



## Journal of Place Management and Development

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### Article information:

To cite this document:

Kirill Lvovich Rozhkov Natalya Il'inchna Skriabina , (2015), "Places, users, and place uses: a theoretical approach to place market analysis", Journal of Place Management and Development, Vol. 8 Iss 2 pp. 103 - 122

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# Places, users, and place uses: a theoretical approach to place market analysis

Places, users,  
and place uses

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Received 30 October 2014  
Revised 22 April 2015  
Accepted 22 May 2015

## Abstract

**Purpose** – This paper aims to develop a theoretical approach to place market analysis that aims to identify the ways in which specific places are used and to further enable the identification of distinct segments and products.

**Design/methodology/approach** – Typology construction was chosen as the main study method. Eight polar place demand patterns were classified on the abstract level, using a set of binary variables of spatial behaviour (migration, natural growth and settling). Based on this typology, eight abstract places were deductively described. In conjunction with this deductive study, the authors conducted focus groups, and the results showed considerable similarity in the interpretation of the achieved types.

**Findings** – This paper arrives at interdependent typologies of place demand, place product and place use patterns that allow the ways of using specific places to be identified and distinctive segments and products to be distinguished as particular, consistent combinations of the achieved types.

**Practical implications** – The typologies obtained expand the scope of competitive analysis and planning in framing place marketing. Distinct uses of specific places unambiguously point to the features of certain segments and could thereby enable a lucid marketing strategy.

**Originality/value** – Empirically driven place market research has not precisely defined the distinct ideas and concepts of investigated places, which might reflect the different segments of the population that have different intentions for the use of these places. This paper offers important insights into product differentiation and market segmentation in the frame of simultaneous product use.

**Keywords** Typology, Place demand, Place market segment, Place product, Place use

**Paper type** Conceptual paper

## Introduction

Product differentiation and market segmentation are among the most controversial topics in place marketing studies. Formally, the set of segmentation strategies shaped by mainstream marketing can be implemented when a place is marketed (Ashworth and Voogd, 1988). However, when considered as a whole, a place is a public good that provides free access to every user, as opposed to the type of tradable good that is the usual focus of marketing strategies. A plurality of “equal” user groups in the place market (Ashworth and Voogd, 1988; Rainisto, 2003) formally contradicts the idea of inevitable product differentiation and the type of segmented marketing required to compete successfully.

Meanwhile, as a rule, a place is concurrently used by different user groups, and each group tends to use the place uniquely (Ashworth and Voogd, 1990); therefore, place



users come into conflict much more frequently than do users of other products (Fan, 2006; BBC, 2013; Mayer, 2013; Zenker and Beckmann, 2013).

These particular user relationships encourage users to unwittingly group themselves into segments and to differentiate products, regardless of whether place managers segmented the place market and/or differentiated the place product conceptually or speculatively. This issue is fraught with difficulties that arise when differences between user groups and the ways in which places are used (or targeted for use) are ignored, even within the framework of an undifferentiated segmentation strategy. Otherwise, latent contradictions between segments can become manifest and inhibit the implementation of such a strategy.

In this way, place market analysis oriented towards the development and implementation of a marketing strategy should consider a *place* as a set of distinctive combinations of the offered (delivered) useful properties and the place's *user* as a seeker of one of these combinations. Distinctive combinations of the offered (delivered) useful properties shape the place as a multiuse product, while distinctive combinations of the useful properties sought represent a variety of user groups (segments) of the place. In other words, the differentiation of a place product and the market segmentation supporting it can be achieved by identifying these combinations.

Another specific feature of place marketing is that residents not only consume the place they live in but also shape it, along with the other stakeholders (Braun *et al.*, 2010; Warnaby and Medway, 2013; Zenker and Beckmann, 2013). Therefore, not only user needs but also their activities should be studied.

Research on the preferences of separate residential groups regarding distinct place attributes (e.g. Lindberg *et al.*, 1992; Stamps, 1999; Dökmeci and Berkoz, 2000; Niedomysl, 2008; Kim *et al.*, 2005; Regan and Horn, 2005) and their combinations (e.g. van Poll, 1997; Ge and Hokao, 2004; Zenker *et al.*, 2009) could help to identify *places* and *users* as defined above. However, it is often unknown which user preferences regarding places are not only widespread but also contradict with others, thereby manifesting conflicting concurrent place consumption. In addition, very little is known about the desired and encouraged user activities as a part of the sought and accordingly offered useful features of the places investigated.

The issue of the distinctive spatial preferences of city residents has been studied in the framework of urban sociology (Gans, 1993), mainstream marketing (Claritas, 2004) and social geography (Florida, 2008), providing a useful basis for place market segmentation. However, no author describes places from a marketing point of view. Gans addresses the concepts of "internal city" and "external city" (the suburbs) and emphasises some important features of the city for more or fewer mobile residents. Claritas (2004) empirically develops a set of 66 geo-demographic segments for the USA, tying together characteristics of the representative residential groups and urbanisation classes they prefer to live in, namely, urban areas, suburbs, second cities and towns and rural areas. However, typical urban forms and typical products are not the same. Florida's (2008) list of places suitable to different user groups is more diverse and meaningful, but it is also challenging to consider these places product variations because in most cases, the names of the places contain geographic features, not their useful properties.

Essential difficulties with the conceptualisation of place as a product are emphasised by Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2007). They highlight unclear methods of choosing

priority dimensions from the original set of specific city characteristics and their subsequent transformation into “core values” and slogans when building the contemporary brand of Amsterdam. They also criticise the extremely wide range of target groups for city marketing, such that the uniqueness of the city is not recognisable. Indeed, academicians and their long lists of real and perceived place product attributes (and combinations thereof) rarely synthesise these attributes into distinct ideas and concepts. Similarly, it is difficult to unambiguously distinguish segments characterised by different intentions for using places beyond identified sets of residential characteristics and preferences.

Finally, empirically revealed user groups, together with the place attributes required by each group, are generally used to represent investigated places, although the generalisability of much of this published research is problematic. Moreover, because academicians have failed to provide practitioners with a set of typical decisions that are made in the place market (Kavaratzis and Ashworth, 2010), generalised approaches and standardised techniques for place market analysis are still required.

We believe that nothing separates or unites place users as definitively as these users' desired ways to use these places. Similarly, nothing differentiates a place product as strongly as the offered ways to use this product. Place use can be considered a concentrated expression of the sought and useful properties of place. This category links those characteristics of places, on one hand, and their users, on the other, which is suitable for identifying the distinctive features of both.

This paper thus represents a theoretical approach to place market analysis that aims to identify the ways in which specific places are used and to further enable different segments and products to be distinguished. First, this paper considers key conceptual prerequisites and defines basic terms. The next section discusses the typological method that was applied to construct interdependent typologies of place demand and its determinants, place products and place use patterns. Finally, managerial and academic implications and the main limitations of the study are discussed.

### Conceptual prerequisites

The issue of relevant concepts and methods of place market analysis can be addressed using some findings in the mainstream marketing literature. According to the benefit segmentation theory (Haley, 1968), any multiattributive tradable product – one with many useful consumer properties – can be used in different ways by different groups of users, and each of which seeks to realise its desired combination of benefits or values. The manner of product use is considered as a segmentation descriptor by Wind (1982). When discussing the marketing aspects of place, Ashworth and Voogd (1990) discuss various patterns of place use by different users. However, in empirical place marketing research, the topic of place market analysis via product use criteria has not received the attention it merits.

Place use can be defined as a set of principal benefits provided by a place and sought by its key user groups. A place benefit can be both a need that the place meets and an activity it encourages or allows residents to realise. To use a place means to consume it or to do something in it. Given that any place (considered a product) is a specific bundle of goods, services, environments and locations (Ashworth and Voogd, 1988; Braun, 2008), place use can be considered the conceptualised form that provides a general idea of the place product. Furthermore, considering that:

[...] the target consumer groups generally have more than one motive and engage in more than one activity as “users” of urban facilities (Ashworth and Voogd, 1988, p. 70),

and that lifestyle represents a combination of user needs and activities (Wells, 1974) and, thus, corresponds to living conditions as a whole, place use can be regarded as the conceptualised form that “projects” the lifestyle of residents on the place in which they live.

Building on these approaches, place use can also be defined as a combination of the interdependent residential lifestyle needs that a place meets and the residential lifestyle activities it encourages. In other words, place use means that a place provides users with opportunities to live a certain lifestyle when using the place product. Throughout this paper, the standard model of “a place for (to) [...]” plus a “description of particular residential lifestyle activities and needs” is applied to describe place use. Such a description unambiguously indicates similarities in quality between the representatives of the same group and differences in quality between groups and, thus, seems to be suitable for analysing contradictory concurrent product use. For instance, in the context of the World Cup in Brazil, protesting Brazilians (Mayer, 2013) preferred the cities in which they lived to be “places with reasonable living costs”, whereas other Brazilians who hoped to derive value from the World Cup mostly preferred these cities to be “places for image and expensive international events”.

Meanwhile, there are essential difficulties in identifying place use if users do not demonstrate it (e.g. as Brazilians do in the example above). Ashworth and Voogd (1990) emphasise the technical difficulties involved in studying the intentions behind certain uses. The indirect – but convenient – decision regarding how to identify these intentions is supported by Braun (2008), who considers the spatial behaviour of place customers as a reflection of their needs and wants. Ashworth and Voogd (1990, p. 52) share this idea, emphasising that city marketing is a tool for “encouraging changes in spatial behaviour”.

If spatial behaviour is considered as the manifestation of place user intentions and choice, i.e. as place demand, it can be suggested that the sought-after way of using a place is the main driver of place users’ behaviour and their demand for the place. Place marketers, in turn, either meet place demand or not (i.e. encourage certain spatial decisions or not) when delivering a certain place product (i.e. offering a certain place use) and when providing the other elements of the marketing mix.

Indeed, significant migration rates implicitly indicate the distinction between a place of departure and a place of destination; this distinction can be interpreted as the difference between two place uses. Therefore, immigration can be regarded as buying a place that can be used in a particularly sought-after way, whereas attempts to encourage additional immigration (e.g. Niedomysl, 2004; Hospers, 2010; Niedomysl and Hansen, 2010) can be understood as selling a place for use in an offered way.

Current inhabitants can be considered as a target group for place marketing as well (Ashworth and Voogd, 1988; Hospers, 2010). Their decision of whether to remain in a place or to move from it represents the buying of a place or the refusal of a place, i.e. that the offered place use more or less corresponds with the sought-after place use. In addition, retaining current residents – which is accomplished by maintaining their established place use – and preventing emigration thereby is as important as a place marketing activity as attracting new residents.

Furthermore, the presence or absence of children also considerably influences families' location decisions because raising children requires certain natural and human-made environments (e.g. Lindberg *et al.*, 1992; Kim *et al.*, 2005; Florida, 2008). National family policies can lead to high birth and low death rates, the successful promotion of childbearing and the natural growth of the local population by means of place marketing. Thus, the decision to have a baby or to avoid pregnancy also accordingly indicates the buying or refusal of a place that provides this particular use or not.

In this way, residents should be prioritised in place marketing, not only through policies that aim to prevent emigration but also through the promotion of fertility or, more generally, the promotion of natural population growth.

Finally, young people seeking a job or a place to study contribute to urban development (Gans, 1993; van den Berg and Russo, 2004; Florida, 2008) and represent a special target group for place marketers (Zenker and Beckmann, 2013). The migration of young people is of particular importance for places of both destination and departure (Klingholz, 2009), indicating the distinctions between the offered ways of using a place that are important for youth. Thus, remaining in one's birthplace represents another way of buying a place. Accordingly, attempts to retain natives can be understood as important place marketing activities.

We believe that by knowing whether potential residents want to move to a place, whether existing residents strive to stay in the place for a long time or temporarily, have children or refuse childbearing, one can understand how the place is likely used and, simultaneously, how it cannot be used.

## Method

To address the issue of identifying place use on the basis of the given place demand, typology construction was chosen as the main study method. As Bailey (2005) emphasises, this method has less predictive and explanatory power than multiple regression and is frequently considered outmoded when compared to cluster analysis and numerical taxonomy. Nevertheless, there are two reasons why this method is preferable for our purposes: first, the descriptive power of full typologies is undoubted, particularly "for illustrating differences among two or more empirical cases" and for "identifying empirical examples of particular type concepts" (Bailey, 2005, p. 897). Second, the polar types match the distinctiveness of market segments (American Marketing Association, 2015) and, moreover, allow market analysts to reveal contradictory user groups, which is of particular significance in the place marketing context.

Currently, standardised analytical techniques and decisions are more necessary than specific cases and experiences; therefore, the number of types appears to be dependent on analytical considerations rather than actual diversity and should thus be significantly fewer than the number of specific cases. Additionally, there is a high probability that every specific place is populated by different user groups and provides qualitatively different products, i.e. combinations of different uses. Thus, it is not important to ensure that any specific place is exactly recognised as one of the ideal Weber types (Weber, 1947). The proper method for applying the typology, then, is to identify specific uses, segments and product mixes such that the typology size and the

precision of type descriptions should allow the analyst to distinguish between them and to describe any specific place as a consistent combination of polar types.

When building the typology, the three main elements of spatial behaviour mentioned in the previous section were chosen as typology dimensions, while indicators of spatial behaviour were considered as their measures. The migration rate was chosen to measure location and relocation decisions, whereas the natural growth rate should indicate decisions with respect to childbearing.

A special indicator to measure the attitude of natives towards their place of residence was needed. This measure can be based on settling or on the difference between the birth rate and the emigration of natives; a significant positive value of this measure indicates that natives prefer to stay in their home places for a long time.

All these indicators were supposed to be binary variables (i.e. only two values are possible – “yes” and “no”). Consequently, the typology size is eight-celled (see Table I)[1].

That is, each place demand pattern can have only a negative or a positive migration rate, natural growth rate and settling rate. This means that eight types of places, each of which is particularly demanded by the residents, or eight place demand patterns, were obtained. The simplification of reality embodied in the typology was in line with the features of Weber’s ideal type. In addition, the technical limitation of the typology size was determined by the opportunity to interpret the data without a computer, such that it was possible to differentiate types in the human mind while performing the analysis (Bailey, 2005).

In narrative terms, it can be said that as the ability of a place to satisfy the needs of residents increases, the place can motivate a greater number of place users to move to, stay in or have children in it. However, as a rule, any real place meets only some and not all residential demands and, therefore, attracts residents in its own way. This rule was taken into account when the abstract places were considered. Table I shows that all places can be ideally divided into eight typical groups, and demand for each of these abstract places is specific. For example, the spatial behaviour of the residents of the first nominal place demonstrates that nobody needs the place. Conversely, the seventh place demand pattern indicates that the place is of particular attractiveness to residents, who strive not only to move to the place but also to have children in it, and natives who do not want to leave the place. The second, third and fourth abstract places are suitable for

Place demand pattern	Migration rate	Dimension	
		Natural growth	Settling rate
1	–	–	–
2	–	–	+
3	–	+	–
4	+	–	–
5	+	+	–
6	+	–	+
7	+	+	+
8	–	+	+

**Table I.**  
Typology of place  
demand patterns

**Note:** The table shows positive (“+”) or negative (“–”) values of three typology dimensions

residents for only one reason (to stay for a long time, to have children and to move in, respectively). The fifth, sixth and eighth types combine two of three possible reasons.

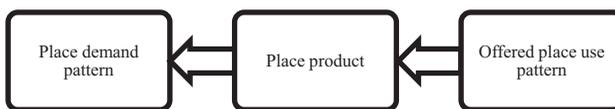
As mentioned above, because marketing activities can and should influence spatial behaviour, there is a certain place product, i.e. a certain offered place use beyond each of the place demand patterns (see Figure 1). The deductive study of these supposed links was carried out in reverse order (see Figure 2).

In the first stage, a typical set of spatial behaviour determinants (migration, child-bearing and settling factors) was described theoretically for each place demand pattern. The authors attempted to answer the question of what behavioural factors could explain each of eight place demand patterns. The answers resulted in the typology of place demand determinants, each of which presents a unique set.

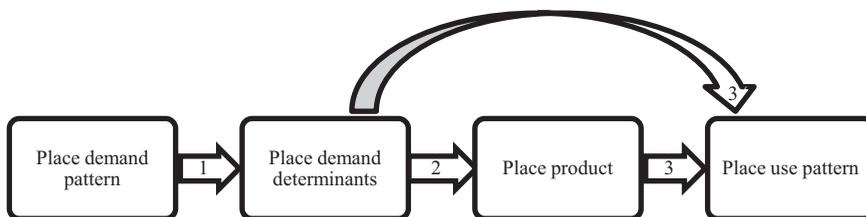
In the second stage, eight place products that support corresponding sets of place demand determinants were described. The question of what tangible “physical” attributes and less tangible local community characteristics can affect each set was formulated and then answered, allowing the typology of place products to be constructed.

In the third stage, the most appropriate place use pattern for each of eight given sets of demand determinants and products was obtained. Knowing what motivates residents to create the particular place demand in each of eight cases, on one hand, and which place attributes support this motivation, on the other, one could describe what the place is for, i.e. what residential needs and activities this place meets and encourages, respectively.

In addition to performing the above-described deductive study, the authors conducted 30 focus groups with Russian place managers and management and marketing students. A part of the focus group was formed by the students of the “Place marketing” course that the authors conducted at the universities of Moscow, St Petersburg (including the branch in Anadyr), and Nizhny Novgorod. Another portion of the focus groups comprised participants of training in local development that the authors conducted in the municipalities of Moscow region (Kotelniki) and Leningrad region (Shlisselburg and Vsevolozhsk districts). The total number of focus group participants was 135.



**Figure 1.**  
Interconnection of  
the main marketing  
characteristics of a  
place



**Figure 2.**  
Stages of deductive  
reasoning when  
building the typology  
of place uses

Within each class and training group, three or four focus groups (consisting of four to five people) were formed, each of which was seated at a separate table and given the following task:

Eight nominal places are given, and the residents of each place show a certain pattern of spatial behaviour (see [Table I](#) and its commentary). Imagine this place. With what do you associate it? What kind of people live there? What do they do? What natural and man-made objects surround it? How is the place attractive? Discuss your associations with each other, coordinate your positions, draw each of these places and prepare a story about it.

The groups performed the task simultaneously over the course of 45 minutes, after which one representative of each group went to the blackboard one-by-one and demonstrated and described the pictures of his or her group to the participants of the other groups (the stories were taped and then converted into the text files). Then, the authors presented the results of their deductive research, noting the similarities and differences that emerged both within the results of the focus groups' work and between them and the authors' version. Coincidence between the deductive reasoning and the focus group results appeared in approximately 75 per cent of cases.

Some of the differences occurred because members of the focus groups made logical errors in their reasoning, e.g. weakly described parameters of spatial behaviour in accordance with supporting place attributes. Other differences were concerned with the properties and characteristics of nominal places missed by the authors in their deductive study. When the focus groups determined some supplemental elements for the previously built typologies, the authors corrected the typologies by adding the most obvious and valuable focus group findings. In the next section, the interconnected typologies of place demand determinants, place product and place use patterns are represented in the form of both structural descriptions and tables.

## Results

### *Type 1*

The forced migration of all population groups, including natives who have low mobility, formally points to the absence of any attractions of a place for residents. More precisely, real threats to the lives of the population and the destruction of community relationships render any place attributes insignificant for any residential group. Indeed, it is impossible to distinguish any place users other than conquerors, marauders and other criminals who are typically active following humanitarian disasters. The first place use pattern is "a place for sharp interruption of usual social relations, immediate evacuation, and temporary risky visiting".

### *Type 2*

Demographically, this place exhibits negative population growth – both natural growth and growth due to migration – and the population is not only ageing but also decreasing rapidly. The closest example is a remote place that cannot attract people or retain the majority of population groups except for old people and people with disabilities whose former community attachment is high and whose mobility is low due to weaknesses in the pension system. Compared with the previous type, which is completely lacking in social safety, this type is characterised by a minimal level of social safety. It is possible to survive in this place use type, but many risks are present in such sparsely populated and poorly developed place uses, which do not foster the accumulation of property and

having children. In social terms, this type of place use represents the remnants of a former local community that is abandoned by more mobile members of both sexes. Downshifter and non-realised creative people sometimes choose such places for residence, although their spatial decisions cannot reverse the negative migration rate. Economically, the Type 2 place use pattern is “a place for subsistence farming and similar activities after retirement” and “a place for seasonal visiting to have a rest and give some household help to old relatives”. Socially, this type is “a place for ‘habit-forming life’ (survival or reclusion)”[2].

### *Type 3*

Concurrent negative migration growth and positive natural growth of the local population indicate that a high unemployment rate causes low immigration and provokes the native workforce to emigrate, resulting in negative settling. Positive natural growth indicates that the safety level is sufficient to induce both old people and women with children to stay, i.e. male natives emigrate for economic reasons rather than as refugees. Compared with the previous type, this place product type is more sophisticated because it provides opportunities for families to produce saleable merchandise and to have many children. Most likely, amenities such as a favourable climate, healthy food, close proximity of local markets, community and authorities exist in this place use type; however, job opportunities are scarce and do not provide sufficient benefits to live and accumulate property without external help.

Old natives who live in this place use type with their adult children rather than living alone can influence the decisions of their family members and receive help and other benefits from them. The force of local tradition as a type of “soft” entry barrier partially explains the low immigration rate and, incidentally, the low rate of external investment and the sparse job market. However, this influence does not create essential constraints on the emigration of male natives and, considering the above-mentioned motives, this place use type cannot or is not intended to prioritise traditional values over other values, including the desire for personal wealth. Thus, one can speak of a type of community that is simultaneously open to exit and closed to entrance in which women are presumably discriminated against. In economic terms, the Type 3 place use pattern is “a place for low-tech and low-income family activities without essential accumulation of property”; socially, it is “a place for ‘family life’ (life under family or clan influence and protection)”.

### *Type 4*

The positive migration rate in this place use type illustrates that compared with Type 1 place use types, this type allows opportunities for residence and not just visiting. The type of residence involved, however, is presumably temporary rather than permanent because the negative natural growth rate demonstrates a lack of attraction for women and children, which are more typical of Type 3. In other words, this place use type generates incomes that are sufficient for an entire family to live on (unlike Type 3) but that do not allow for the spending of earned money. Taken together, these characteristics typify a place for single men or solitary husbands who migrate there for job opportunities to earn money that is then spent in other places or that is sent to their families; after a few years, these men will emigrate to seek new opportunities or less extreme living and working conditions.

Presumably, the traditional economy of the second or third place use patterns is substituted by the mining industry, construction or other dangerous and unhealthy working conditions that are remote from major settlements, possibly in an area that experiences a harsh climate. Negative settling suggests that immigrants displace natives so radically that the displacement resembles eviction or at least resettlement; thus, immigration resembles colonisation. Because the traditional local community is replaced by a temporary corporate community, any special entry and exit conditions outside of the employment contracts of the workforce are absent. Therefore, from an economic point of view, the fourth type can be considered “a place for cash earnings from a difficult, unhealthy or dangerous job, cash transfers to relatives or savings for a further life in other places”, whereas, in social terms, this place use type is “a place for ‘pent-up life’ (a temporary job that enables travel to relax somewhere else without long-term relations and commitments here and now)”.

#### *Type 5*

In this place, a positive migration rate and natural population growth are observed simultaneously and show that families, not just single persons, immigrate for the purpose of permanent residence; migration itself is due to both working and living conditions. It is possible to earn money and live with one’s family at the same time and in the same place. Growth of the secondary sector – which demands well-educated people rather than simply a strong workforce – and the concentration of full-fledged markets and communication systems motivate families with children to enter into long-term residence and to accumulate property. Bearing a child and giving him or her a good education becomes the most important birth rate factor, creating the need for a well-developed school system. However, various reasons for emigration push young residents out in search of career growth, entertainment and conspicuous consumption, which are all absent in this place use type. Thus, the emigration of natives makes the settling rate low or negative. Urban facilities are created by municipalities, regardless of large enterprises and traditional community policies, and residents become full-fledged voters who shape the urban communities localised near their homes and influence the authorities through elections. Economically, the fifth place use pattern is “a place for working, shopping, recreation, childbearing, children upbringing, and the accumulation of property” and, in social terms, is “a place for ‘stable life’ with long-term benefits from and equal commitments to family, employers, and community”.

#### *Type 6*

This place demand pattern suggests essential changes in migration and childbearing motivations. It would appear that immigrants are temporary residents because the positive migration rate is combined with a negative natural growth, similar to the fourth type. However, in contrast to Type 4, the settling rate is positive, which indicates that natives enjoy their residence. Together, the result is a strange combination of migrants of the fourth type and natives from the second type with a low birth rate. Because they are ambitious and mostly young people from the fifth place use type, migrants do not replace natives but instead strive to join the existing community.

Meanwhile, families will experience difficulties in this place use type, although the reasons are different than those in the fourth place use type. Young people immigrate due to the variety of opportunities for communication, individual growth and

self-actualisation in business, policy and social life; however, these opportunities typically discourage these people from having children. Finally, the elimination of gender inequality excludes traditional factors affecting childbearing. In the fourth place use pattern, the temporary separation of traditional families is assumed, although traditional family values continue to exist. The sixth type also shows that living in proximity or even together does not necessarily mean keeping a family in the traditional sense. Highly skilled working people often prefer this place use type because of the economic opportunities available and the relatively high earnings provided by the presence of large national and global companies, high-tech start-ups, an enormous market and the high demand for a workforce in the third sector. However, residents must adapt to significant distances between workplaces and residential areas within the city that inevitably accompany urban growth and spatial differentiation; thus, a significant part of everyday life is spent commuting. Commuting demonstrates a particular loyalty of the typical resident to the employer and the abovementioned career opportunities to the detriment of family life, and this loyalty mostly explains the positive settling.

Another reason for positive settling is the involvement of residents in many specific urban communities, communication with many people and fear of being an outsider. Thus, the urban community becomes heterogeneous and socially mixed rather than geographically localised. In economic terms, many external economies and diseconomies among neighbourhoods render municipalities inefficient compared with metropolitan consolidation; thus, decision-making also changes and becomes oriented towards the so-called median voter, i.e. non-spatially specific. Type 6 is “a place for the highest earnings and the accumulation of wealth, but a waste of time for commuting”, in economic terms and in social terms, “a place for ‘business life’ (self-actualisation in one’s career, social life, and conspicuous consumption)”.

#### *Type 7*

All three dimensions of the typology of place demand patterns are positive in this type, which does not mean, however, that any person or population group can live in this place use type. For instance, positive natural growth suggests that childbearing motivation is different compared to the sixth type; thus, this place is not for people who prioritise their professional lives over childbearing. To explain this aspect, residents who prefer life with children to individual growth should have sufficient free time to accommodate family life. Consequently, families that are not separated in their everyday life, whether spatially (the third and fourth types) or socially (the sixth type), should be found in this place use type. All the useful spaces of the fifth type should be found in proximity; however, the quality of the environment and human communication rather than proximity plays a decisive role in childbearing. Child rearing and personal development require environmentally and socially friendly businesses, housing and urban landscapes – which are encouraged – whereas the opposite activities are not. Thus, unlike the favouring of individual growth that occurs in the sixth type, the typical user of the seventh place use type perfects himself or herself, sacrificing wealth in favour of the environment and relationships. In other words, his or her welfare is embodied in intangible rather than tangible qualities, such as in a community-friendly environment rather than in private property; in addition, long-term rather than immediate qualities are considered important.

Individual creative skills and tolerance are key residential characteristics, justifying moving in and staying regardless of the existing place product because residents can themselves create jobs and living and social environments. Compared with the previous types, positive migration, birth and settling rates are caused by the living environment rather than by job opportunities and by personal internal motivators rather than by tangible place attributes.

Compared with the sixth type, community would appear to be localised, as with the fifth type. However, unlike the fifth type, residential interests extend beyond dwellings or even neighbourhoods, being shaped towards place as a whole, while conscious cooperation and the social cohesion of tolerant individuals become the main uniting factors for the community. Residents' particular ethnic group, sex, sexual orientation, age, qualifications, subculture, etc., matter much less than their personalities, and they identify with their city. The openness of the community implies the absence of entry constraints and social and environmental standards represent limits to immigration. Therefore, economically, the seventh place use pattern appears similar to "a place for creative activities and personal development", whereas socially, it appears as "a place for 'socially and environmentally friendly life' (human relationships, cooperation, and environmental protection)".

#### *Type 8*

Low immigration is accompanied in this place use type by a positive natural growth and settling rate and, thus, cannot be explained by the factors that apply in the first, second and third types. Moreover, if attention is paid to the apparent difference between general emigration trends and the emigration of natives, it appears that there are some constraints on migrants. Furthermore, if this type is more accurately compared to the third type, then logically, either there are much greater significant job and living opportunities that retain natives or the motivation to become rich and look for a job in other places is substantially lower. The constraints on immigration assumed above are shaped as either absolutely external to a person (e.g. entry, hiring or similar barriers, which are stronger than the soft barriers in the third type), or, conversely, are mostly internal (a lack of motivation for low-income work). However, the final explanation for the low immigration rates can be illuminated by analysing the low emigration of natives.

In this type, either natives exhibit the specific motivation to live separately and not share their lives and prosperity with the outside world or the external world cannot understand the existence or the nature of this way of life and thus does not consider it valuable. The community strongly prioritises its values over the aspiration for personal wealth and, thus, over tangible place attributes. Moreover, natives are bound to community values or commitments so tightly that they do not consider leaving. An additional reason for the low emigration of natives is that they cannot work and live without the support of their community, i.e. as separate personalities. In other words, the resident's belonging to the long-term residential group simultaneously supports him and makes him weaker. Thus, the community is closed to both entry and exit and maintains strong traditions regarding childbearing.

This type of community is closed to people from other places or groups in an attempt to limit the penetration of alien ideas and values, and various tactics are thus applied to inhibit immigration. Compared with the seventh type, this type concentrates on

community instead of on personality development; alternative human values are categorically denied. However, immigration is limited because of the particular lifestyle of the local community. Consequently, high net emigration is particularly determined by the impossibility for any immigrant to live the lifestyle of the old-time residents who are the main custodians of community traditions and rules. Remarkably, this community cannot be related to the place that it currently populates (e.g. it lives a nomadic life). No particular tangible place attributes determine spatial behaviour because a person identifies with the community rather than with the place he or she wants to use. In summary, the most specific eighth place use pattern is likely “for ‘community life’ (living and working under the influence and protection of a closed community)”.

As a result, eight place uses that respond to eight demand patterns and that are supported by eight place products are obtained. Because each place use pattern is a bundle of place benefits, eight products and eight target segments are described simultaneously. Indeed, those residents who strive to use a nominal place in the offered way are beneficiaries of this place or are market segments whose needs are satisfied and activities are encouraged the most. The typology of place use patterns represents a range of typical values of the product use descriptor for place market segmentation, allowing analysts to distinguish the user groups based on the place use sought.

The role of the typological method is to present the distinctiveness of all these characteristics, while deductive reasoning makes them interdependent. Thereby, the description of each nominal place is both structured and holistic. In essence, these structured descriptions represent typologies of three factors: place demand determinants, place products and place use patterns (See [Tables II–IV](#))[3].

## Conclusions

When places are marketed, the interrelationships between user groups that use complex products concurrently and differently become fundamental reference points for product differentiation and market segmentation. Moreover, empirically driven place market research has not precisely elucidated the distinct ideas and concepts of investigated places that reflect the different ways in which they are used and the population segments characterised by different intentions regarding the use of places. This paper develops a theoretical approach to place product differentiation and place market segmentation.

Summarising the study results, it can be concluded that place demand manifested in the various aspects of the spatial behaviour of residents can point to the needs and activities the place meets and encourages, respectively. In other words, place demand is related to the way to use the place, such that it is possible to determine one through the other. This opportunity is due to the essence of place use, which links places as products and residents as their users. Place use as a category allows place demand elements to be associated with place product features and, furthermore, with the combination of benefits the place offers. Interconnections between place demand, place products and place use are the basic subject of place market analysis, which identifies distinctive products and user segments when segmenting markets and differentiating products.

The distinctiveness of the products and segments is determined by the typological method, i.e. dividing places and their users into initially different groups that do not overlap each other. Deductively built and interdependent typologies of place demand,

Place demand pattern	Place demand determinants		
	Migration	Birth rate	Settling
1	Dangers and threats to lives of the population; Lack of security		
2	Risks of sparsely populated and poorly developed places		
3	Lack of jobs	Natural and man-made environments for maternity	Physical immobility; former community attachment Lack of jobs Family or clan ties of women
4	Job opportunities for poorly skilled and strong workers Lack of a living environment	Lack or deficit of attractions for women and children Lack of living space for natives	Resettlement of natives
5	Job opportunities for skilled (blue-collar) workers Living conditions for entire families	Attractions for raising children (well-developed schools, education)	Lack of opportunities for individual growth
6	Job opportunities for high-skilled (white-collar) workers Opportunities for individual growth, communication and self-actualisation in business and social life	These opportunities discourage having children Low availability of housing and social services in the downtown area Gender equality	Loyalty to employer, subculture and a fear of being an outsider
7	Living environment and internal personality motivators		
8	Constraints on the penetration of alien ideas and values A particular community lifestyle and the impossibility for any immigrant to live this lifestyle	Strong community traditions regarding childbearing	Commitments to the community; a poor ability of natives to work and live outside the community

**Table II.**  
Typology of place demand determinants

place product and place use patterns do not coincide with some specific demands, products and uses, respectively. However, the typologies would enable the identification of the ways of use of specific places and the distinguishing of different segments and products as particular, consistent combinations of abstract types.

The typologies obtained expand the scope of competitive analysis and planning in framing place marketing. Different users can consider quite different place product attributes as advantageous. Depending on the point of view of a specific segment, the ideas of a place's competitive advantage can differ widely. Comparing practices, such as place benchmarking (e.g. [Luque-Martinez and Muñoz-Leiva, 2005](#)) and place ratings (e.g. [Rogerson and Tremblay, 2008](#)), does not allow marketers to directly identify characteristics of population segments whose preferences are reflected by benchmarks and ranks. On the contrary, the distinct uses and products of specific places identified by

Place demand pattern	Place product (bundle of place attributes)	
	Tangible attributes	Intangible attributes (community characteristics)
1	Any place attractions for residents are devaluated by risks to the settled life	Destruction of basic community social relations (humanitarian disaster)
2	Remoteness from local markets, community and authorities Wild sparsely populated areas A natural environment for subsistence farming	Remnants of former traditional community
3	Favourable climate, healthy food, proximity of local markets, community and authorities	Opened for exit and closed for entrance; community
4	Unfavourable climate, unhealthy working conditions, remoteness of local markets, community and authorities Natural resources for economic use (primary industry)	Temporary corporate community
5	Concentration of markets, authorities, communication systems, housing and urban facilities (secondary sector)	Localised urban communities and Municipalities
6	Concentration of national and global markets in the same place, the growth of the tertiary sector and high-tech businesses from start-ups Distance between workplaces and accommodation within the city Diverse social infrastructure	Long-term corporate community; heterogeneous urban community (metropolitan consolidation)
7	Proximity of environmentally and socially friendly businesses, public, working and residential spaces	Conscious cooperation and social cohesion of creative, tolerant individuals
8	Any	Closed community

**Table III.**  
Typology of place products

the obtained typologies unambiguously point to the features of certain user groups and could thereby enable a lucid marketing strategy.

This approach also solves an important problem of integration of various place attributes into a single concept, which allows the results of the strategy analysis and development to be generalised while maintaining the advantages of the aforementioned quantitative methods.

Moreover, it becomes possible to reveal alternative place products and place segments whose members have contradictory needs. This is of particular importance when marketing strategy is oriented to a narrow market and provides a specific product for that market. While it is not very applicable in mainstream marketing, concurrent use is the rule, rather than the exception, in place marketing. Another specific feature of place marketing is the role of the residents, along with officials and other stakeholders, as both consumers and producers of a place. The feasibility of a segmentation strategy

**Table IV.**  
Typology of place  
use patterns

Place demand pattern	Place use pattern ("a place for [...]")
1	Sharp interruption of usual social relations; immediate evacuation; temporary risky visiting
2	Subsistence farming and similar activities after retirement; seasonal visiting to have a holiday and assist older relatives; "habit-forming life" (survival or reclusion)
3	Low-tech and low-income family activities without essential accumulation of property "family life" (life under family or clan influence and protection)
4	Cash earnings from a difficult, unhealthy or dangerous job, cash transfers to relatives or savings for a future life in the other places "pent-up life" (a temporary job aimed to save funds for relaxation elsewhere, without long-term relationships and commitments here and now)
5	Working, shopping, recreation, childbearing, children upbringing and the accumulation of property "stable life" with long-term benefits from and equal commitments to family, employers and community
6	The highest earnings and the accumulation of wealth, but a waste of time for commuting "Business life" (self-actualisation in one's career, social life and conspicuous consumption)
7	Creative activities and personal development; "socially and environmentally friendly life" (human relationships, cooperation and environmental protection)
8	"Community life" (living and working under the influence and protection of a closed community)

can be questionable if non-target segments are significant and active and if residents' desired place uses come into the conflict with those the strategy offers. Thus, the method suggested in this paper contributes to achieving better insight into both the lucidity and feasibility of place marketing strategies.

Furthermore, using the study's results, it is possible to clearly determine both the existing and target competitive positions of a place in terms of place demand and place use patterns. This approach provides a way to formulate a marketing strategy as a means of changing place uses to encourage a desirable spatial behaviour among residents. If the target place use is previously given, the potential reaction of market segments (including non-target segments) to the changes in the place use offered and subsequent shifts in their spatial behaviour can be predicted.

Because the obtained typologies are full, the competitive advantages and disadvantages of investigated places can be comprehensively determined. Consequently, a full range of possible marketing strategies can then be considered. During training in local development for practitioners, the authors asked the participants to formulate the target competitive positions of the places that the participants studied before and after studying the obtained typologies. After studying the obtained typologies, versions that appeared to be ideal to the participants before the study were frequently excluded from the final review because the participants became aware of the disadvantages of these original versions. Simultaneously, the participants newly recognised some positive aspects regarding the existing positions of

their places, which they had previously ignored and no longer rejected. Thus, by applying the developed typologies to the initial stages of goal setting, place marketers can enhance the objectivity of their analyses and avoid stereotyping and prejudice during the planning process. This is also true of market segmentation and target group selection. Market segmentation by benefits and uses seems to be very useful due to the diversity of alternatives and direct links to product features.

Using the obtained typologies, it is also possible to transform a general marketing strategy using elements of the place marketing mix. In particular, use of the typologies enables marketers to analyse and develop place product strategies. Each type of place product can be deductively matched to the separate goods and services of a certain quality offered in the respective abstract place. Likewise, the requirements for personnel, service accommodation, restaurants, amenities, etc., are differentiated for each hotel type, and each type of place product is shaped by specific public transport amenities, specific housing, etc. A classification table of place product attributes based on the separate branches and spheres of a local economy and social life (namely, income sources, housing, public transport, trade, education, medical care, leisure and environmental resources) was constructed by the authors.

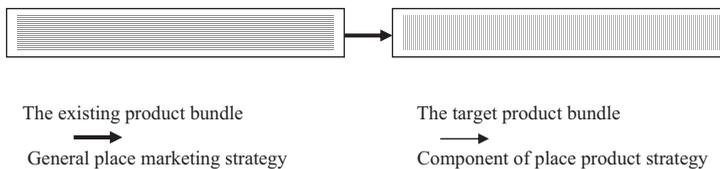
Using this classification table, analysts can interpret and systematise secondary descriptive and fragmentary quantitative data in the framework of exploratory and documentary place marketing research. The classified elements of tangible and intangible urban and natural environments and their uses in everyday local life enable an initial understanding of the existing bundle of attributes that form the place product. Similarly, a general marketing strategy can be transformed into a target product bundle. If existing and target bundles are compared, gaps between them will then become explicit and detailed. A set of actions that aims to fill these gaps can then shape the place product strategy (Figure 3).

By matching the product strategy to the plans, projects and intentions of local businesses, nongovernment sector participants, and local activists, one can choose those groups that support the strategy and then coordinate the participation of primary place stakeholders in place marketing activities. In other words, the developed technique can facilitate the mobilisation of local resources to implement a general place marketing strategy. Using this strategy, it is possible to increase the precision of targeting in place marketing communications. The developed classification tables, which essentially represent an ordered set of keywords that precisely describe distinctions between places in marketing terms, all yield the appropriate template words and collocations for advertisements.

The study results also create new opportunities for marketing education on the principles of co-creation. When a teacher encourages students to make their own associations with abstract concepts such as place demand patterns (see the “Method” section) and then incorporates the most valuable concepts into the final version of a typology, he or she considers the students as partners in the exploratory research. Thus, filling in the gaps in current knowledge becomes the result of collaborative creative work and increases learning effectiveness. These co-creation effects are of particular significance when training practitioners who manage a real place, and practitioners should develop the marketing strategy of a place by the end of the course. The role of the teacher as an external expert is to demonstrate to students the variety of available alternatives rather than to promote, intentionally or not, some “ideal” (from the teacher’s perspective) strategic variant. The obtained typologies include only eight types of place market characteristics; that is, the basic variety is not large. However, each type of this

Place use pattern	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Place product attribute								
Income sources								
Housing								
Public transport								
Trade								
Education								
Medical care								
Leisure								
Environmental resources								

**Figure 3.**  
Classification table of place product attributes and their uses in shaping of place product strategy



variety should be differentiated in the human mind and interpreted without a computer such that students will be capable of quickly developing needed skills that can be tested when analysing their own places of interest.

Finally, the main limitation of the research should be noted. All the typologies developed are based on assumptions regarding mobility and childbearing norms in Russia and Russian culture. However, the basic assumptions used might not hold for other countries and cultures; thus, the theoretical framework can be extended in future work by including the multicultural and cross-cultural associations of spatial behaviour. Another way of increasing the generalisability of the results is to empirically reveal a set of determinants of spatial behaviour for place demand patterns.

**Notes**

1. This typology was first published by [Rozhkov and Skriabina \(2001\)](#).
2. This place use pattern is reliably depicted in Andrey Konchalovsky’s film “The Postman’s White Nights”.
3. The initial version of the typology of place use patterns is represented in [Rozhkov \(2012\)](#).

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