2.11	.942
SPHealth	201	1	5	2.04	.910
SPCost	201	1	5	2.09	.944
SPAmenities	201	1	5	2.08	.874
SPHousing	201	1	5	1.91	.896
IDTogether	201	1	5	2.96	1.095
IDLikesome	201	1	5	3.17	1.171
IDChildh	201	1	5	3.94	1.077
IDGood	201	1	5	2.56	1.080
IDProud	201	1	5	2.52	1.109
IDSafe	201	1	5	1.96	.937
IDNeed	201	1	5	2.20	.961
PIQuality	201	1	5	1.86	.845
PIWealth	201	1	5	2.83	.912
PITech	201	1	5	1.86	.880
PIPleasant	201	1	5	2.49	.970
PIFriend	201	1	5	2.73	1.080
PITrust	201	1	5	2.47	1.158

Obtaining model fit in SEM is of critical importance and sometimes requires modifications to be made in the program. After the two variables were dropped from reputation in the factor analysis step (ZREFinan and ZREPolitic), 43 variables remained. Also during the factor analysis, thirteen total error covariances were added.

After numerous attempts to find an appropriate model fit, a final model consisting of 29 observed/measured variables and the original 7 unobserved/latent variables was conducted with four remaining covariances. This improved model fit by increasing the number of responses per variable from 4.9 to 6.1. Table XIX details the variables omitted from the final model. The final results of the factor analysis are presented in Table XX. The factor structure for each theoretical concept was verified.

Table XIX: Variables Removed from Final Model

Factor	Variable Name	Description
Brand	ZBRCeleb	Celebrity endorsements
Brand	ZBROther	What others say
Visual Image	ZVIArch	Local architecture and buildings
Visual Image	ZVIClean	Cleanliness
Visual Image	ZVIUrban	Attractive urban vibe
Reputation	ZREFinan*	Financial appeal
Reputation	ZREPolitic*	Political appeal
Reputation	ZREGlobal	Global appeal
Sense of Place	ZSPCrime	Crime rates
Identity	ZIDSafe	Safety and security
Identity	ZIDChildh	Reminiscent of the environment of my childhood/ comfortable
Place Image	ZPIQuality	Quality of Life
Place Image	ZPIWealth	Wealth
Site Selection	ZSSClientRec	Do you think your client would recommend the city to a colleague?

*Removed during factor analysis

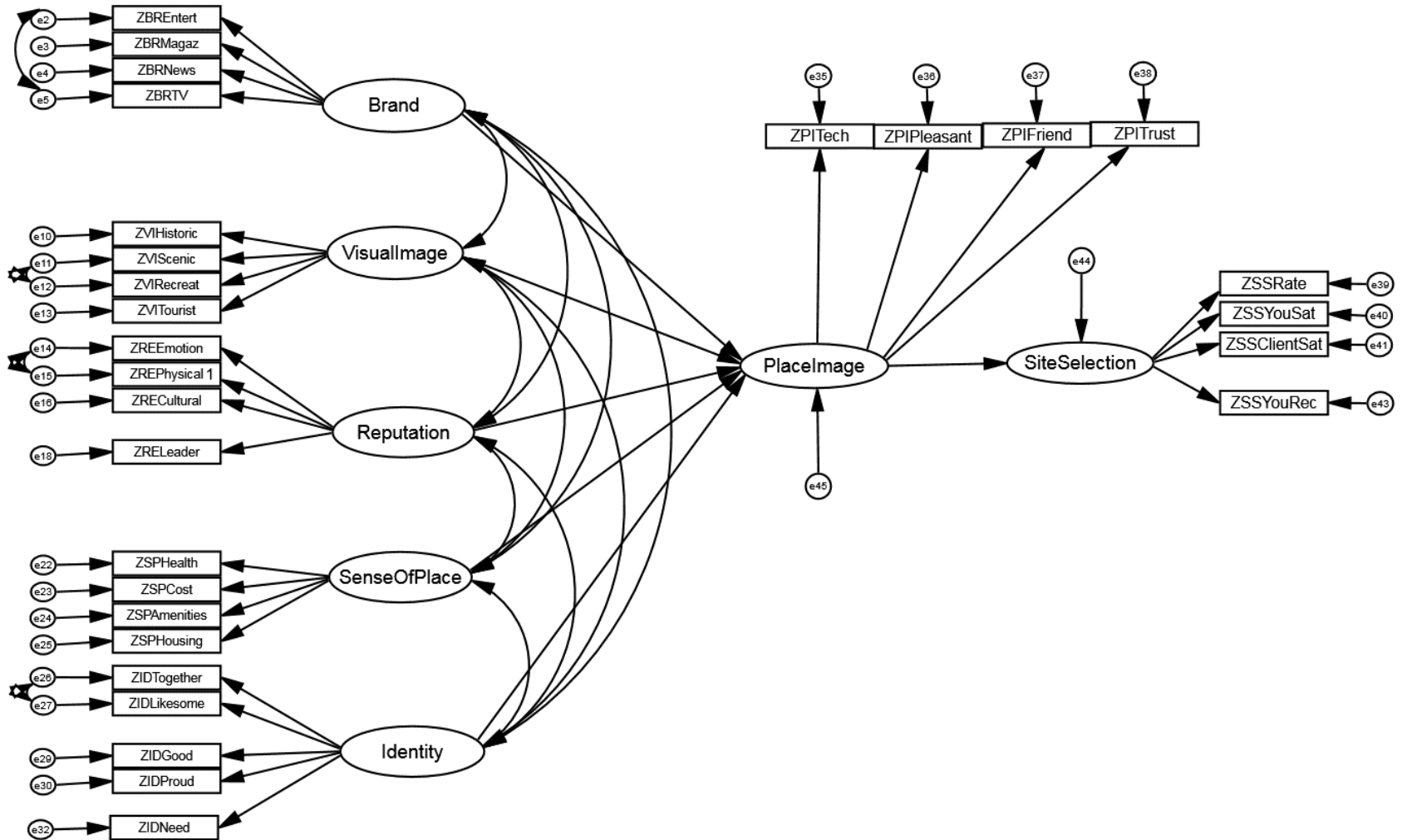
Table XX: Final Factor Analysis Pattern Matrix

Survey Questions	Brand	Visual Image	Reputation	Sense of Place	Identity	Place Image	Site Selection
ZIDNeed	-	-	-	-	0.626	-	-
ZIDProud	-	-	-	-	0.895	-	-
ZIDGood	-	-	-	-	0.831	-	-
ZIDLikesome	-	-	-	-	0.729	-	-
ZIDTogether	-	-	-	-	0.758	-	-
ZSPHousing	-	-	-	0.734	-	-	-
ZSPAmenities	-	-	-	0.692	-	-	-
ZSPCost	-	-	-	0.731	-	-	-
ZSPHealth	-	-	-	0.751	-	-	-
ZRELeader	-	-	0.610	-	-	-	-
ZRECultural	-	-	0.851	-	-	-	-
ZREPhysical	-	-	0.786	-	-	-	-
ZREEmotion	-	-	0.710	-	-	-	-
ZVITourist	-	0.837	-	-	-	-	-
ZVIREcreat	-	0.774	-	-	-	-	-
ZVIScenic	-	0.811	-	-	-	-	-
ZVIHistoric	-	0.835	-	-	-	-	-
ZBRTV	0.717	-	-	-	-	-	-
ZBRNews	0.683	-	-	-	-	-	-
ZBRMagaz	0.720	-	-	-	-	-	-
ZBREntert	0.567	-	-	-	-	-	-
ZPITrust	-	-	-	-	-	0.864	-
ZPIFriend	-	-	-	-	-	0.862	-
ZPIPleasant	-	-	-	-	-	0.835	-
ZPITech	-	-	-	-	-	0.423	-
ZSSYouRec	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.765
ZSSYouSat	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.880
ZSSClientSat	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.727
ZSSRate	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.812

The removal of these variables from the model was necessary to ensure model fit and it is possible that these variables were extraneous to the individual factor and are not required to make the factor acceptable. It is also possible that due to the way these factors were organized together for the first time in the literature, that correlations across

certain mechanisms of the overall model prohibited the use of these certain variables, as may be the case with variables with a very high correlation across factors like the measures for safety and crime were as identified in the correlation analysis. Additionally, ZSSClientRec was correlated to ZIDGood at 0.22; ZBRCeleb was correlated to ZVITourist at 0.44; ZBROthers was correlated to ZVITourist at 0.41; ZVIArch was correlated to ZBREntert at 0.46; ZVIClean was correlated to ZIDProud at 0.56; ZVIUrban was correlated with ZREPhysical at 0.45; ZREcultural was correlated with ZVIRecreat at 0.59, with ZVIScenic at 0.54, and with ZVITourist at 0.50; ZREGlobal was correlated with ZVIHistoric at 0.42; ZREPolitic was correlated with ZSPHealth at 0.39, with ZIDTogether at 0.35, and with ZIDLikesome at 0.32; ZSPCrime was correlated with ZIDSafe at 0.69; ZIDChildh was correlated with ZVIHistoric at 0.41, with ZPIPleasant at 0.43, with ZPIFriend at 0.46, and with ZPITrust at 0.41; ZPIQuality was correlated with ZSPHealth at 0.47, with ZIDGood at 0.47, ZIDProud at 0.48, and ZIDNeed at 0.51; and finally, ZPIWealth was correlated with ZVIHistoric at 0.45, with ZVITourist at 0.49, with ZIDLikesome at 0.44, and ZIDProud at 0.44. This follows the logic that the concepts of place image are all related and correlated to each other. The omission of these variables does insist the question of overall reliability of both the survey questions as a measure of these factors and of the overall model itself. However, the potential benefits of using the modified model to explain the theory outweigh the potential negatives. The final measurement model is presented in Figure 12.

Figure 12: Final Measurement Model



The test for skewness, the measure of how a distribution is symmetrical, of each variable in the final model showed no significant issues with all measures less than +/- 1.96 when the skewness was divided by the standard error of the skewness (Table XXI). This corresponds to a 0.05 level of error (Hair et al., 2010, p. 72). Thus, the assumption about the normality of the distribution of the data cannot be rejected, which is a key requirement of SEM (Arbuckle 2014b, p. 35; Byrne, 2016, p. 120). Kurtosis is the measure of “peakedness” or “flatness” of the distribution when compared to a normal distribution. In terms of kurtosis, none of the variables that remained in the final measurement model had a score well above +/-1.96 (p=0.05) (Hair et al., 2010, p. 72).

Table XXI: Measures of Skewness and Kurtosis

Variable	Skewness	Standard Error / Skewness	Kurtosis	Standard Error / Kurtosis
ZBRCeleb	-2.051	-0.084*	3.556	.096*
ZBREntert	0.030	5.769	-0.601	-.568*
ZBRMagaz	-0.577	-0.297*	-0.517	-.660*
ZBRNews	0.231	0.744*	-0.796	-.429*
ZBRTV	-1.098	-0.156*	0.297	1.148*
ZBROthers	0.477	0.359*	-0.292	-1.168*
ZVIArch	0.173	0.992*	-0.562	-.607*
ZVIClean	0.417	0.411*	0.290	1.178*
ZVIUrban	0.728	0.236*	0.055	6.187
ZVIHistoric	-0.132	-1.301*	-0.757	-.451*
ZVIScenic	0.286	0.600*	-0.273	-1.251*
ZVIREcreat	0.593	0.289*	-0.037	-9.295
ZVITourist	-0.105	-1.639*	-0.654	-.522*
ZREEmotion	0.530	0.324*	-0.473	-.721*
ZREPhysical	0.605	0.284*	0.072	4.738
ZRECultural	0.521	0.329*	-0.034	-9.966
ZREFinan	1.284	0.134*	2.316	.147*
ZRELeader	1.059	0.162*	0.714	.478*
ZREGlobal	0.713	0.240*	0.039	8.680
ZREPolitic	0.388	0.442*	-0.348	-.980*
ZSPCrime	0.685	0.251*	0.153	2.225
ZSPHealth	0.886	0.194*	0.914	.374*

Variable	Skewness	Standard Error / Skewness	Kurtosis	Standard Error / Kurtosis
ZSPCost	0.935	0.183*	1.045	.327*
ZSPAmenities	0.934	0.184*	1.097	.311*
ZSPHousing	1.106	0.155*	1.526	.224*
ZIDTogether	0.195	0.880*	-0.571	-.598*
ZIDLikesome	-0.051	-3.378	-0.832	-.410*
ZIDChildh	-0.791	-0.217*	-0.168	-2.029
ZIDGood	0.511	0.336*	-0.310	-1.100*
ZIDProud	0.609	0.282*	-0.164	-2.079
ZIDSafe	1.110	0.154*	1.356	.252*
ZIDNeed	0.844	0.203*	0.664	.514*
ZPIQuality	1.033	0.166*	1.282	.266*
ZPIWealth	0.222	0.772*	0.428	.797*
ZPITech	0.998	0.172*	1.093	.312*
ZPIpleasant	0.469	0.365*	0.026	13.324
ZPIFriend	0.385	0.446*	-0.426	-.802*
ZPITrust	0.656	0.262*	-0.275	-1.243*
ZSSRate	1.099	0.156*	1.191	.287
ZSSYouSat	0.886	0.194*	0.320	1.067
ZSSClientSat	1.007	0.170*	0.406	.842
ZSSClientRec	1.094	0.157*	1.034	.330
ZSSYouRec	1.137	0.151*	0.897	.381

*Significant at $p=0.05$

The corrected Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality compares the sample with a probability distribution across groups. This test did show very low levels of significance across the data in terms of the differentiators that were examined: company size, state in the U.S., and public/private status (Hair et al., 2010, p. 73). This means that the analysis across the groups is not strong statistically. Additionally, the Shapiro-Wilk test, another test of normality, showed low levels of significance; however, this test is most often used for data sets under 50 observations. Finally, the quantile-quantile (Q-Q) plots were examined to determine if the three differentiators (company size, state in the U.S., and public/private status) are from a population with a normal distribution. Visual inspection of the Q-Q plots showed the variables behaved normally. These three tests, however, do

not show strong support for the breakdown by the three differentiators modeled using multi-group analysis in AMOS.

Based on the literature review and the grounded theory work, the survey and the model presented meet the test for face validity. Beyond this, there are three additional components of reliability. The first is the reliability coefficient which can be measured with Cronbach’s alpha. For each measure, the result was over 0.948, well above the required 0.7 for fit (Hair, et al., 2010, p. 125), indicating internal consistency of the variables. Each of the 7 factors found from the confirmatory factor analysis had a composite reliability (CR) greater than the required 0.7 with CR scores ranging from 0.77 to 0.85 (Hair, et al., 2010, p. 687). The final measure of reliability examined was the average variance extracted (AVE) and all measures were just under the recommended 0.5 level with results from 0.45 to 0.50 (Table XXII).

Table XXII: Composite Reliability and Average Variance Extracted

Factor	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Explained
Factor 1: Visual Image	0.85	0.45
Factor 2: Identity	0.82	0.44
Factor 3: Sense of Place	0.77	0.42
Factor 4: Reputation	0.78	0.46
Factor 5: Brand	0.80	0.50

Discriminant validity is demonstrated through the correlations of the variables and the correlations are all less than 0.05. With this, the minimum requirements of validity have been met.

The final measurement model was run on the 201 complete responses to the survey; just above the suggested $n > 200$ for SEM (Iacobucci, 2009). Table XXIII details the measures of fit for the model. The ratio of CMIN to the degrees of freedom, or CMIN/DF is a common measure of goodness of fit (Arbuckle, 2014a, p. 601). The measures for CMIN/DF and CFI are both excellent, while the measure of RMSEA and PClose are not (Arbuckle, 2014a, p. 605). While there are many varied indices of fit for SEM, the ones chosen for this research are common in the literature. However, they do not give the full and complete picture of overall model fit. While the RMSEA and PClose are not a good fit, the positive result from the other measures allow for the examination of the data (Cangur & Ercan, 2015; Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008; Iacobucci, 2009). The discrepancy between the fit indices is not uncommon and there is much discussion in the literature about what fit indices, if any, should be used. Barrett (2007) argues in fact that the chi-square test is the only applicable test for SEM fit. As there are many different fit indices available, the ones chosen in this analysis are some of the most common found throughout the literature. Because there are so many potential options, it is not possible to have an excellent model fit for each.

Table XXIII: Model Fit Summary for Final Measurement Model

Measure	Estimate	Threshold	Interpretation
CMIN	745.916	--	--
DF	362	--	--
CMIN/DF	2.061	Between 1 and 3	Excellent
CFI	.889	>0.95	Excellent
RMSEA	.073	<0.06	Terrible
PClose	.000	>0.05	Terrible

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

This section outlines the results of the SEM on the final measurement model. Each of the hypotheses will be detailed, the significance noted, and the goodness of fit measures reported.

Brand

Table XXIV shows the four hypotheses associated with brand. Hypothesis (1a) (1a: brand has a positive direct effect on place image) was derived from the measurement model and the model showed that brand does have a positive direct effect on place image. Hypotheses (1b) – (1d) (1b: the positive effect of brand on place image is stronger for small and medium sized companies than large companies; 1c the positive effect of brand

on place image is stronger in the east and west coasts of the United States; 1d the positive effect of brand on place image is stronger for public companies than for private companies) were answered through multi-group analysis in AMOS testing whether there was a difference between the three groups. This same methodology was used for each of set of hypotheses (hypotheses 1-6). The first comparison set was on company size (1b: the positive effect of brand on place image is stronger for small and medium sized companies than large companies). This breakdown was taken from the literature as discussed in Karakaya & Canel, 1998; Carod & Antolin, 2001; and Moore, Tyler, & Elliot, 1991. As the overall sample size was only 201, there were not enough responses to test three different company sizes (small, medium, and large), so the two smaller groups, small and medium, were combined. This may influence the results as often small companies behave in very different ways from medium and large ones, however, due to data limitations it was not possible to examine each separately. For brand, this was not found to be significant. The second group was based on location as detailed in Schmenner, Huber, & Cook, 1987 and Vlachou & Iakovidou, 2015 (1c the positive effect of brand on place image is stronger in the east and west coasts of the United States). The survey asked for the state in which the most recent headquarter transaction was conducted. The answers were organized by those states that are on the west and east coasts and those that were not to create two categories: coastal and middle as was detailed in the methodology. This was found to differ between the groups in terms of brand. Finally, the last group concerned if the client was a public or private company again as detailed in the literature review (Barcena-Ruiz & Casado-Izaga, 2012; Baschieri, Carosi, & Mengoli, 2016; Czamanski, 1981; Feng & Friedrich, 2013; Ogawa & Sanjo,

2007) (1d the positive effect of brand on place image is stronger for public companies than for private companies). This was not found to be significant for brand.

Table XXIV: Significance for Brand Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Significant	CMIN	DF	CMIN/DF	CFI	RMSEA	PClose
(1a) brand has a positive direct effect on place image	Yes	21.388	18	1.188*	.639	.031*	.728*
(1b) the positive effect of brand on place image is stronger for small and medium sized companies than large companies		43.464	36	1.207*	.989*	.032*	.805*
(1c) the positive effect of brand on place image is stronger in the east and west coasts of the United States	Yes	44.808	37	1.211*	.988*	.033*	.805*
(1d) the positive effect of brand on place image is stronger for public companies than for private companies		40.376	36	1.122*	.993*	.025*	.877*

*Excellent fit

Statistically significant path at $p < 0.001$ level

Visual Image

Visual image was the second construct examined. The hypotheses and multi-group analysis follow the same outline as those used for brand. While the effect of visual

image was found to be significant on place image, none of the multi-group tests were significant (Table XXV).

Table XXV: Significance for Visual Image Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Significant	CMIN	DF	CMIN/DF	CFI	RMSEA	PClose
(2a) visual image has a positive direct effect on place image	Yes	24.945	18	1.386*	.993	.044*	.559*
(2b) the positive effect of visual image on place image is stronger for small and medium sized companies than large companies		4.092	2	2.046	.996	.073	.260*
(2c) the positive effect of visual image on place image is stronger in the east and west coasts of the United States		2.062	2	1.031	1.000	.012*	.519*
(2d) the positive effect of visual image on place image is stronger for public companies than for private companies		2.478	2	1.239	.999*	.035	.452

*Excellent fit

Statistically significant path at $p < 0.001$ level

Reputation

Reputation was found to be significant not only in its effect on place image, but also in all three subsets of the multi-group analysis: company size, geographic location, and public/private status (Table XXVI).

Table XXVI: Significance for Reputation Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Significant	CMIN	DF	CMIN/DF	CFI	RMSEA	PClose
(3a) reputation has a positive direct effect on place image	Yes	52.188	18	2.899	.959*	.097	.007
(3b) the positive effect of reputation on place image is stronger for small and medium sized companies than large companies	Yes	83.641	36	2.323*	.945*	.082	.013
(3c) the positive effect of reputation on place image is stronger in the east and west coasts of the United States	Yes	84.021	36	2.334*	.944*	.082	.013
(3d) the positive effect of reputation on place image is stronger for public companies than for private companies	Yes	85.618	36	2.378*	.943	.083	.010

*Excellent fit

Statistically significant path at $p < 0.001$ level

Sense of Place

Following the opposite trend of reputation, sense of place was not found have a significant positive direct effect on place image; even though it was found to be significant, the model fit was terrible (Table XXVII). It was also not found to have any significant differences among the multi-group analyses, likely due to terrible model fit.

Table XXVII: Significance for Sense of Place Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Significant	CMIN	DF	CMIN/DF	CFI	RMSEA	PClose
(4a) sense of place has a positive direct effect on place image		234.461	35	6.699	.816	.169	.000
(4b) the positive effect of sense of place on place image is stronger for small and medium sized companies than large companies		122.471	38	3.223	.898	.106	.000
(4c) the positive effect of sense of place on place image is stronger in the east and west coasts of the United States		115.152	38	3.030	.906	.101*	.000
(4d) the positive effect of sense of place on place image is stronger for		99.043	38	2.606*	.922	.090	.002*

public companies than for private companies							
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*Excellent fit

Statistically significant path at $p < 0.001$ level

Identity

As with sense of place, none of the measures for identity were significant (Table XXVIII). Unfortunately, the model fit was too poor for the measure of identity to assign significance. Since sense of place is more of an abstract measure of place image referring to how one feels inside a certain place measurement error or the concept could have played a role in the its lack of significance. Survey questions asked about site selectors’ “Feeling a sense of togetherness with others who live there;” “Feeling like someone from this city/an insider;” “Reminiscent of the environment of my childhood/comfortable;” “I feel good when I am in this city;” “I am or would be proud to live in this city;” “Safety and security;” “Everything I need in my everyday life is in this city.” Dornsbach and Traugott (2008) indicate that it is difficult for both linguistic and conceptual equivalence to occur in survey samples across cultures. In this case, the place image culture is rooted in sociology, psychology, and social science, while the survey takers are individuals rooted in economic development and business. This could have contributed to misaligned construct validity between these two groups.

If these measures were significant under this model it would indicate that the softer side of place image including sense of place and identity were important when headquarters are looking for sites. However, the lack of significance indicates that as

these measures stand within the study, they are not important associated factors in headquarters site selection.

Table XXVIII: Significance for Identity of Place Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Significant	CMIN	DF	CMIN/DF	CFI	RMSEA	PClose
(5a) identity has a positive direct effect on place image		107.678	26	4.141	.860	.193	.000
(5b) the positive effect of identity on place image is stronger for small and medium sized companies than large companies		199.808	52	3.842	.873	.120	.000
(5c) the positive effect of identity on place image is stronger in the east and west coasts of the United States		182.198	52	3.504	.884	.112	.000
(5d) the positive effect of identity on place image is stronger for public companies than for private companies		177.188	52	3.407	.889	.110	.000

*Excellent fit

Statistically significant path at $p < 0.001$ level

Place Image

For place image, the only hypothesis that was found to be significant was the first; place image does have a positive direct effect on site selection (Table XXIX).

Table XXIX: Significance for Place Image Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Significant	CMIN	DF	CMIN/DF	CFI	RMSEA	PClose
(6a) place image has a positive direct effect on site selection	Yes	26.589	19	1.399*	.990*	.045*	.550*
(6b) the positive effect of place image on site selection is stronger for small and medium sized companies than large companies		50.120	38	1.319*	.984*	.040*	.693*
(6c) the positive effect of place image on site selection is stronger in the east and west coasts of the United States		56.930	38	1.498*	.976*	.050*	.472*
(6d) the positive effect of place image on site selection is stronger for public companies than for private companies		37.864	38	.996	1.000*	.000*	.953*

*Excellent fit

Statistically significant path at $p < 0.001$ level

Model Characteristics

The results of the analysis generally support the conceptual model as well as the relationships between brand, visual image, reputation, sense of place, identity, and place image and the relationship between place image and site selection. Table XXX shows the coefficients based on the standardized direct effect for each measure (coefficient).

The first of each of the hypotheses (1a – 6a) found that all five aspects of place image do have an impact on place image. Although the measures for sense of place and identity were not found to be significant and had poor model fit. Additionally, the hypothesis that place image has a positive effect on site selection was significant, thus supporting the main model.

Table XXX: Model Path Coefficients for Main Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Coefficient	Significant	Support
(1a) Brand – Place Image	.501	***	Yes
(2a) Visual Image – Place Image	.328	***	Yes
(3a) Reputation – Place Image	.494	***	Yes
(4a) Sense of Place – Place Image	.414		Yes*
(5a) Identity – Place Image	.436		Yes*
(6a) Place Image – Site Selection	.317	****	Yes

*terrible model fit

*** statistically significant path at $p < 0.001$ level

**** statistically significant path at $p < 0.01$ level

This supports the concepts throughout the literature that there are different ways to examine the aspects of place image (Gertner, 2011; Kotler et al., 1993). As was discovered in the literature review, there is no single definition that captures all the different pieces of place image and this shows to be true from the findings.

There is one main implication for businesses that can be gleaned from this: there are different slices of how a place is seen in the market that can be considered when deciding upon a location. While the visual image and reputation may be the forefront in the minds of individuals, brand showed important from the research findings and should not be ignored. As Don McEachern, the CEO of North Star Destination Strategies noted (as quoted in Trejo, 2008), “Your brand is what people say about you when you’re not around.”

Additionally, these findings support one of the original tenets of the research: there is a difference between brand, visual image, and reputation with the concepts of sense of place and identity. The first three are attraction aspects that cities and regions use to entice companies and individuals to consider them. They do not require any physical contact with the place. The other two aspects, sense of place and identity, however, can be considered more in terms of retention of companies and individuals and require one to have contact with the place. These last two concepts are not only the hardest to define, but were potentially the most difficult for survey respondents to understand, especially as they relate to the business site selection decision.

The second set of hypotheses (1b – 6b) looked at whether there was a difference in how companies behaved based on their size (Table XXXI). The only relationships that were found to be different was that of brand and reputation on place image. The model showed that both brand and reputation was more significant for small and medium sized companies than for larger ones. This may be because small and medium sized companies are still looking to secure their place in the market and there might be concerns that their location could harm their business.

Table XXXI: Model Path Coefficients for Company Size Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Small & Medium	Large	Significant	Support
(1b) Brand – Place Image	.541	.386	***	Yes
(2b) Visual Image – Place Image	.103	.099		No
(3b) Reputation – Place Image	.510	.349	***	Yes
(4b) Sense of Place – Place Image	.542	.180		No
(5b) Identity – Place Image	.642	.287		No
(6b) Place Image – Site Selection	.280	.389		No

*** statistically significant path at $p < 0.001$ level

The size of the firm has been found in the literature to be a key determinant of firm behavior (Karakaya & Canel, 1998; Carod & Antolin, 2001; Moore, Tyler, & Elliot, 1991). The model showed that there was no significant difference across size of the firm for any factor except reputation and brand, even though other studies have shown that small and medium sized companies tend to make more subjective decisions than larger ones (Carod & Antolin, 2001; Galbraith & De Noble, 1988).

The literature shows that different sized companies can behave in very different ways. Thus, when a business attraction agency or government is courting a company, special attention should be paid to their individual needs based on their size. The research showed that reputation mattered more for small and medium-sized companies than for large companies. The reputation of places affects overall place image as well and often the reputation of a city reflects a real-life problem (Avraham, 2004). While a large company might be able to look past a negative reputation, this might impede movement for smaller firms. Perhaps, places with poor reputations should put more of a focus on attracting larger firms.

The third set of hypotheses (c) examined whether there was a difference in how companies behaved based on the geographic location in the United States that was ultimately chosen (Table XXXII). Brand and reputation turned out to be more significant in the middle states than on the east and west coasts, contrary to the original hypothesis. There was no significant difference for the other measures.

Table XXXII: Model Path Coefficients for Geographic Location Hypotheses

Hypothesis	East & West Coasts	Middle America	Significant	Support
(1c) Brand – Place Image	.358	.682	***	No
(2c) Visual Image – Place Image	.099	.102		No
(3c) Reputation – Place Image	.342	.644	***	No
(4c) Sense of Place – Place Image	.300	.549		Yes*
(5c) Identity – Place Image	.400	.640		Yes*
(6c) Place Image – Site Selection	.449	.178		No

*terrible model fit

*** statistically significant path at $p < 0.001$ level

Previous research has shown that the region of the United States is a factor (Schmenner, Huber, & Cook, 1987; Vlachou & Iakovidou, 2015). This may be tied to ocean port access and shorter international flights (Ansar, 2013). This research has shown that brand and reputation matter more in the middle of the country, potentially to combat heavy competition from the coasts (Dahl & Sorenson, 2007; Guy, Graham, & Marvin, 1997). This is interesting as places in states on the interior of the country might want to focus more on improving their brand and reputation in the market than is necessary for coastal locations.

One major concern with this question is the lack of knowledge on where the company started before choosing their new location. A move from the Great Lakes to the Rocky Mountains might look very different than a move from Chicago to Los Angeles. Also, the survey did not ask respondents if the client was moving from within the United States or from abroad, which might have affected this question. Concerning the difference in reputation, perhaps this is because places located in states that border an ocean already have a more positive reputation than those not bordering salt water. Also,

the poor reputation of any one region, for example the Great Lakes area, might have skewed these results.

The final test of differences was that of public companies and private companies (1d – 6d). Table XXXIII shows the results of this analysis. Here again, only reputation comes up showing a difference: reputation matters more for private companies than for publicly-traded ones.

Table XXXIII: Model Path Coefficients for Public/Private Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Public	Private	Significant	Support
(1d) Brand – Place Image	.461	.565		No
(2d) Visual Image – Place Image	.104	.097		No
(3d) Reputation – Place Image	.485	.522	***	No
(4d) Sense of Place – Place Image	.345	.501		Yes*
(5d) Identity – Place Image	.436	.608		Yes*
(6d) Place Image – Site Selection	.006	.470		No

*terrible model fit

*** statistically significant path at $p < 0.001$ level

Per the literature, public and private firms behave quite differently (Barcena-Ruiz & Casado-Izaga, 2012; Baschieri, Carosi, & Mengoli, 2016; Czamanski, 1981; Feng & Friedrich, 2013; Ogawa & Sanjo, 2007). It was posturized that place image would be stronger for public companies than for private firms. The results showed that only reputation was significant and that it was stronger for private firms than for public ones. This could also point places with a poor reputation toward a direction of focus on publicly-held companies. This could potentially increase their success rate as their poor reputation would matter less to a public company. As was the case with company size, this attribute might differ because private companies have more on the line: they are potentially going public, growing with a new site, or poising themselves for a buyout. These would put value on being in a place with a good reputation.

Overall, reputation seemed to have the largest impact across the sub-categories and thus should be examined by business attraction and government agencies. Gottlieb (1995) studied the relationship between amenities and the firm location decision and found that firms were not so much looking for amenities in their locations, but were looking to avoid certain disamenities. Cities must work to solve the real problems to curb some of the attention placed on them (Avraham, 2004). The real-life situation is more important than any media strategy invoked to counter a negative reputation (Avraham, 2004). Any work to improve the reputation of the place would improve the likelihood of being chosen by headquarter firms.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION

Conclusion

When businesses are looking for a new site, they are not just interested in the coastal photographs or the local cafes, but instead a complicated bundle of what a place offers. Business site selection has been a well-studied field for the last 100 years comprising of ever-changing factors and components (Czamanski, 1981; Karakaya and Canel, 1998; Krugman, 1991; LaFountain, 2005; Porter, 2000; Weber, 1929). Site selection of a new location (or relocation) is a weighty decision that businesses face because it requires a significant financial investment and commitment of the company. To even be considered as a potential site, a possible location must first meet certain requirements in terms of land, labor, taxes, access to natural resources, transportation, and other considerations specific to the end use of the site. It is not until the potential set of sites has been narrowed to a final few options that place image, the entirety of how a

location is seen in the market, becomes a factor. Previous research identified the items that factor into the business site selection decision such as labor, transportation, and taxes (Czamanski, 1981; Koo and Lall, 2007; Strauss-Kahn & Vives, 2008; Weber, 1929) while the softer side of place image is omitted and deemed unimportant.

Studying the role of place image is important for both economic development practitioners and academics as immense resources, many of them public, are spent in this area as cities, regions, and states compete for a finite number of businesses searching for locations. Economic development organizations, chambers of commerce, and destination marketing organizations spend both time and money marketing and courting business and site selection professionals to their region in hopes of positively influencing their final location decisions.

However, place image is a complicated concept. The multidisciplinary discussion contributes to confusion in the academic and practitioner literature. This research fills a gap in the literature by quantitatively proving that there is a relationship between different aspects of place image and business site selection. Clouse and Dixit (2016) established a model of place image consisting of five aspects: brand, visual image, reputation, sense of place, and identity. Their work clarified terminology in the place image literature that had been previously erratic and conflicting, established common definitions and terms, created a model of place image, and established a shared construct for future use. Clouse and Dixit (2016) separated place image into five factors so that concept can be examined in detail by both economic development scholars as well as management and advertising academics whereby expanding the previous research domain.

This research contributes to the economic development and place image literature by determining that place image is a factor in business site selection decisions. It fills a much-needed gap in the academic and practitioner conversation on the aspects of business site selection because it provides a conceptual and quantitative framework around the implications of place image on businesses site selection. The connection of the components of place image to the headquarters site selection decision makes a valid argument for what was colloquially known but not measured: that place image matters and it can influence the business of site selection.

First, this research creates a qualitative framework around the multidisciplinary and confounding literature in place image and distills it into its five main aspects: brand, visual image, reputation, sense of place, and identity. This framework establishes a single model of place image for the first time and is an important contribution for the place image and business site selection conversation. The author surveyed site selection professionals on each of these components (brand, visual image, reputation, sense of place, and identity) was empirically tested via factor analysis and structural equation modeling determine their overall association to place image, the importance of company size, the effect of geographic location, and the difference between public and private companies. In the end, the effect of place image on site selection was tested via structural equation modeling, for company size, geography, and public/private status.

The paper found that brand, visual image, and reputation had a positive effect on place image, and place image had a positive direct effect on site selection decisions as hypothesized. Brand was found to be significant in the model, pursuant to previous literature (Anholt, 2010b; Baker, 2007; Blain, et al, 2005; MacKay & Fesenmaier, 1997).

Visual image as previously studied (Ashworth & Voogd, 1990; Kotler, et al., 1993; Paddison, 1993) was also supported as a piece of the overall construct of place image. Finally, reputation was found to be the most interesting portion of the analysis as it was significant in all measures (connection to place image, stronger away from the coasts, more important for small and medium sized companies, and more important for private companies). This also follows previous research indicating the importance of reputation for place image and economic growth (Anholt, 2007; Anholt & Hildreth, 2004; Avraham, 2004; Avraham & Ketter, 2008; Baker, 2007; Kotler et al., 1993). The measures for brand and reputation showed a stronger effect middle states which the author can attribute to lagging growth in central states (Dahl & Sorenson, 2007; Guy, Graham, & Marvin, 1997). Reputation was more important for small- and medium- sized companies and private companies which the author can credit to the different ways that small and medium sized firms behave in the market (Carod & Antolin, 2001; Galbraith & De Noble, 1988; Karakaya & Canel, 1998; Moore, Tyler, & Elliot, 1991).

The measures for sense of place and identity were not found to be significant in the final model and this is likely due to measurement error for the fact that these components of the framework are the hardest to understand conceptually which may have made it difficult for survey respondents to concretely attribute these feelings to survey response. Specifically, sense of place was not supported in this model, which contradicts much previous research including Chamlee-Wright and Storr (2009) and their work in New Orleans showing that a strong sense of place is the factor that brought people back to the Ninth Ward. It also does not conform to the work of Jensen (2007) that showed that experiences in a place have a profound impact on perception. Finally, identity as a

construct was not supported in this model. The work of Lalli (1992) argued that identity was crucial for places and Anholt (2010a) contended that being proud of one's city was paramount.

Place image is personal. While the average person from Detroit may think that their city is magnificent, many outsiders see it as a place that is not currently a sound investment due to crime, corruption, and the trouble with the domestic car industry. However, an expat from Detroit now living abroad may have different feelings about the city and may choose to invest in his nostalgic home. Often cities have been left off the list of potential locations because they did not have the appropriate "curb appeal" for their customers and workforce. Any work to improve place image needs to work on a personal level.

Good reputations are hard to come by and bad reputations are hard to lose. Sometimes place image does not matter – unless it is bad. Over 48 years ago, the Cuyahoga River in Cleveland caught on fire, an event that many in the city were not alive to witness, but in many circles that one day of bad press led to almost 50 years of ridicule, much from people that had never visited the city. A building boom in the 1990s brought some positive attention to the city, as did a few good years of Cleveland Indians baseball. Recently, a potential shift was seen in 2016 – the year that local hero Stipe Miocic won the Ultimate Fighting Championship (UFC) heavyweight title, the minor league Cleveland Monsters won the Calder Cup, the famed Cleveland Cavaliers led by LeBron James won the NBA title, and a safe Republican National Convention showcased all the recent improvements downtown to an international audience. The national media, and arguable the local media as well, may have started to see Cleveland differently.

Perhaps this was due in part to how Clevelanders started feeling, in a way stronger and able to compete nationally.

Cleveland was not the underdog anymore, and it was easier to put down Detroit in the meantime, because at any given time, there must be winners and losers. The Midwest dominated during the industrial revolution only to be given the negative “rust belt” moniker on the heels of that declining prosperity. The mighty giants of that time had all fallen: Pittsburgh, Detroit, Cleveland, and other Midwest cities. Only when major changes occur in these cities are they seen differently in the market. Pittsburgh saw some of this after they made major strides to improve their downtown and focused on the great contributions of their institutions of higher learning. Cleveland is seeing some of this rebirth now. Detroit will have to wait through its current situation, but potentially will not see themselves leave the bottom until another city falls.

Policy Implications

This research has major implications for business attraction agencies and supports much of the current research while expanding it, modeling it, and quantifying it (Ashworth & Voogd, 1990; Kotler et al., 1993; Paddison, 1993). First, it must be shared that there are various entries into the entire concept of place image. Just a visual image or a brand does not tell the entire story of a place. Each aspect of the place should be examined, altered and improved as necessary, and shared with the site selection and business communities. By examining the attributes of a place from a regional standpoint, it is easier to see how the place functions in the national and international marketplace (Kotler, et al, 1993). This idea might be able to help some regions overcome a bad rating

on one aspect, like reputation, by having a stunning brand and visual image. Ashworth & Voogd (1990) argue that the place as a product both on the producer and the customer side is heavily dependent on place image as people expect something of their location decisions and have hopes for the future of the place as they fit into it. Also, a poor or poorly-defined image is one of the largest hurdles facing cities trying to get their share of the market (Smith, 2006). Place image matters.

Place image is different than that first set of location criteria like tax rate and land area that must be met as it is not readily quantifiable or clearly articulated. It is subjective and is not understood in the same way by each person. It also plays different roles in different industries and by disparate end uses of the site. In Cleveland, people may be familiar with the Cuyahoga River fire, the losing Cleveland Browns, or the Ariel Castro kidnapping case or on the other side may know the city for the Cleveland Orchestra, the Cleveland Clinic, LeBron James and the Cleveland Cavaliers, and the Rock and Roll Hall of Fame and Museum. Place image is personal.

So, what does it take to change a place image? For this, each of the five aspects must be examined by local leadership, business attraction and retention organizations, chambers of commerce, and destination marketing organizations. Branding must be on point and clear. Physical improvements and iconic installations will improve the visual image. Reputation advances slowly with many positive stories required to overcome the negative ideas that pervade. Sense of place develops as people take time to explore the interesting places that each city offers; from art to food to scenery. Identity improves when people start to feel proud of their city for a new reason. For some of these aspects, the measures may not change. For others, it is winning a major league championship, a

new public space or skyscraper, or even a taco shop opening downtown. Places shape their image.

Place image can change in an instant. Ferguson, Missouri was not a household name until August 9, 2014, when Michael Brown was fatally shot by a white police officer which sparked unrest and rioting. However, before that day, Ferguson did not have any type of place image outside of Greater St. Louis. In the early 1990s, a water treatment plant in Milwaukee, Wisconsin had a bacteria outbreak killing some and sickening many. This, not unlike the current situation in Flint, Michigan, can halt investment. The overall place image can trail the reality of the place even when conditions improve. Sometimes, lacking a poor image is sufficient.

Place image can also change slowly. As Detroit faces significant obstacles to rebuilding and improving its overall place image in the market, small factors like the 2011 commercial that features hometown hero Eminem showing off the Chrysler 200 can help. The super bowl advertisement showed the car being “imported from Detroit” and gave the city a sense of cool, portraying them as both tough and resilient. However, this can just as easily be shot down as headlines blame the entire city name for failings of the car industry.

Some scholars state that there is no evidence to suggest that marketing communications can positively influence public perceptions and it is a waste of taxpayer dollars (Anholt, 2008 and Zenker & Martin, 2011). This research makes the case that because place image can be a deciding factor in the headquarter location decision, there is merit in investing in the image of a place. At the final moment of decision between three potential sites, the choice becomes more emotional than rational (Burghard, 2016).

When the overall place image of one site is better than the alternatives, it will be chosen in the end and therefore this can impact cities searching for investment.

Businesses can shape place image as well. When a company moves in, moves out, or goes out of business, the city is often seen as a major player in the change. One large company or cluster in a certain location can trigger new interest in that place.

While Austin, Texas was not poorly received in the market, Facebook's decision to locate offices there led many to reexamine the city. Some companies are looking for a certain feel in the cities they choose. This may have to do with attracting talent or the interests of the C-suite executives (Chief Executive Officer, Chief Financial Officer, Chief Operations Officer, etc.) who will have to call the new city home. Some cities are not even considered because they do not meet the brand and culture for which a company is searching. As Facebook improved prospects for Austin, the big three car manufacturers in Detroit are consistently hurting the overall place image of the Motor City.

As the business environment continues to evolve, the role of place image could become increasingly important. This is especially true at the point of the final decision between three potential cities as the business location decision is not rational at that point. It instead lies with the decision makers and their personal choices. The choice is often made on a gut feeling about the best location which is influenced heavily by place image. Government officials and attraction agencies can work together to persuade site selectors and C-suite executives with impressive site visits that convince them to choose their city over the competition.

Limitations

There are several key limitations with this research. This research, which for the first time summarizes this multi-disciplinary literature and deconstructs its five components is exploratory as the five components of place image were deconstructed for the first time. Beyond this, this dissertation continues to open the scholarly conversation on how locations are advertised and sold and how this marketing can affect where businesses locate their headquarters. This is not intended to be the conclusion, but instead an introduction to this discussion.

The next was the number of surveys that were completed. Ideally, more than 201 responses would have been analyzed, however, due to time and budgetary constraints coupled with an overall low response rate, the survey was stopped when the suggested minimum was achieved. Due to the small sample size, more detailed analysis by sub-groups like smaller regions and company size was not possible.

Another key limitation with this survey was that it was only sent to site selection professionals. Ideally, C-suite (Chief Executive Officer, Chief Financial Officer, Chief Operations Officer, etc.) or real estate professionals within the companies making the site selection decision would have also been queried. This would have given potentially more accurate results to why and how certain decisions were made within the company and potentially uncovered other details not exposed in this analysis. Perhaps this is where the sense of place and identity concepts would have shown to be substantial.

A major limitation with SEM is that although this model has shown to be significant, that does not mean that this is the only model that makes sense (Hoyle, 1995; Hox, 1998). What the SEM has shown is that this is one possible answer to the

relationship between the aspects of place image and site selection; it has not been falsified by the data (Hox, 1998). This means that while this model works in this instance, specifically examining the headquarter decision process, a competing model for headquarters could also be shown true and even be a better fit of the data.

The final limitation to this research is the relatively small generalizability of the work. The survey focused only on headquarter decisions in the United States, which is a limitation both in scope and geography. First, headquarter decisions are undertaken with more care than some other site selection decisions like back office or warehousing as this is where C-suite executives will live. The requirements and interests for other types of facilities are drastically different and thus the results are not generalizable beyond headquarters. Also, there might be some impediments for a place in the United States to attract a headquarters relocation from within the country based on place images that are more known across the country. These problems, however, are not as much of an issue for international firms who tend not to have deep rooted place images of American cities; save those like New York, Washington, DC, Chicago, or Los Angeles.

Directions for Future Research

There are many possible directions for the future of research on place image. In terms of the next steps, additional modeling can be conducted to see how the model might be improved, both through an additional survey of C-suite executives and through the examination of the model in other industries that are not looking specifically for a headquarters site. Under these new constraints, a new quantitative model will likely perform differently across industries as a manufacturing site or that of a call center does

not require the same level of attention as that of a headquarters. In addition, beyond this discussion of place image and site selection decisions, very little literature exists internationally on how these two phenomena interact. With difference in regulation, taxation, and labor practices in an international context may reveal different results.

This research suggests that there is a part of the site selection conversation that needs to include the concepts of place image and place image is not perfectly quantifiable. Sometimes the essence of a location and how it performs in the market cannot be measured. Businesses are looking to maintain their competitive edge and the way a place is seen has implications for these decisions. Also, quality of life conditions that are woven throughout the concepts of place image are hugely important for executives that want to live in a nice place themselves and have a satisfied, quality workforce.

The next step for this research is to search for future funding that could tackle some of the points mentioned above to improve the research and deepen our understanding of the aspects of place image. A survey of C-Suite executives and real estate professionals working across industries could provide very different and potent results that could further enhance the current model.

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APPENDIX

Appendix A: Pilot Interview Questions

1. What is the stated goal or mission of your organization/department?
2. Can investment be made in a higher piece of the triangle without a strong footing in the piece below it? For example, can investment be made in branding without a strong image?
3. In the past 10 years has there been a change in the place representation of your city?
4. Was it a positive change?
5. What triggered the change?
6. What will improve the regional market?
7. How can image help improve the perception of affluence?
8. How do you tell that story?
9. How do you justify the public spending?

Appendix B: Grounded Theory Interview Protocol - Business Site Selection Professionals

1. What are the initial factors that businesses consider when making a new location decision?
2. When a small list of cities is being considered, what are the factors that influence the final location decision?
 - a. Does image place a role in this decision? Why?
 - b. How important is image in the location decision?
 - c. Can you give an example?
3. Is image different than the objective factors that determine a business location site like tax rate and land availability?
4. What creates a place image?
 - a. How is branding related to image?
 - b. How are visual images related to image?
 - c. How is reputation related to image?
 - d. How is sense of place – the experiences one has in a place – related to image?
 - e. How is the identity of the residents related to image?
 - f. Are there other factors that are part of the overall place image?

Appendix C: Site Selector Survey Instrument



Maxine Goodman Levin
College of Urban Affairs

Hello –

My name is Candi Clouse and I am a Ph.D. Candidate at Cleveland State University. I am conducting this survey as a component of my dissertation on the business location decision for firm headquarters. This survey is aimed at understanding how place image factors into the decisions of firms. The survey will take approximately 5-10 minutes of your time.

The benefit of this survey is that it will provide information on how place image relates to site selection. The risks associated with taking the survey are no more than daily living. All responses are strictly confidential and the data will be combined, so that no information can be attributed to any one individual. All data will be gathered and for dissertation research; findings will be presented in written form and in presentations. The only direct benefit to participating in the research is the chance to win a gift card. Based upon the number being surveyed, the odds will be better than 1/8,370.

If you have any questions regarding the study or this survey, please contact Candi Clouse (216-687-2452; c.clouse@csuohio.edu) or Dr. Ashutosh Dixit, Ph.D. advisor, at a.dixit@csuohio.edu.

All questions are voluntary and you, as a willing party, may stop at any time without any negative consequences. All individuals will remain confidential; no identified persons, business, or information will be made public without his/her written permission.

I understand that if I have any questions about my rights as a research subject, I can contact the Cleveland State University Institutional Review Board at (216) 687-3630.

I am over 18 years old and have read and understand the consent form and agree to participate.

This study is examining place image and site selection.

Note: Please think about all the clients you have assisted in locating a headquarters facility.

Thinking about your last headquarters site selection project, please answer Questions 1-8.

Question #1: How many employees does the client company have?

- a. 1-499
- b. 500-999
- c. 1,000+

Question #2: Was the client business publicly traded or private (singly or collectively held)?

- a. Public
- b. Private

Question #3: What state did the client company choose for its headquarters?

Question #4: Overall, how would you rate the success of the site selection project?

Highly Unsuccessful	Unsuccessful	Neutral	Successful	Highly Successful
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Question #5: How satisfied were you with the city the company chose?

Highly Unsatisfied	Unsatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Highly Satisfied
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Question #6: How satisfied do you think the client was with the chosen city?

Highly Unsatisfied	Unsatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Highly Satisfied
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Question #7: Do you think your client would recommend the city to a colleague?

No	Not Likely	Neutral	Likely	Yes
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Question #8: Would you recommend the city to a future client?

No	Not Likely	Neutral	Likely	Yes
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Question #9: Thinking of any company relocating its headquarters, please indicate the level of importance the below items have on site selection decision making.

Please indicate the level of importance from “Not at all important” to “Extremely important” in regards to the city that was chosen.

Criteria	Not at all important	Slightly Important	Moderately Important	Very Important	Extremely Important
Celebrity endorsements	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Known entertainment options	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Magazines & printed materials	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
News stories	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
TV & movies	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
What others say	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Question #10: Thinking of a company relocating its headquarters, please indicate the level of importance the below items have on the city regarding site selection decision making.

Please indicate the level of importance from “Not at all important” to “Extremely important” in regards to the city that was chosen.

Criteria	Not at all important	Slightly Important	Moderately Important	Very Important	Extremely Important
Local architecture and buildings	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Cleanliness	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Attractive urban vibe	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Historic sites and museums	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Scenic qualities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Recreational amenities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tourist attractions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Question #11: Thinking of a company relocating its headquarters, please indicate the level of importance the below items have on the city regarding site selection decision making.

Please indicate the level of importance from “Not at all important” to “Extremely important” in regards to the city that was chosen.

Criteria	Not at all important	Slightly Important	Moderately Important	Very Important	Extremely Important
Emotional appeal	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Physical appeal	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Cultural appeal	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Financial appeal	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Strong leadership	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Global appeal	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Political appeal	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Question #12: Thinking of a company relocating its headquarters, please indicate the level of importance the below items have on the city regarding site selection decision making.

Please indicate the level of importance from “Not at all important” to “Extremely important” in regards to the city that was chosen.

Criteria	Not at all important	Slightly Important	Moderately Important	Very Important	Extremely Important
Crime rates	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Local health and education	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Cost of living	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Range of amenities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Housing and employment prospects	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Question #13: Thinking of a company relocating its headquarters, please indicate the level of importance the below items have on the city regarding site selection decision making.

Please indicate the level of importance from “Not at all important” to “Extremely important” in regards to the city that was chosen.

Criteria	Not at all important	Slightly Important	Moderately Important	Very Important	Extremely Important
Feeling a sense of togetherness with others who live there	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feeling like someone from this city/an insider	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Reminiscent of the environment of my childhood/ comfortable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel good when I am in this city	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am or would be proud to live in this city	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Safety and security	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Everything I need in my everyday life is in this city	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Question #14: Thinking of a company relocating its headquarters, please indicate the level of importance the below items have on the city regarding site selection decision making.

Please indicate the level of importance from “Not at all important” to “Extremely important” in regards to the city that was chosen.

Criteria	Not at all important	Slightly Important	Moderately Important	Very Important	Extremely Important
Quality of life	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Wealth	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Technology level	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Pleasantness	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Friendly locals	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Trustworthy locals	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please provide your name and address if you would like to be entered a drawing for one of two \$100 gift card. The odds of winning are based on the number of participants. Based upon the number being surveyed, the odds will be better than 1/8,370.

Name: _____

Address: _____