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FACTORS THAT AFFECT DESTINATION BRAND EQUITY: THE CASE OF SOWETO AS A LOCAL TOURIST DESTINATION THROUGH A GENERATION Y PERSPECTIVE

By

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A dissertation

Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Commerce (Marketing)

Under the Supervision of:

Dr Tinashe Chuchu and Dr Eugine Tafadzwa Maziriri

in

The School of Economic and Business Sciences,

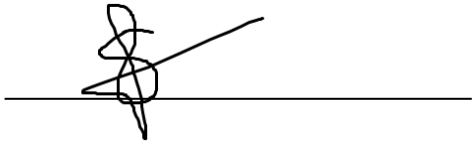
at the

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND

2019

DECLARATION

- The work in this dissertation is my own original work.
- All of the sources which were used or referred to have been documented and recognised.
- This dissertation has not been previously submitted in full or partial fulfilment of the requirements for an equivalent or higher qualification at any other recognised educational institution.



Natalie Videira

06 October 2019

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Many people have been helpful in the undertaking of research for my Master's degree. Although all cannot be mentioned here, I would like to thank and acknowledge, in particular, those who guided and encouraged me throughout the journey. Firstly, special mention goes to both my supervisor, Dr Tinashe Chuchu, and co-supervisor, Dr Eugine Tafadzwa Maziriri whose expertise and unwavering support in the areas of research I covered, were instrumental in the completing this project. Finally, to my parents, Angela and Antonio Videira, thank you and believing in me and for giving me the opportunity to undertake my postgraduate studies. To all my close friends and family who have helped me throughout my studies, thank you for your untiring support. You have encouraged me to believe in myself and to accomplish this challenging task.

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ABSTRACT

The study reviewed prior literature on destination brand equity, behavioural theory and generational theory. Non-probability sampling a form of convenience sampling was used to select respondents due to the difficulty in obtaining a sampling frame. A unique research model was developed to measure the constructs used for the study. A field study was conducted in Johannesburg, and research data was collected from 370 Generation Y cohort between the ages of 18-35 years old. Using the SPSS 24 and AMOS 24 software program, structural equation modelling (SEM) was performed to analyse the data set. The analytical results implied that all seven proposed hypotheses were supported. Furthermore, it was observed that the influence of destination brand loyalty towards destination brand equity was the most important relationship as it had the highest factor loading implying that loyal customers were more likely to revisit and recommend Soweto as a local tourist destination. Destination brand equity has scarcely been studied in a South African context. The purpose of this study is to address the proposed research gap, by empirically testing a proposed destination brand equity conceptual model through a scale purification process, ensuring its reliability and validity. This study used Soweto as the local tourist destination of choice. The contribution of this study was to enhance the comprehension of existing literature on the relationship between the predictor variables (destination brand image, destination brand awareness, destination brand perceived quality, customer attitudes, destination brand loyalty and behaviour) and the outcome variable (destination brand equity).

Keywords: *Destination Brand Equity, Generation Y, Local Tourism, Soweto*

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

Chapter 1 aims to deal with the background of the study and its' purpose. It also introduces objectives, research questions, research, and methodology. Furthermore, it outlines the theoretical framework and the conceptual model. Lastly, it will discuss the limitations of the study and indicate the structure of the paper.

1.2 Background of the Study

Brand equity is a renowned concept in the marketing sciences. It denotes a product's value from the return generated (Gartner, 2014). The idea of developing brand equity for destinations is a new concept and has been adopted by destination planners from time to time (Rico, Lopez & Collado, 2015; Ruzzier, Antoncic & Ruzzier, 2015; Yousaf, Amin & Gupta, 2017 and Kim & Lee, 2018). The theory of brand equity is not easy to apply to a destination. Kladou and Kehagias (2013) emphasised that much of the research on a destinations' brand equity, mainly build upon works on the product brand equity model. The brand equity of a destination is a 'firm' and a mix of various stakeholders including residents who offer their space to tourists without remuneration (Gartner, 2014). This study drew upon established theoretical paradigms from David Aakers destination brand equity model (Aaker, 1991) as well as incorporating destination brand equity studies carried out by (Kim & Lee, 2018; Yousaf, Amin & Gupta, 2017; Pike & Bianchi, 2016 and Kheiri, Lajevardi, Golmaghani, Fakharmanesh & Mousavi, 2016) to name a few. A number of authors have published descriptions of specific destination branding processes and have made several claims about the value of the branding concept for improving tourism destination marketing (Morgan & Pritchard 2002; Morgan, Pritchard, & Piggott 2003 and Murphy, Moscardo & Benckendorff, 2007).The tourism industry has been a vital source of income for many countries; it has been considered the second most important industry of the 21st century (Cretu & Brodie, 2007). As such, the tourism industry continues to play a significant role in the development of South Africa; particularly in economic growth, job creation, attracting foreign exchange and its capacity to grow South Africa's GDP (South African Tourism briefing, 2015).The research field of local tourism is growing as a form of particular interest in tourism (Kruja & Gjyrezi, 2011; Charters & Ali-Knight, 2002; and Getz & Brown, 2006). Comprehending what it is about local tourism that is valued by tourists is essential for national and regional tourism authorities as well as for local businesses.

This study examined local tourism by using Soweto, Johannesburg, South Africa as a reference local tourist destination. This study aimed to understand how various factors affecting brand loyalty for local tourism translate into intentions to engage in behaviours which are key for mapping out the brand loyalty and behavioural intentions of local Generation Y (Gen Y) people. The age range and debate regarding the boundaries of Gen Y varies among different academics and researchers. For this study, Gen Y is considered to be individuals born between the years 1983-1999 aged 18–35 years (Bruwer, Saliba & Miller, 2011; Nusair, Bilgihan & Okumus, 2013; Gursoy Maier & Chi, 2008; Kotler & Armstrong, 2010 and Lamm & Meeks, 2009). First, an exploratory study was conducted, relative to the fundamental constructs of the proposed model of destination brand equity. The theoretical considerations used in this paper had a deductive purpose, in a way that helped gain knowledge about the topic of destination brand equity. Second, using data collected from an extensive Generation Y, South African cross-sectional survey collected in Gauteng, with core Soweto local tourism attribute themes, the proposed model was tested. The results collected were then examined by using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural equation modelling (SEM), which provided specific information about the local tourism attribute factors for Soweto as well as evidence for the usefulness of the destination brand equity conceptual model. Ultimately the purpose of this paper was to develop and test a proposed destination brand equity model. The remainder of the chapter outlines the objectives of the study, a theoretical overview; the conceptual model and hypotheses development. Lastly, it will outline the research methodology, ethical considerations, and the significance of the study.

1.3 Problem Statement and Research Gap

This research paper seeks to investigate destination brand loyalty and behavioural intentions and their impact on destination brand equity for Soweto, by using local male and female in the generation Y cohort. The theory of the paper is based on brand equity theories, behavioural theory and generational theory. Destination brand equity as is not a new concept in tourism but it has not received a lot of attention (Gartner, 2014; Kheiri, Lajevardi, Golmaghani, Fakharmanesh & Mousavi, 2016), and even less so, have been carried out regarding South Africa. Several authors have published reports of specific destination branding processes and have made a number of claims about the value of the branding concept for improving tourism destination marketing (Morgan and Pritchard 2002; Morgan, Pritchard, & Piggott 2003; Murphy, Moscardo & Benckendorff, 2007). For managers and practitioners to develop and

execute a more sustainable, strategic and systematic marketing approach for any destination- such as Soweto; it is important to investigate its brand equity, specifically when targeting a specific group of tourists- such as Generation Y (Park, 1992; Pike & Ryan, 2004; Kim, Moon & Choe, 2016; Joshi & Yadav, 2017; Kim & Lee, 2018).

There have been many studies conducted on brand equity in South Africa, but very few incorporating a destination. Ezeuduji, November, and Haupt, conducted an investigation in 2016 on "Tourist Activity and Destination Brand Perception: The Case of Cape Town, South Africa". Their analysis determined how the activities that tourists enjoyed in Cape Town relate to how they perceive this destination using brand explanatory variables (brand essence, brand image and brand loyalty). Nel, North, Myburg and Hern, conducted a study in 2009 on "A comparative study of customer-based brand equity across selected South African hotels". Their investigation examined the dimensions of brand equity and compared the differential effect that they had on brands within three hotel categories (low, medium and high priced) in South Africa (Nel, North, Myburg & Hern, 2009). The above studies conducted in South Africa did not discuss how all brand equity factors influence destination brand equity, therefore, further research is required to determine whether the identified variables (destination brand image, destination brand awareness; destination brand perceived quality, customer attitudes, destination brand loyalty and behaviour) do, in fact, affect destination brand equity. This study goes further to explore the impact of attitudes, and behavioural factors on destination brand equity. This study is also different from other studies as it from generation Y perspective.

1.4 Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of brand loyalty and behavioural intentions on destination brand equity from a Generation Y perspective using Soweto as a local tourist destination.

1.5 Research Objectives

The theoretical objectives were to review the literature on:

- Destination Brand Equity
    - Destination Brand Image
    - Destination Brand Quality
    - Destination Brand Loyalty

- Destination Brand Awareness
- Behavioural Theory
- Customer Attitudes
- The concept of Local Tourism.
- Generation Y
- Generational Theory (Concept)

The following empirical objectives were also explored:

- To determine the influence of destination brand image destination brand awareness and destination brand quality on destination brand loyalty
- To examine the impact of customer attitudes on behaviour
- To determine destination brand loyalty's influence on behaviour
- To evaluate the influence of destination brand loyalty on destination brand equity
- The assess the effect of behaviour on destination brand equity

1.6 Research Questions

The research question underpinning this research study is:

Primary Research Question

Do the variables destination brand image, destination brand awareness; destination brand perceived quality, customer attitudes, destination brand loyalty and behaviour influence destination brand equity by using Soweto as a local tourist destination?

Secondary Research Question

With regards to using Soweto as a local tourist destination to what extent does, destination brand image, destination brand awareness, destination brand perceived quality, customer attitudes, destination brand loyalty and behaviour have on destination brand equity?

1.7 Theoretical Framework

A theoretical framework is a well-developed explanation of events that helps the researchers to locate their studies and to signal the origin of their proposed research (Maziriri & Mapuranga, 2017). Furthermore, Maziriri and Mapuranga (2017) theories are ways in which

the world may be interpreted and reconciled to ourselves. Studies in destination marketing have a long tradition with a diversity of theories being employed. Hence, the next section preliminary highlights the theories that were used to ground this study.

1.7.1 Theoretical grounding

For this research paper, references were extracted from academic papers, company reports, newspaper's and news online, research studies published on the internet, industry magazines and Master/Doctoral thesis as well as official statistics. As noted above the main theories investigated were brand equity, behavioural theory and generational theory. These theories were explored in much greater detail in the following chapter. The study also investigated tourism in South Africa. Brand equity has been used and tested by numerous researchers and studies regarding the adoption of brand equity towards a destination. Behavioural theory is widely used in studying behaviour and customer attitudes towards tourism (Cohen, Prayag & Moital, 2014; Li, Mizerski, Lee, & Liu, 2009 and Bangura, 2011). In this study, several factors related to brand equity, generational theory and behavioural theory were reviewed to give an academic view of explaining their effect on destination brand equity.

1.7.2 Empirical Literature

Chinomona and Maziriri (2017) posits that literature serves the purposes of sharing findings of other studies related to the study at hand, relating the study to a larger ongoing conversation in literature as well as fillings gaps and extending prior studies. In order to address the aim of the research, it is of importance to establish a sound literature base around which the study will be built. This section presents a review of the literature related to the purpose of the study. The review was undertaken in order to eliminate duplication of what has been done and provide a clear understanding of existing knowledge base in the problem area.

Destination brand awareness

Brand awareness is extracted from Kellers' theory of Customer-Based Brand Equity Model, and Aakers Brand Equity Model then applied to a destination (Gartner, 2011). Brand awareness is considered a key factor for a brand's effect on local tourism (Lee & Back, 2008; Kim & Kim, 2005; Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2003 and Oh, 2000) and in the consumer's decision making (Belonax & Javalgi, 1989; Kwun & Oh, 2004; Oh, 2000; Sivakumar & Raj, 1997 and Webster, 2000). Brand awareness is a sub-component of brand equity (Keller, 2003 and Aaker, 1991) and the main element of a brand (de Chernatony & McDonald, 2003 and Motameni & Shahrokhi, 1998). This study proposed that destination brand awareness will positively

influence brand loyalty and ultimately destination brand equity in a local tourism context from the perceptions of Gen Y.

Destination Brand Image

The concept of brand image has often been thought of as the reasoned or emotional perceptions consumers attach to individual brands (Keller, 2003). Brand image has also been recognised as a vital factor in a brand equity model (Keller, 2003 and Lassar, Mittal & Sharma, 1995). Destination brand image has been considered a principal dimension of brand equity in the tourism and hospitality sector (Konecnik & Gartner, 2007 and Kim & Kim, 2005). Brand image has been discussed to a great extent in the tourism literature (e.g. Chon, 1990; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Pike, 2002; Pike *et al.*, 2007 and Boo *et al.*, 2009). In 2005 Blain et al., alluded that destination image should be included in the definition of destination brands. This is because destination image holds a significant role in tourists' decision making and subsequent travel behaviour (Chuchu, Chiliya & Chinomona, 2018). Destination brand image is representative of the destinations' image and consists of anything linked in a consumers memory that influences evaluation towards the destination as a brand (Keller & Lehmann, 2006 and Romaniuk & Nenycz-Thiel, 2013). This study proposed that destination brand image will positively influence brand loyalty and ultimately destination brand equity in a local tourism context from the perceptions of Gen Y.

Destination Perceived Quality

Brand quality is a critical dimension of brand equity (Aaker, 1996; Keller, 2003; Lassar et al., 1995 and Boo et al., 2009). The term brand quality has often been used interchangeably with perceived quality by consumers and is often recognised as an essential dimension of brand equity (Keller, 2003; Aaker, 1991 and Lassar et al., 1995). Perceived quality is concerned with perceptions of the quality of a destination's infrastructure, hospitality service, and amenities such as accommodation and tourist sites (Pike et al., 2010; Buhalis, 2000; and Murphy et al., 2000). Perceived quality is a direct antecedent of brand loyalty (Boo et al., 2009). Low and Lamb (2000) noted that perceived quality is central to the theory that strong brands add value to consumers' purchases. This study proposed that destination perceived quality will positively influence brand loyalty and ultimately destination brand equity in a local tourism context from the perceptions of Gen Y.

Destination brand loyalty

Brand loyalty, as a dimension of brand equity, was defined by Aaker (1991) as "*the attachment a customer has to a brand*" and has been recognised as a primary factor customer-based brand equity (Keller, 2003). Tourists' intention to return to a destination is influenced by their perception of value from that destination. In spite of brand loyalty first emerging in the literature over 75 years ago (e.g., Guest, 1942), only recently have interests in brand loyalty attracted the attention of tourism academics and practitioners, nevertheless interest in destination loyalty is increasing (e.g., Veríssimo et al., 2017; Kim & Lee, 2018; Boo et al., 2009; Bianchi & Pike, 2011; Maumbe & van Wyk, 2015; Croes, Shani, & Walls, 2010; Oppermann, 2000; Phillips, Wolfe, Hodur, & Leistritz, 2013; Prayag & Ryan, 2012; and Ruzzier, 2010). This study also assessed brand loyalty by attaching and evaluating attitudinal and behavioural elements (Aaker, 1991; Boo *et al.*, 2009; Keller, 2003; Odin, Odin, & Valette-Florence, 2001; Kim, Holland, Byon & Han, 2009 and Yoo & Donthu, 2001). This study proposed that destination brand loyalty will positively influence behaviour and ultimately destination brand equity in a local tourism context from the perceptions of Gen Y.

Customer Attitudes

In the field of psychology, an attitude refers to a set of emotions, beliefs, and behaviours toward a particular object, person, destination, or event (Cherry, 2018). Attitudes are often formed as a result of experience or upbringing and may have a dominant influence over behaviour. While attitudes are relatively permanent and stable, they can also change (Kraus, 1995). In most cases the more favourable the attitude toward the behaviour, the stronger will be an individual's intention to perform the behaviour (Ajzen, 2001). Attitude as a predictor of consumer choice behaviour is most popularly and frequently used in consumer behaviour field in marketing (Um and Crompton 1990). For this study, the target behaviour is the intention to travel to or recommend Soweto. This study proposed that customer attitudes will positively influence actual behaviour and ultimately destination brand equity in a local tourism context and from a Gen Y perspective.

Behaviour

Investigating the behavioural intentions of local Gen Y tourists, it is helpful to draw upon established theoretical paradigms from attitudinal research (Sparks, 2007; Ajzen, 2001 and Ajzen, 199According to Alghamdi (2007), how people set objectives for their choice of destination, and how these objectives are then reflected in their choice and travel behaviour,

can be revealed through consumer behaviour theories (Mengich, 2011). As the research field of local tourism continues to develop (Sparks, 2007; Mitchell & Hall, 2006), the need for a better understanding of consumer behaviours as tourists is vital, especially in respect of likelihood of visiting and recommending local destinations. In a 2006 study conducted by Boo, he pointed out that much of the research into the local tourism sector has originated from studying consumers living in the destination region. This study proposed that behaviour will positively influence destination brand equity in a local tourism context and from a Gen Y perspective.

Local Tourism

The Business Dictionary (2007) defines tourism as the "marketing of the enjoyable and other features of a travel destination, and provision of facilities and services for the pleasure travellers (tourists)". A tourist is someone who is visiting a destination outside his/her usual environment for pleasure (Division, 2008). A local tourist is someone who visits sites in their region for leisure. Thus we can deduce local tourism to being an act of a citizen of a country visiting destinations in their region. Soweto, together with the Kruger National Park and Cape Town, are considered to be among the most attractive destinations, as part of the South African culture. All The above regions contain monuments and heritage sites that reflect South Africa's influence on its developments over the past century.

Soweto

South Africa's cultural image is first and foremost connected to history; in particular, it is renowned for the Apartheid history. The township of Soweto (short for South-Western Townships) is located to the south-west of Johannesburg, Gauteng South Africa. The history of Soweto goes back to the discovery of gold in 1885. Soweto is a metaphor for "black life in South Africa" (Klaaste, 2004). In 1905 Klipspruit (the oldest cluster of the township that created Soweto today) was established when the Johannesburg Town Council purchased the non-gold bearing farm Klipspruit number 8 to cater for the accommodation of Black labourers (SAHO, 2016). Soweto with its great disparities between recently acquired affluence and the old-time misery of the squatters symbolises urbanised South Africa in transition - a country that still vividly carries the scars of its apartheid past in the black townships (Laufer & Tsedu, 2009). Today, Soweto has transformed from a legacy of the apartheid era to a vibrant, energetic hub which immerses one in authentic South African culture (South African Tourism, 2017).

Generation Y (Gen Y)

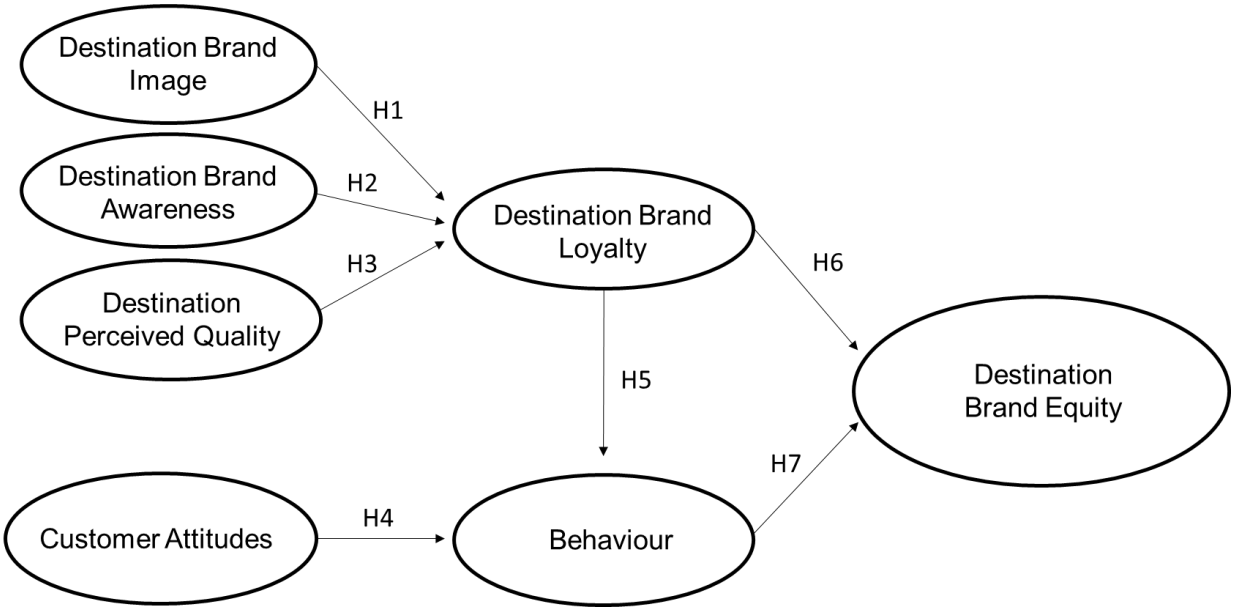
Generation Y (Gen Y) are known as the "Millennials", "Net Generation", "digital natives" and "Generation C" (or Connected Generation), and the age range and debate regarding the boundaries of Gen Y varies among different academics and researchers (Echenique, 2014 and Pendergast, Beckendorff & Moscardo, 2010) . The term 'Generation Y' is the most well-known term internationally. In the United States, the term 'Millennials' is more popular. Many European countries refer to Gen Y as the 'Lost Generation', suggesting the current economic challenges the youth is facing in the region. In South Africa, Generation Y is called the 'Born-Free Generation', as the first generation with little to no memory of apartheid (Amaria, 2015).

For this study, Gen Y will be considered individuals born between the years 1981-2000 aged 18–35 (Bruwer *et al.*, 2011; Nusair *et al.*, 2013; Gursoy *et al.*, 2008; Kotler & Armstrong, 2010; Lamm & Meeks, 2009; Cennamo & Gardner, 2008 and Lyons *et al.*, 2007). Being the first generation to grow up with technology and the Internet, Gen Y'ers are highly sociable, technology literate, and media/tech-savvy (Bilgihan, 2016). Statistically, Gen Y accounts for 1.7 billion people, representing 25.5% of the world's population. Gen Y, who are already emerging as leaders in technology and other industries, will make up 75% of the global workforce by 2025 (Amaria, 2015).

1.9 Conceptual Model and Hypotheses Statements

A conceptual model describes the relationship between variables investigated in the study (Maziriri, Mapuranga & Madinga 2019). In addition, Maziriri et al. (2019) add that a schematic diagram of the conceptual model helps the reader to visualise the theorised relationships between the variables in the model, and thus to obtain a quick idea about how you think that the management problem can be solved. Based on a synthesis of the converging literature related to the research variables, a conceptual model was proposed to guide the empirical study, as shown in Figure 1.1. Visual representation facilitates an understanding of the conceptual model proposed.

Figure 1. 1 Research Conceptual Model



(Source, Own, 2017)

1.9.1 Hypotheses Development

Based on the above conceptual model the following hypotheses are stated.

H1: There is a positive relationship between Destination Brand Image and Destination Loyalty.
H2: There is a positive relationship between Destination Brand Awareness and Destination Brand Loyalty.
H3: There is a positive relationship between Destination Perceived Quality and Destination Brand Loyalty.
H4: There is a positive relationship between Customer Attitudes and Behaviour.
H5: There is a positive relationship between Destination Brand Loyalty and Behaviour.
H6: There is a positive relationship between Destination Brand Loyalty and Destination Brand Equity
H7: There is a positive relationship between Behaviour and Destination Brand Equity.

1.10 Research Design and Methodology

A research methodology is a process followed to conduct accurate and valuable research (Pelissier, 2008). Research Methodology will involve specific steps:

1. Establish the goals of the project
2. Determine the sample
3. Choose a data collection method
4. Collect data
5. Analyse the results
6. Formulate conclusions and actionable insights

Secondary research for this study was conducted to gain a sound understanding of the theory of the problem identified; hence references are extracted from academic papers, company reports, newspaper's and news online, research studies published on the internet, industry magazines and Master/Doctoral thesis as well as official statistics. As noted above, the renowned theories; brand equity, behavioural theory and generational theory are the theories from which the predicting variables are extracted and were thus be the ultimate focus of the research.

Primary research was conducted by distributing a 5 point Likert scale (strongly disagree to strongly agree) questionnaire to local Generation Y males/females living in the Gauteng area. Galpin (2013) highlighted the importance of making use of large sample sizes to detect small differences within a given sample. A large sample allows general assumptions to be made about the target population, the minimum requirement for this study was 350. 370 usable responses were distributed and collected. The SPSS 24 and AMOS 24 statistical software was used to compute statistical outputs about the data collected. The study followed the positivist research philosophy, thus used quantitative analysis and hence followed the deductive research approach. The study used non-probability sampling and made use of purposive and convenience sampling. The study began by exploring previous research papers and facilitating the development of a theoretical framework which is used to develop the conceptual model from which the hypotheses were formulated.

1.10.1 Sampling Design

The sampling design discusses the population of interest, sample selection, and sample size.

Target population

The target population is the entire group of individuals from which the sample might be drawn (McLeod, 2014). The target population in this study is all males and females between the ages of 18 and 35 currently living in Gauteng. The target population in this study is more or less impossible to study as it requires studying every single "person" living in Gauteng between the ages of 18 and 35 and it is highly unlikely an accurate listing of the actual population is available.

Developing a reasonable sampling plan based on the entire target population will not be possible. Therefore a distinction needs to be made between the target population the study would like to generalise on, and the population that will be accessible. The former is the theoretical population and the latter the accessible population. In this study, the accessible population will be males and females between the ages of 18 and 35 conveniently available in areas across Gauteng. Therefore a sample or sub-group of the population is needed ensuring it is representative of the target population the study is interested in (McLeod, 2014).

To achieve this, it required the participants in the research be similar to the members of the target population. It is essential to keep this in mind because it will ensure that the study can confidently generalise from the sample to the target population.

Sampling size

Burns and Grove (2003) refer to sample selection "*as a process of selecting a group of people, events or behaviour with which to conduct a study*". Sampling is the process of selecting entities (people) from a population of interest (men and women between the ages of 18-35 living in Gauteng) so that by analysing the sample it may fairly generalise the results back to the population from which they are chosen (Dudovskiy, 2016). Evans, Hastings & Peacock, (2000) refer to sample size as "*the sample size is the number of observations in a sample*". The size of the sample required depends on how precise the answer to the study is aimed to be. Larger samples will give more accurate answers. The necessary sample size also depends on what is being measured and the size of the error that is acceptable. The requirements for this research paper was to obtain at least 350 usable responses based on prior similar research which was based on similar sample sizes (i.e. 300 plus respondents). Eventually, 370 usable responses were distributed and collected.

Sampling Method

This study made use of non-probability sampling methods indicating not all members of the population have an equal chance of participating in the study (Dudovskiy, 2016). The principal difference between nonprobability and probability sampling is that nonprobability sampling does not involve random selection, whereas probability sampling does (McLeod, 2014). This study makes use of purposive sampling, where the sample has to conform to specific criteria (Palinkas, 2018). In this study, the criteria for the sample is that the participants are between the ages of 18 and 35 living in Gauteng.

This study also made use of convenience sampling which too is a type of non-probability sampling method that relies on data collected from population members who are conveniently available to participate in the study. Convenience sampling uses the first available primary data source without additional requirements.

Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire used for this research will be adopted (some questions are adapted). The questions adapted (adopted) from previous studies will be discussed in further detail in the methodology section.

These questionnaires are conducted to gather information from respondents in a quantitative manner. A 5 point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree is used.

1.11 Ethical Considerations

As one of the requirements for this study to be conducted an ethics clearance was applied for and obtained through the University of Witwatersrand Ethics Committee. A primary reason for this is because there is a human element is involved in the field work of this study via questionnaires. Moreover, measures were put in place that ensured the protection of the respondents' privacy, in addition to the reputation of the University of the Witwatersrand. No applicant was forced to participate in the investigation, and no incentives were used to persuade applicants to participate. All data collected is confidential and not used for any other purposes other than that of the research.

The ethical clearance was also obtained to make sure that any deception or exaggeration was avoided as well as offensive, discriminatory, or any other unacceptable language in the formulation of the questionnaire and throughout the study. Acknowledgement of works of other authors was applied in any part of the research where necessary with the use of Grammarly and Turnitin by using the APA referencing system.

1.12 Research Report Structure

This dissertation is made up of six chapters. Each chapter is outlined in brief below:

Chapter One: aimed to deal with the background of the study and its' purpose. It also introduced objectives, research questions, research, and methodology. Also, it outlined the theoretical framework, the conceptual model. Lastly, it discussed the limitations of the study and indicated the structure of the paper.

Chapter Two: examined the literature pertaining to brand equity, before linking this to the destination, and the importance of branding a destination. An investigation on behavioural theory is conducted followed by generational theory.

Chapter Three: reports an exploratory investigation into the components used in the destination brand equity model. Initially, the research objectives were restated, after that a discussion about each of the variables selected for the conceptual model that was developed. This chapter will then aim to cover the conceptual model of the study and its' respective hypothesis development.

Chapter Four: will cover the research methodology which is a process followed in order to conduct accurate and valuable research. Every research study conducted should involve and follow specific steps such as: establish the objectives of the project, determine the sample, choose the data collection method, collect the data, analyse the results, and lastly formulate conclusions and actionable insights based on theoretical and statistical results. This chapter will also cover concepts relating to statistical modelling.

Chapter Five: presented and discussed the results and findings that were obtained via empirical research. It also presented a statistical analysis of data that was acquired through the

data collection tool (questionnaire). This chapter presented the results of the research study in discussion with the aid of tables and graphs for the results derived from the 370 usable responses. The data analysis was done by using SPSS 24 and AMOS 24.

Chapter Six: discussed the conclusions of the research questions, the contributions, the limitations as well as recommendations for further research, and lastly, the conclusion.

1.13 Justification and Contribution of the Study

The results of this study will be of value to both academia and various parties associated with tourism as well as branding interests. The sources and effect of destination brand equity, attitudes and local tourism elements identified have rarely been studied or investigated.

From a practical perspective managers and other decision-makers in the tourism and marketing sector require information about how their customers and prospective customers act and react. Managers and decision-makers can acquire a better understanding and build a stronger relationship with their target consumers by using the most suitable marketing strategy. It is only through this knowledge about their consumer and marketing strategy will service providers be able to satisfy the issues as well as the demands of the consumers and achieve a competitive edge.

These results will not only provide useful insights into the tourism sector. On the academic front, the current study contributes to the literature on the following relationships: destination brand image, destination brand awareness, destination brand perceived quality, customer attitudes, destination brand loyalty, behaviour and destination brand equity. These particular influencers are related to both males and females between the ages of 18 -35 currently living in Gauteng, 2018.

1.14 Conclusion

Chapter 1 has dealt with the background of the study and its' purpose. It also introduced the objectives, research questions, research, and methodology. Also, it outlined the theoretical framework and the conceptual model. Furthermore, it discussed the ethical considerations

significance of the study and the structure of the paper. The following chapter will be the literature review outlining the research context, empirical literature, and theoretical grounding.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to cover the research content used to complete the study. First, it will introduce the theoretical grounding of the theory of brand equity incorporating a destination, behavioural theory and generational theory. Then the chapter will delve into the research context.

Theoretical Grounding

In South Africa, there has not been much research done on destination brand equity. This research paper was developed upon three core theories; these being; theory of brand equity incorporating a destination, behavioural theory and generational theory.

2.2. Brand Equity

Studies have indicated that a brand is a powerful means of differentiation, and that differentiation is a significant competitive marketing strategy (Tasci, Gartner, & Cavusgil, 2007; Boo et al., 2009; Keller, 2003; Kotler, 1988 & Pappu, Quester, & Cooksey, 2005). In

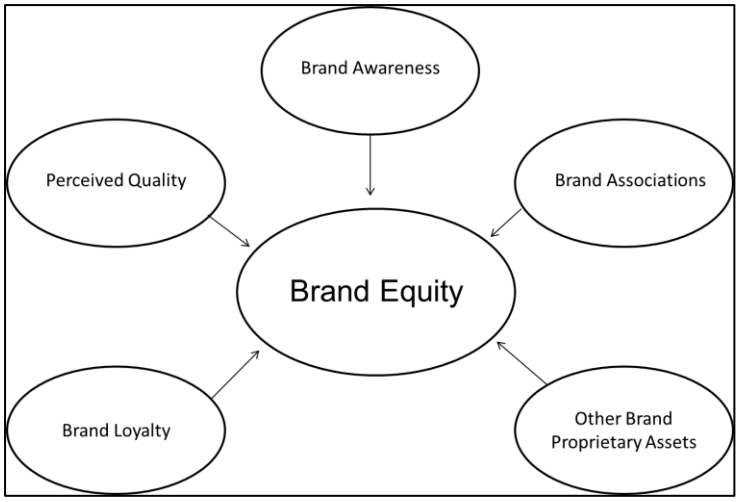
past studies, a trend has shown that brand equity consists of two broader categories — first, the measurement of consumer perceptions of brand image, brand awareness, and brand associations, second, the investigation of consumer behaviour towards brands, which includes customer attitudes toward a brand (Sarifuddin, Samsi and Kashif, 2015 and Baker & Cameron, 2008).

Before examing the literature on brand equity for a destination, it is useful to investigate how research in this area evolved. Modern branding has often traced back to the early nineteenth century (Room, 1992). Some researchers have debated it started with slavery because slaves were often branded with hot irons to allocate to whom they belonged. Others dispute this saying it is traced back to cattle branding to provide ownership credentials for animals; as they often grazed on communal land with other cattle from various owners. Low and Fullerton (1994) contend branding began with the first product brands of the late nineteenth century (Gartner, 2014).

Brand equity has taken on many definitions and forms, such as loyalty and image (Denoue & Saykiewicz, 2009 and Shocker & Weitz, 1988). Aaker (1991) defined brand equity as a set of brand assets and liabilities linked to a brand name and symbol, which add to or subtract from the value provided by a product or service. Farjam & Hongyi (2015) and Rangaswamy, Burke and Oliva (1993) defined brand equity as favourable impressions, attitudinal dispositions, and behavioural predilections. In 1993 Keller defined brand equity as brand knowledge such as brand awareness and brand associations and then; in 2003 Keller defined brand equity as a multidimensional concept and complex enough that many different types of measures are required; to name a few. It is evident that there is a substantial amount debate regarding a precise definition of brand equity and its measurement, in saying that, brand equity has commonly been accepted as the overall utility that customers place in a brand compared to its competitors (Boo et al., 2009; de Chernatony & McDonald, 2003 and Vazquez, Belen del Rio, & Iglesias, 2002).

As noted from above, in 1991 David Aaker introduced a brand equity model incorporating brand loyalty, brand awareness, perceived quality, brand associations, and other proprietary brand assets.

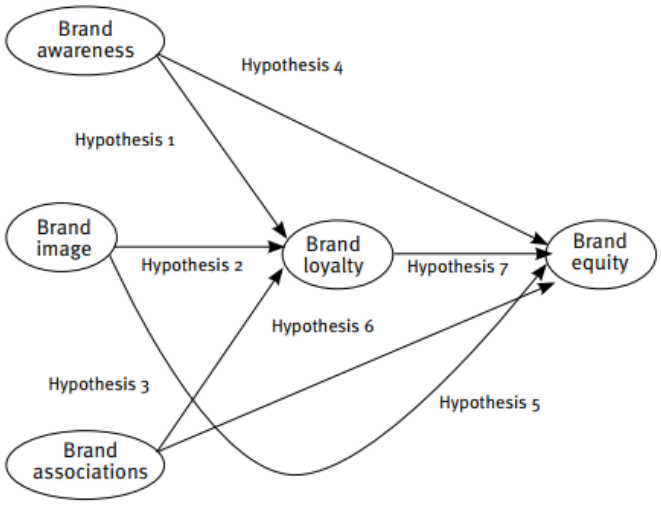
Figure 2. 1 David Aaker's Brand Equity Model



(Source: Aaker, 1991)

Sarifuddin, Samsi and Kashif (2015) conducted a study that was planned to understand the impact of each of the four dimensions of Customer-Based Brand Equity (CBBE) (Brand awareness, Brand Image, and Brand Associations) on the brand loyalty and overall brand equity of a destination brand.

Figure 2. 2 Sarifuddin, Samsi & Kashifs' Conceptual Model (2015)



(Source: Sarifuddin, Samsi & Kashif, 2015)

De Chernatony and McDonald (2003) suggested a need for an instrument to measure brand equity from a customer perspective due to the increasing importance of the brand equity concept. Furthermore, it is suggested that there is a need for a destination brand measure (Boo et al., 2009; Blain et al., 2005; Deslandes, 2003; Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2003 and Ooi, 2004).

2.2.2 Destination Brand Equity

The Oxford Dictionary (1989) describes a destination as "a place that people will make a special trip to visit". Destinations can be recognised as a perceptual concept, interpreted subjectively by residents and visitors, where a combination of all products, services and experiences are provided locally (Buhalis, 2000 and Malachovský & Kiráľová, 2014). The conceptualisation of a destination as a brand has become widely accepted within the tourism literature (e.g., Konecnik & Gartner, 2007; Boo *et al.*, 2009; Pike, Bianchi, Kerr, & Patti, 2010 and Gómez, Lopez & Molina, 2015).

Blain et al. (2005) suggested the following definition: *"Destination branding is the set of marketing activities that (1) support the creation of a name, symbol, logo, wordmark or other graphics that readily identifies and differentiates a destination: that (2) consistently convey the expectation of a memorable travel experience that is uniquely associated with the destination: that (3) serve to consolidate and reinforce the emotional connection between the visitor and the destination; and that (4) reduce consumer search costs and perceived risk. Collectively, these activities serve to create a destination image that positively influences consumer destination choice."*

A decade after the subject of destination branding got prominence, the theory of consumer-based brand equity (CBBE) appeared as the more promising methodology for investigating and measuring destination branding performance (Boo, 2006; Konecnik, 2006; Konecnik & Gartner, 2007; and Yuwo, Ford & Purwanegara, 2013). In 2006 Konecnik issued the first journal article focusing on CBBE for a tourism destination and based it on the four components in Keller's (1993) generic brand equity model (Pike & Page, 2014).

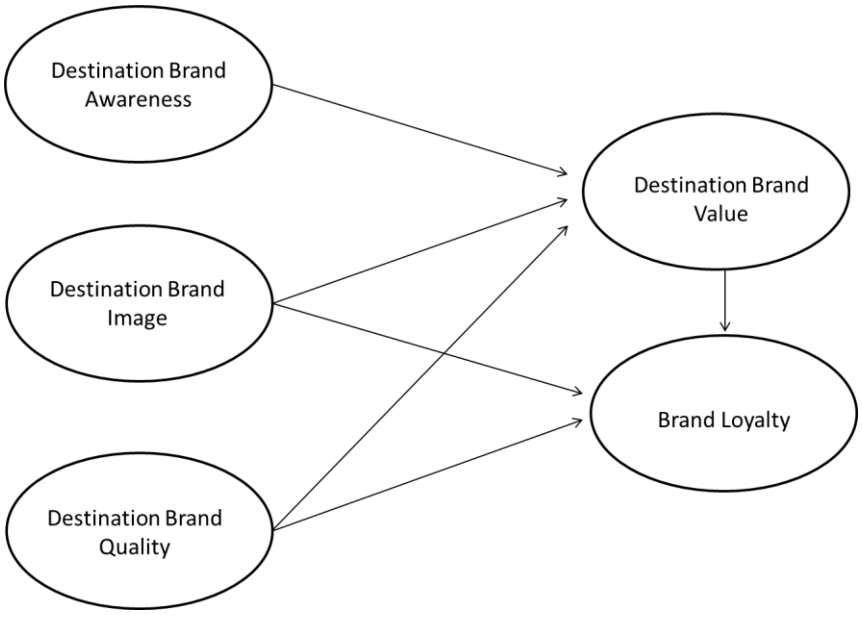
It is noteworthy that the majority of past studies conducted on the assessment of destination brand equity, were examined by transferring theories from the marketing of tangible goods, corporate and product brand equity (Boo.et.al, 2009; Gomez.et.al, 2015; Kladou & Kehagias, 2013; and Pike & Bianchi, 2016). Therefore, this study was too built upon both theories of product brand equity as well as behaviour and applied them to a destination.

In Gartner's' 2014 study on 'Brand equity in a tourism destination,' he identified five significant ways destination brands are different from product brands. First, destinations are places of life and change; this is important because change opposes brand stability, which is one of the main elements of branded consumer products. Second, destinations are multidimensional and provide different experiences to different tourists. Third, destinations do not provide a tangible product that allows the possibility of return and refund if it does not meet expectations.

Fourth, destinations are not sold in the marketplace, and fifth, they are all unique. No destination serves as a generic base for a comparable equity evaluation. Therefore, as of now, one cannot directly determine the brand equity of a destination. Instead, destination brand equity should be theorised based on visitation rates, expenditures, recommendations and repeat visits versus a renewal ratio of tourists.

Boo *et al.* (2009) distinguished five components of destination brand value- destination brand awareness, destination brand image, destination brand quality, destination brand value, and destination brand loyalty.

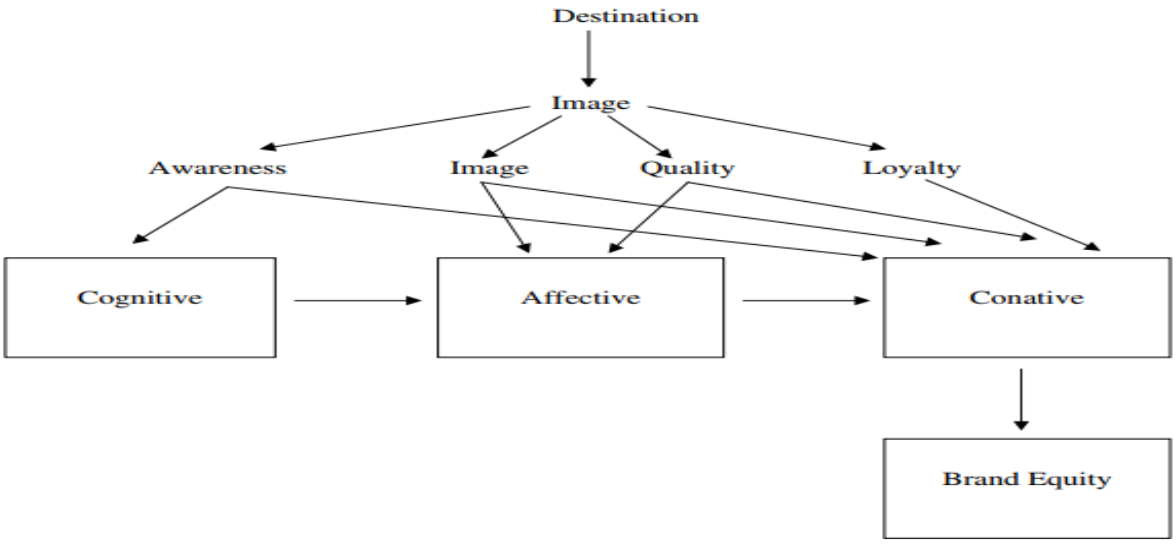
Figure 2. 3: Boo, Busser & Baloglus Conceptual Model (2009)



(Source: Boo *et al.*, 2009)

Konecnik and Gartner (2007) incorporated four elements of brand equity: destination awareness, destination image, destination quality, and destination loyalty. Konecnik and Gartner discovered that the four elements were successful in the development of a brand equity measure for a tourist destination.

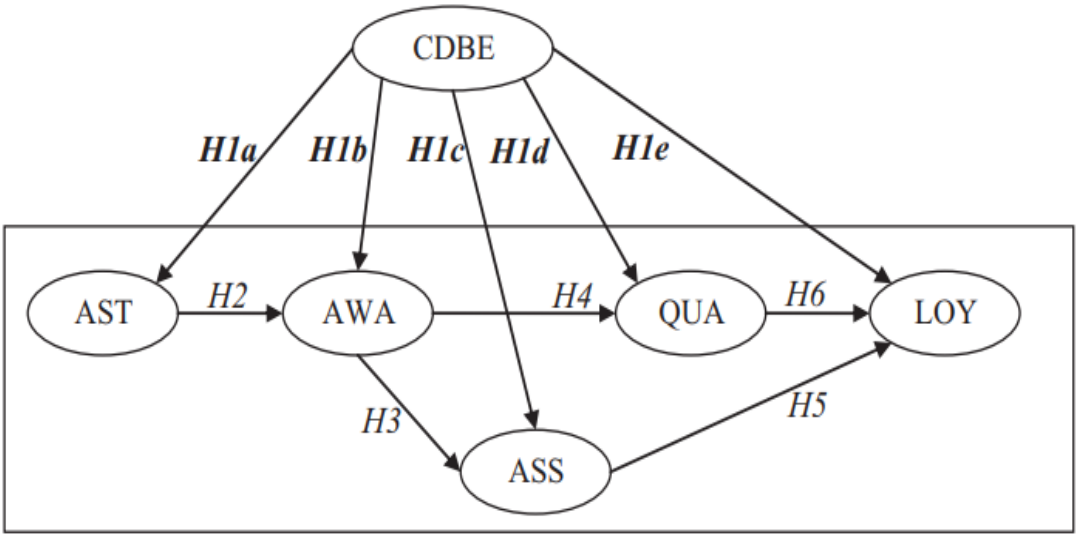
Figure 2. 4: Konecnik and Gartner Conceptual Model (2007)



(Souce: Konecnik and Gartner, 2007)

Kladou and Kehagias (2014) integrated assets, awareness, associations, quality, and loyalty as their elements of cultural destination brand equity.

Figure 2. 5: Kladou and Kehagias' Conceptual Model (2014)



(Source: Kladou and Kehagias, 2014)

CDBE: Cultural Destination Brand Equity, AST: assets, AWA: awareness, ASS: associations, QUA: quality, LOY: loyalty

In 2007 Tasci, Gartner & Cavusgil, investigated the perceptions of Turkey as a tourism destination using pictures. When partakers from the study were not aware the pictures were from places in Turkey; they were considerably more impressed with the images presented than those who knew the pictures were from Turkey. In their study, the brand Turkey had negative associations and thus had negative connotations for destination brand equity.

In 2010 Pike, Bianchi, Kerr, and Patti examined customer-based brand equity for Australia in an emergent market. Their objectives were to evaluate the CBBE model with the proposed dimensions of destination brand awareness, brand loyalty, brand perceived quality and brand image. They investigated the relationship between the long-haul for (Australia) and an emerging market (Chile).

A key finding was that brand awareness was the foundation of the model, and it was more than just awareness; it was also related to considerations for a given travel situation. A further important finding was that there was a strong positive relationship between brand awareness and brand image and brand awareness and perceived quality. Of the four dimensions investigated, Australia obtained the best results in perceived quality. It was an interesting find because some participants had not even travelled to Australia, but they had a strong positive perception of the quality of Australia. Another interesting find was the correlation between

perceived quality and loyalty was weak. A limitation of this study was that that they only tested the model based on product brand equity dimensions and did not examine any behavioural or attitudinal elements.

In 2011 Zanfardini, Tamagni, and Gutauskas investigated the brand equity for two mountains as tourism destinations in Patagonia, Southern Argentina. The researchers made use of the Konecnik and Gartner's, 2007, brand equity model. Their conclusion was based on the consumers' perceptions of both mountains a tourism destination. Regardless of the existence of destination-specific nuances, their results indicated brand perceptions consistently impacted tourist favourability for both destinations.

In 2013 Yuwo, Ford, and Purwanegara conducted a study and also applied the 2007 Konecnik and Gartner's model in their research of the CBBE for Bandung City, the third largest city in Indonesia, as a tourist destination. They aimed to develop and test the CBBE model in the context of Bandung City, via the element of destination preference. They adapted the model developed by using qualitative and quantitative improvements. Their study concluded that the CBBE model was adaptable for the Bandung City as a tourist destination and appropriate to use in this new context.

Almeyda-Ibáñez & George (2017) developed their research paper by investigating generic literature on branding to develop the concept of tourist-based destination branding. They proposed tourist-based brand equity as an alternative to the more traditional destination resource centred idea of brand equity via the likes of Aaker (1991), Keller (1993, 1998 & 2003), Lassar et al., (1995) and Konecnik & Gartner (2007). They also identified various measurement methods to quantify destination brand equity and then compared them, highlighting the pros and cons of each approach.

The above literature on destination brand equity aided this study in identifying the dimensions of destination brand equity and selected the most suitable way in which to measure each latent variable.

This research investigation took it one step further by incorporating the factors of customer attitudes and behaviour as well as from the perspective of Generation Y. For this study, the attitude is that toward the destination and ultimately how that relationship may affect

destination brand equity, and the target behaviour is the intention to travel or recommend Soweto. In mapping out the behavioural intentions of local tourists, it is beneficial to draw upon reputable theoretical paradigms from attitudinal research such as the works of Sparks, 2007; Ajzen, 2001; Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980).

Branding a destination is considered an essential attribute of current destination management practice since increasing tourist opportunities and travel locations have given rise to increased substitutability and lack of differentiation amongst a number of destinations (Pike, 2005; Sarifuddin et al., 2015).

2.2.3 Complexities when branding destinations.

As previously mentioned, destinations present a challenge to branding due to its complex characteristic structure. (Murphy, Pritchard, & Smith, 2000; Gnoth, 2002; Cai, 2002; Dredge & Jenkins, 2003; Sarifuddin et al., 2015).

It is important to consider some fundamental differences and complexities when branding a destination. Even though the process may be the same as branding a product or service, because of the large combination of products and services under the one 'brand,' i.e. the destination, it is believed to be more complicated for a number of reasons, a few of which include (Murdy, 2012; Park & Petrick, and 2006; Pike, 2005):

1. Destinations have multidimensionality
2. Destinations are marketed to a wider range of segments
3. Destinations have various stakeholders projecting one message
4. Destinations tend to have a political type of decision making
5. Destinations have a high reliance on the accommodating community
6. The measurement of brand loyalty and retention of visitor data is very complex
7. Measuring the economic contribution of tourism to the community
8. There may be a lack of funding for a destinations' marketing organisations

Regardless of the above differences and complexities, destination branding must be employed to increase the strength of a destination's brand in the current competitive marketplace (Risitano, 2006).

2.2.4 The importance of destination branding.

Destination branding is a valuable strategy, which should be implemented by the government as well as organisations to make sure they differentiate themselves, gain a competitive advantage, position the destination brand relative to competitors and develop relationships with consumers to encourage recommendations and repeat visits.

Branding adds value to an organisation or destination (Feldwick, 2002), by yielding greater brand awareness and a better brand image in the mind of the consumer or tourist (Aaker, 1991; de Chernatony & McDonald, 2003; Kerin, Hartley, and Rudelius, 2003). A destinations' brand image positions the destination from its' competitors and is an essential factor to consider due to the almost infinite number of destinations a consumer can choose from (Almeyda-Ibáñez & George, 2017; Pike, 2002 and Shani & Wang, 2011). Due to the vast number of destinations it allows for easy substitution (Pike, 2005 and Boo et al., 2009).

Destination marketers should take advantage of existing local resources by using them to increase both the destination brand and its' competitive position, leading to a possible increase in selection as well as recommendation by consumers in the marketplace (Kozak & Baloglu, 2011).

The positioning of a destination is a significant action undertaken by organisations or local governments to differentiate a destination brand from competitors effectively. It identifies the position of a destination within the mind of consumers relative to competitors. The positioning of a destination allows organisations to see how they are both perceived and associated in comparison to competing destinations. Using this information, marketers can better promote the destination to consumers to increase the likeliness of a visit or recommendation (de Chernatony & McDonald, 2003 and Low & Lamb, 2001).

Conversely, research has indicated that the reason for travel can influence the evaluation of a destination brand. For instance, if someone desires to have a fun and exciting weekend away, they are less likely to travel to a destination which is advertised as being relaxing and peaceful.

Furthermore, by forming a relationship with a consumer who will continually revisit or recommend a destination has shown to be up to five times more cost-effective than trying

to continuously get new consumers. Thus, the formation of a relationship with the consumer can enhance and add value to both the consumer and the destination. Moreover, a relationship with the consumer can assist an organisation or local government by increasing destination loyalty (Aaker, 1991), decrease promotional costs and encourage repeat visitation and recommendation (Keller, 1993; Ozgener & Iraz, 2006; Piccoli, O'Connor, Capaccioli, & Alvarez, 2003).

Therefore, it can be seen that branding adds value to a destination in various ways. First, by differentiating it from competing destinations in the mind of the consumer, second, it can establish positive perceptions and emotional associations, as well as creating and enhancing relationships with consumers (Aaker, 1991; de Chernatony & McDonald, 2003 and Kerin et al., 2003).

As can be seen from the above information, destination branding is of vital importance to determine the value of a destination and how organisations and entrepreneurs can better themselves in their location. In saying that, the majority of the research conducted on brand equity for tourist destinations has focused on general customers, and almost none scrutinised the individual influential factors of destination branding for local tourists individually, as well as, investigating the influences of behaviour and attitudes.

This research paper investigated potential differences in destination brand equity perceptions of Gen Y local cohorts in Gauteng, 2018. It generated insights regarding differences in local Gen Y cohorts' perceptions of four specific brand equity dimensions, that is, destination brand awareness, destination brand image, destination perceived quality and destination brand loyalty. It was then important to gather a comprehensive understanding of how the respondents differed with regard to those above four destination brand equity dimensions when deciding on which local destination to visit. This study further investigated local Gen Y cohorts attitudes and behaviour and the effect this has on destination brand equity, making this study highly unique.

2.3 Generational Theory Concept

Insights gained via the examination of generational theory can provide important practical implications for local tourism destinations (Li et al., 2013 and Pendergast, 2010). Moreover,

tourism practitioners have extended their appreciation for the utility of generational analysis. The profile of the tourism and hospitality industry is characterised by multigenerational visitors as well as a multigenerational workforce (Pendergast, 2010). Currently, a significant change in the balance of generational dominance is taking place in tourism and the workplace. The 'Baby Boomers' generation is leaving the leadership roles particularly in the workforce and Gen Y radically entering, both the workforce and as visitors in the tourism industry.

The idea of 'generation' and 'generation gap' resulting from generational theory is not a new concept (Mannheim, 1952), nor is it uncontested (Pendergast et al., 2010; Donnison, 2007 and Huntley, 2006). According to Pendergast et al., (2010) generational theory seeks to understand and characterise groups of people according to their membership of a generation, which objectively assigns according to the year of birth.

Many scholars have used various terms and time periods to define each generation. Codrington & Grant-Marshall (2004) and Hawkins & Mothersbaugh (2010), advocate that generational theory should conclusively be viewed as a form of generalisation, without precise and fixed boundaries between the different generations. Gilleard (2004) suggests it is the nature of the defining moments within a culture that defines the landscape of the cohort territory. From this, we can see different defining moments create cohorts with different dates, different lengths and different values. Previous studies have shown that some events cover numerous countries and regions, others are local by nature

Strauss and Howe, (1991) define a generation as an "aggregate of all individuals born over roughly the span of a period of life who share a common location in history and, therefore, a common collective persona". External events such as Apartheid or the influence of the internet and technology would help mould South African Gen Y core values; and these core values tend not to change much during a persons' life (Schewe & Meredith, 2004; Cleaver, Green, & Muller, 2000 and Schewe & Noble, 2000).

Five generations have been identified and recognised by demographers, the media, and researchers as well as members of the generations themselves. These five generations are most commonly known as the Silent Generation, Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y and the most recent Generation Z (Pendergast, 2009, 2010; Fields *et al.*, 2008 and Strauss & Howe, 1997).

Generational theory is a valuable, sociocultural theoretical framework that makes use of a broad approach, rather than individual focus (Pendergast *et al.*, 2010), emphasising why it presents patterns and tendencies across a generational class, instead of individuals. In the case of the tourism industry, insights gained through research on generational theory has created the ability to steer the tourism industry to better connect with Gen Y as the current and still future members of the tourism workforce and visitor market (Benckendorff, Moscardo & Pendergast, 2010).

It is noteworthy that the beliefs and behaviours of a generation are rarely uniform across all members. Nonetheless, each generation is likely to exhibit comparable behavioural and consumption patterns that are comparable among themselves but distinct from the preceding and succeeding generations (Li et al., 2013 and Schewe & Noble, 2000).

Each generation possesses a distinctive and unique pattern of cultural values, attitudes and behaviours that have significant implications for how a generation responds to both public and social grounds (Glover, 2010; Pendergast, 2010 and Li et al., 2013).

Li, Li & Hudson (2013) identified that cross-cultural differences, in the tourism and hospitality environment have been analysed to understand tourist motivation (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005), destination brand image (Lee & Lee, 2009 and Kozak, Bigné, González, & Andreu, 2003) as well as attitudes, preferences, and travel behaviour (Chen 2000, Gursoy & Chen, 2000; Money & Crotts, 2003 and Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005), to name a few. Also, generational analysis has proven to be useful in understanding travel motivations, attitudes, preferences and travel behaviours among different generations. Thus, it is beneficial to make an effort to understand generational tourist behaviour, including their spending and consumption patterns.

It is important to note that generational cohorts are different from the generations discussed above. A generation is identified by its year of birth, whereas cohorts are identified according to life experiences during a persons' transition from infancy to adulthood (Mosupyoe, 2014 and Markert, 2004). A cohort may be as long or short as the external events that define it, and the effects are lifelong. Instead of using birth dates to differentiate generations, generational cohorts focus on critical events that cultivate a change in the

beliefs, values, attitudes and predispositions in a society (Berkowitz & Schewe, 2011; Mosupyoe, 2014; Gerhardsen, 2016). A South African example may be Apartheid an event between 1948-1994 that can be considered a defining moment that created cohorts.

In 2006 Kjeldgaard and Askegaard's conducted an investigation and discovered that similar youth cultures and beliefs exist globally, even though they are interpreted differently according to their local context. Aside from acquaintances and relatives influencing the development of a person, there is additional culture and significant events that occur during critical formative years which strongly influence consumers behaviour later on in life (Twenge & Campbell, 2008).

Culture is a mode of doing things, as well as, shaping the beliefs, values and attitude of people. However, the current youth culture is predominantly moulded by global cultural flows (Kjeldgaard & Askegaard, 2006). Global culture can also be disseminated via various media platforms such as television, digital social media, magazines, radio and so on. Generation Y is highly exposed to global culture through broadcasting and electronic media (Mosupyoe, 2014).

According to STATS SA (2018), South Africa has a population of 57.7million people, as of June 2018. The South African Internet user population is experiencing a boom as it passed 20 million for the first time in 2016, reaching 21 million, and was expected to grow to at least 22.5 million in 2017 (World Wide Worx, 2017); 2018 stats have yet to be released. Broadcasting and electronic media exposure have a significant influence consumption patterns particularly Gen Y'ers. Therefore, marketers can use generational theory to their advantage as to ascertain consumer similarities within generations, allowing for more effective targeting of consumers and tourists (Mosupyoe, 2014). Nonetheless, marketers should make use of these global ideas and similarities across a generation like Gen Y but allow for differences at a domestic level.

2.3.1 Complexities of studying generational theory

Despite the extensive use in sociology and psychology, generations are challenging to study. A key challenge of adopting a generational perspective is that there is no definite accord as to the exact calendar years representing each generation. As noted above, members of each

generation are distinctive regarding their traits, attitudes, values, beliefs, interests and expectations (Strauss & Howe, 2007) making it difficult to get a consistent result of an entire generation.

Another challenge is differentiating between the influence of generational cohorts and lifecycle stage (McCrindle, 2009). Many researchers have claimed that a particular generation shares a set of characteristics by merely comparing the different generations at a single point in time (Pendergast, 2010). Nonetheless, generations differ not only in age but also regarding their life-cycle stages.

2.3.2 Importance of generational analysis in tourism research

The profile of the tourism industry in arguably most Western countries', is characterised by multigenerational visitors (Li et al., 2013 and Glover, 2010). As stated above, the five major generations identified are commonly known as the Silent Generation, Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y and most recently Generation Z (Pendergast, 2009, 2010; Fields *et al.*, 2008 and Strauss & Howe, 1997). Tourism practitioners, as well as academics, have recognised the importance and power of using generational analysis to study generations' travel behaviour (Li et al., 2013). Practitioners have long deemed Baby Boomers and Generation X the most lucrative and influential travel market among the five generations due to their sheer size and wealth (Li et al., 2013).

Generation Y are the new adults entering the workforce and currently have the lowest household income resulting in spending the least on travelling among all preceding generations. However, Generation Y now declared the next big consumer spending group (Harrington, Ottenbacher, Staggs, & Powell, 2012), and they are more active travellers than their older counterparts (Ndlovu, 2008).

The literature reviewed above proposes that there are significant disparities that exist among generations regarding events experienced, attitudes, beliefs, preferences, core values, and travel behaviour. Although a few papers are documenting generational comparison in international travel behaviour, greater use of generational analysis is needed (Pennington-Gray & Blair, 2010 and Li et al., 2013).

As noted with more Gen Y'ers graduating from college and entering the workforce, they are a tourist market with great potential. Very few studies have focused on South African as international tourists, let alone in local tourism. Given the significance of Soweto as a source market for local and international tourism, surprisingly little attention has been paid to South African tourists' local travel behaviour, let alone with a Gen Y approach. This study adds to the body of knowledge by utilising generational theory to compare and contrast South African local travel behaviour. Understanding Gen Y'ers travel attitudes, preferences and patterns would allow practitioners to develop marketing programs tailored to specific generational segments effectively.

Therefore this study aimed to investigated Gen Y for local tourism in South Africa. South Africa has had very little research conducted on gen Y and local tourism, and thus it is imperative that this study aimed to fulfil its purpose.

2.4 Behavioural Theory

Behavioural theory seeks to explain human behaviour by analysing the antecedents and consequences present in an individual's environment and the learned associations he or she has acquired through previous experience (Angell, 2013). The history of the study of behaviour is built upon the theories and discoveries of succeeding generations, with numerous older theories remaining relevant to contemporary psychologists (Cyert & March, 1963). The behaviourists felt that it was not possible to study mental processes objectively, but discovered it was relatively easy to observe and measure behaviour (Collin et al., 2012).

Two main themes or forms of behavioural theory have been introduced in explaining how the environment has such a formational influence. First, Skinner (1974–1990) suggested that behaviour was formed, or shaped, as a result of the consequences experienced. Skinners' conditioning model argued that behaviour followed by a rewarding stimulus would be more likely to persist and endure than that followed by a punishing consequence (Wong, 2015; Skinner, 1974). The second behavioural approach to the explanation of the influence of environment on development is that initially presented by Albert Bandura (2001) as the social

learning theory. Bandura's model expanded the classic behavioural theory to include cognitive elements.

Behaviourism is the grand theory of human development that studies observable behaviour (Cyert & March, 1963). Hockenbury and Hockenbury (2013) insisted that only observable behaviour should form the object of study, as this can be witnessed, described, and measured in objective terms.

As noted above, in generational theory some of the essential criteria which unite generations together are social events and life experiences that create respective values, attitudes, preferences and behaviour (Pendergast, 2010).

In the current business world, one of the main concerns tourism marketing managers experience is searching for ways to increase first-time visits, repeat visits, recommendations, sales and profitability of products (Satvati, Rabie & Rasoli, 2016). Successful destinations try to establish a sense of loyalty because creating strong ties to the tourists is one of the main bases of visiting a destination.

The most common strategy to achieve this goal is by understanding the relationship between tourist behaviour, the destination and brand equity because brand equity is often an indication of its quality which affects the choice of tourists.

This study will be examining local Gen Y cohort's behaviour and attitudes towards visiting Soweto, South Africa, as a local tourist destination. Two behavioural and attitudinal extensions of the behavioural theory are The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) and the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA). TPB started as a result of TRA in 1980 to predict an individual's likelihood of engaging in a specific behaviour at a precise time and place. The theory was intended to explain all behaviours over which people can exert self-control.

The TRA and TPB, which focus on the constructs of attitude, subjective norm, and perceived control, explain a large proportion of the variance in behavioural intention and predict a number of different behaviours, including health behaviours. Evidence comes from hundreds of studies that have been summarised in several meta-analyses and reviews (Montano & Kasprzyk, 2008; Durantini et al., 2006 and Webb & Sheeran, 2006).

2.4.1 Theory of Reasoned Action

Fishbein & Ajzen (1975) propose the theory of reasoned action (TRA) suggests that people consider the consequences of alternative behaviours before engaging in them and that they choose to perform behaviours they associate with desirable outcomes. In the conceptual model developed by Mehraj and Singh (2018), behaviours are determined by a person's attitude and then their behaviour and how it affects destination brand equity. Fishbein and Ajzen suggest that behavioural intent is derived from two factors: (1) attitude toward the behaviour, and (2) subjective norms (Vinothkumar & Subramanian, 2016).

Subjective norms intend to measure the social influences on a person's behaviour (i.e., family members' expectations). We can recognise that there may be some situations where behaviour is not under the attitudinal control of individuals; instead, the expectation of relevant others may be a significant factor in final behavioural performances.

TRA is unlike traditional attitude theories in that it introduces normative influences into the overall model and a causal relationship between the two antecedents and behaviour (Fang, Ng, Wang & Hsu, 2017). Also, the incorporation of normative influences explains the inconsistency between attitude and behaviour (Fang et al., 2017).

Even though TRA has gained considerable attention in a wide variety of research areas, limited efforts have been made to apply it to tourism research (Ryu & Jange, 2006), moreover local tourism in South Africa. Given the lack of research on local tourism in South Africa, this study aimed to fill the research gap by incorporating TRA concepts to predict tourist attitudes and behaviour toward a local destination.

TRA in this study was used to explain how a Gen Y individual views Soweto as a local tourist destination and ultimately how it affects destination brand equity. In this study, the theory of reasoned action was used to assess attitudes toward visiting a local destination. This study also aimed to investigate the relationship between both attitudes and their influence on behaviour and destination brand equity.

2.4.2 Theory of Planned Behaviour

The motivation for travel has been an important area of study in the tourism literature for decades (Lam & Hsu, 2006). This study used the following insights from the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) to investigate the motivations, attitudes and perceived behaviour of local Gen Y cohorts regarding local tourism in South Africa. The basic paradigms of Ajzen's (1985,1991) TPB are that people are likely to carry out a particular type of behaviour if they believe: (1) such behaviour will lead to an outcome they value, (2) their essential referents will value and approve of the behaviour and (3) they have the necessary resources, abilities and opportunities to perform such behaviour (Lam & Hsu, 2006). Specifically, attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control influence behavioural intentions, which, in turn, influence behaviour.

The Theory of Planned Behaviour is an annexe of TRA and predicts behaviours that people perceive themselves as controlling (Han, Hsu & Sheu., 2010; Rivis, Sheeran & Armitage, 2009 and Sommer, 2011). As noted above TRA is the original theory about predicting a person's behaviour in which an individual's intention to execute a particular behaviour is determined by his or her attitude toward the behaviour (Ajzen, 1985; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). In the TPB, attitude refers to the person's positive (favourable) or negative (unfavourable) evaluations of performing the behaviour, such as choosing a destination (Lam & Hsu, 2006), whereas subjective norm refers to the individual's perception of social pressure when performing the behaviour (Ajzen, 1985). For instance, attitude can be measured with an item such as "I think travelling to a destination as a tourist would be enjoyable" which was addressed in the questionnaire.

Unlike the TRA solely comprising the volitional process, the TPB explains individuals' decision-making process and behaviour by considering both volitional and non-volitional (i.e. perceived behavioural control) dimensions (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). While the volitional facet of this paper comprised of behavioural attitude relationships, the non-volitional aspect involves a perceived behavioural control relationship in determining destination brand equity.

TRA and TPB are derived from self-interest motives (Bamberg & Möser, 2007). The TPB has been efficiently and effectively applied in anticipating a diversity of human behaviours in tourism (e.g. Han et al., 2010; Hsu & Huang, 2012; Kim et al., 2013; Quintal et al., 2010; Teng et al., 2015). The TPB (Ajzen 1991) is one of the most influential social-psychological models for explaining human behaviour (Armitage and Conner 2001). According to TPB, the most powerful determinant of the actual behaviour is an individual's intentions to perform the behaviour and this study further investigate the effect this has on destination brand equity.

TPB has been widely adopted for predicting human behaviour in social psychological studies (Chen & Tung, 2014; Han & Ryu, 2012; Han, Hsu, & Sheu 2010 and Bailey, 2006). However, some studies have emphasized its limitation in explaining people's behaviour intentions and actual behaviours (Han, Lee, et al., 2011); therefore, the inclusion of additional variables can enhance predictive power for explaining tourists' behaviour intentions by broadening the theory (Han, Lee, et al., 2011; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001).

Destination image and travel limitations are two critical factors in the process of travel decision-making studies (Park, Hsieh, & Lee, 2017; Chen, Chen, & Okumus, 2013; Chen, Hua, & Wang, 2013 and Chew & Jahari, 2014). Destination image influences tourists' behaviour through their intention to travel, destination choice, experience, and satisfaction levels, which could be used as a strategic management tool for a destination. Alternatively, travel limitations prohibit peoples travelling to a destination or lead to negative effects on the quality of travel. (Lai, Li, & Harrill, 2013; Sparks & Pan, 2009; Um & Crompton, 1999). The limitations affect not only travel intentions, but also tourists' behaviour, preferences, and experiences while taking a trip (Park, Hsieh, & Lee, 2017; Kerstetter, Yen, & Careen, 2005 and Nyaupane & Andereck, 2008). When promoting a destination, understanding and reducing limitations is necessary to enhance behavioural travel intentions.

2.4.3 The importance of studying behavioural theory

A principal argument for theory-informed research is that behavioural theories constitute the best available information on why people or tourists behave the way they do. By understanding tourists behaviour academics, researchers, and managers can take advantage of this information and try to alter tourists attitudes and behaviour (Wong, Cheung, & Wan, 2013). More specifically, behavioural theories identify several attributes of individuals and their

surroundings that are causally related to behaviour, and, thus, theories can guide practitioners' and managers selection of psychological, behavioural, social and environmental targets for intervention (Davis, Campbell, Hildon, Hobbs & Michie, 2015).

The use of behavioural theory in this study is to examine and facilitate the development of a coherent and comprehensive tourist program, and by doing so increase the possibility that it may affect the attitude and behaviour of generation Y South African local tourists. When a theory is used to assist managers, entrepreneurs and government officials, practitioners are more prone to identify objectives that are causally related to one another and the tourist behaviours of interest, and they are more likely to develop effective programs. Behavioural theory is equally pertinent to designing a thorough and informative program evaluation since the factors identified as objectives can also be measured to evaluate the process and effects of program implementation (Jackson & Rucks, 1995; van Ryn & Heaney, 1992).

Moreover, studying the theory of behaviour can help practitioners predict the consequences of various interventions in populations or situations not experienced before (Davis et al., 2015; Hochbaum & Lorig,1992).

The theory of reasoned action suggests that attitude and subjective norms are essential for persuasive communication. This study assessed how to apply behavioural theory and its constructs, as well as, other relevant factors to predict behaviour intention and the ultimate impact on destination brand equity.

Incorporation of all the above behavioural concepts into the behavioural framework can provide our conceptual framework with a base on behavioural theory. The theoretical premise, therefore, is that attitude toward the behaviour, are direct predictors of destination brand equity. The conceptual model proposed in this study investigates the relationship between brand equity and the dimensions of South African generation Y local tourist behaviour which is hypothesised to be positive.

2.4.4 Complexities of studying behavioural theory

Substantial barriers have been identified in applying behavioural theory in the field of tourism. The vast and growing array of behavioural theories is imposing, such that the process of

identifying, sorting, learning and integrating multiple theories can be a daunting task (Hochbaum et al., 1992).

Although TRA and TPB are generally considered a useful tool in behavioural studies, many researchers have mentioned the limitations of TRA and TPB do not provide sufficient accuracy toward the prediction (e.g., Ogden 2003; O'Keefe 2002). Ogden (2003) criticised its conceptual bases by pointing out that some studies that use TPB showed no effect of attitude or subjective norms.

Ajzen (1991) stated that behavioural theory allows adding other predictors besides those in the TPB framework if they enhance the predictive power of the model. He suggested that TPB is "*open to the inclusion of additional predictors if it can be shown that they capture a significant proportion of the variance in intention or behaviour after the theory's current variables have been taken into account*" (p. 199).

2.5 Conclusion of theoretical grounding

This research paper sought to investigate the destination brand loyalty and behavioural intentions and their impact on destination brand equity by using Soweto, Johannesburg, by local male and female generation Y'ers. The theory of the paper is based on the brand equity concept incorporating a destination, behavioural theory and generational theory.

As noted above destination brand equity as a concept in tourism has only recently received more attention (Gartner, 2014; Kheiri, Lajevardi, Golmaghani, Fakharmanesh & Mousavi, 2016), but very few studies have been carried out regarding South African citizens. Numerous authors have published descriptions of specific destination branding processes and have made numerous claims about the value of the branding concept for improving tourism destination marketing (Morgan, Piggott & Pritchard 2002; Morgan, Pritchard, & Piggott 2003; Murphy, Moscardo & Benckendorff, 2010). It is important to investigate a destinations brand equity in order to develop and implement a more sustainable, strategic and systematic marketing approach, especially when targeting a specific group of tourists such as generation Y (Pike & Ryan, 2004; Kim, Moon & Choe, 2016; Joshi & Yadav, 2017; Kim & Lee, 2018).

Ezeuduji, November, and Haupt, investigated in 2016 on "Tourist Activity and Destination Brand Perception: The Case of Cape Town, South Africa". Their analysis determined how the

activities that tourists enjoyed in Cape Town relate to how they perceive this destination using brand explanatory variables (brand essence, brand image and brand loyalty).

Nel, North, Myburg and Hern, conducted a study in 2009 on "A comparative study of customer-based brand equity across selected South African hotels". Their investigation examined the dimensions of brand equity and compared the differential effect that they had on brands within three hotel categories (low, medium and high priced) in South Africa (Nel, North, Myburg & Hern, 2009).

The above two studies conducted in South Africa did not discuss how all brand equity factors influence a destinations' brand equity, therefore, further research is required to determine whether the identified variables (destination brand image, destination brand awareness; destination brand perceived quality, customer attitudes, destination brand loyalty and behaviour) do, in fact, affect destination brand equity. This study is also unique as it adds behavioural theory to the model. This study is also different from other studies as it from generation Y perspective

With the intention to fill the identified research gap, this study focuses on examining brand equity theory as well as, generational theory and behavioural theory to determine the level of effect the six influencers: destination awareness, destination image, destination quality, destination loyalty, attitudes and behaviour - have on the destination brand equity for Soweto. The above mentioned theoretical model's brand equity, generational theory and behavioural theory was thoroughly examined and contributed to the understanding of Gen Y'ers and their destination brand loyalty and behaviour towards destination brand equity for Soweto as a local tourist destination.

2.6 Research Context

In South Africa, there has not been much research done on Gen Y as local tourists and the effects it has on a destinations' brand equity. This research used Soweto as the local tourist destination. More contextual research was then conducted before moving onto the conceptual model in the following chapter. Lastly, Generation Y, Tourism and Soweto was thoroughly investigated.

The six pre determinant variables to destination brand equity used in the conceptual model are briefly described below as they are covered in further detail in the following chapter:

Destination brand loyalty

Destination brand loyalty refers to the attitudes and behaviours of visitors to a particular destination, it shows their unique preferences, and whether they will revisit or recommend that others visit that destination (Chen & Gursoy, 2001).

The last two dimensions of the conceptual model are destination loyalty and behaviour. For this study destination brand loyalty, dimension deals with the intention to revisit Soweto and the desire to recommend Soweto to others. Konecnik and Gartner (2007) discovered that destination brand loyalty has a significant influence on the choice of a destination. It has proven to be essential in the consumer destination choice (Cai, 2002; Gnoth, 2002; Konecnik, 2010; Konecnik & Gartner, 2007). Qu, Kim & Im, (2011) reinforced previous studies regarding the influence of the destinations' brand image dimension on loyalty. They demonstrated that the destination brand image had a direct influence on the intention to revisit and recommend the destination of Oklahoma in the United States to others. In 2013 Yuwo et al., conducted and discovered that brand loyalty was the core of their brand equity model and if tourists feel a bond with the destination, they will demonstrate loyalty towards that destination.

Destination brand awareness

In Aakers' (1996) study, he stated that "*brand awareness is a combination of whether a specific brand is stored in the memory of consumers and their ability to recall a specific brand within a product category*" (Kim, 2018). Brand awareness is established by expanding brand familiarity via strong associations and constant positive exposure.

Brand awareness is essential for branding as it makes sure a destination can be identified from other destinations (de Chernatony & McDonald, 2003). When a destination is branded, it is much easier for a customer or tourist to remember it, as well as forming positive perceptions and emotions connected to the destination (de Chernatony & McDonald, 2003; Healey, 2008; Kapferer, 2008).

For this study, brand awareness is deemed as the extent to which Soweto is distinguished from other local tourist destinations; for example, the degree of awareness regarding Soweto as a

local tourist destination, (was it) the first local tourism site that comes to mind, and so on. Based on the research of Yoo & Donthu, 2001; Konecnik and Gartner, 2007; and Ha, 2005; five items were selected for the survey questionnaire.

Destination brand image

Brand image is deemed as the reasoned or emotional perceptions consumers attach to specific brands (Boo et al., 2009; Dobni & Zinkhan, 1990 and Keller, 2003). Brand image has also been identified as a vital source of brand equity (Keller, 2003; Lassar et al., 1995). Destination image commonly accepted as a central aspect of successful tourism development and marketing of destinations (Chuchu, Chiliya & Chinomona, 2019). Destination Brand Image indicates the destination brand in the minds of tourists, including their thoughts about the destination, its features, its functions and levels, the tourists' interests, the destinations' relevance to the tourists' lives, associated personality traits, and its competitors or countries (Bilim & Bilim, 2014; Chuchu, 2017; Chuchu, 2019). Konecnik conducted an investigation in 2010 regarding destination brand equity and discovered destination brand image to be the most crucial factor concerning customer choice of a travel destination. In 2011 Qu et al., investigated a theoretical model of destination branding in which they suggested that destination image is a multi-dimensional concept influenced by the cognitive and effective images that together affect tourist behaviours. Their results indicated "*destination image exerts a mediating role between the three image components as the brand associations and behavioural intentions*". Qu et al. further suggested in order to increase repeat visits and attract new tourists to a destination, the destination needs to establish a positive and robust brand image stemming from the cognitive, unique and effective image associations. They also found that the overall image perceived by repeat visitors was more positive than that perceived by the first-time visitors.

Destination perceived quality

Destination Perceived Quality (DPQ) indicates the quality of the tourism products or services offered by the destination, the level and degree of satisfaction in the minds of consumers, and their subjective feelings, each providing value to a destination in numerous ways (Antón, Camarero & Laguna-García, 2017).

Destination perceived quality was also found to be significant due to its impact on consumer behaviour (Konecnik & Gartner, 2007). In the conceptual model for this study, the DPQ

dimension refers to how Gen Y local tourists perceive the quality of the Sowetan environment surrounding the destination. "*Establishing and maintaining a quality level of a destination requires controlling all products and services 'supplied' by the destination and this is something challenging to realise"* (Marais et al., 2017). For local South African Gen Y tourists, Soweto as a brand needs a guarantee of quality, in order to ensure they are willing to pay extra for the tranquillity the brand provides them.

Behaviour

Consumer behaviour is the process of selecting, purchasing and using a product or service in order to satisfy one's needs and desires (Juvan, Omerzel & Maravić, 2017). Recently there is a growing interest in the Gen Y generation and their behavioural characteristics.

In a study conducted by Cohen, Prayag and Moital in 2014, they suggested that the existing body of research on travel behaviour is best seen as fragmented due to four concepts. First, individual studies replicating one or a few consumer behaviour concepts borrowed from marketing and general management fields and applying them to tourism. Second, numerous studies investigate the same effect (e.g. satisfaction → loyalty), but the results cannot be compared due to differences in the research contexts based on tourist types or destinations, thereby hindering generalisation. Third, quantitative approaches dominate consumer behaviour research, but the use of experimental designs that quantify the effects of independent stimuli on behavioural responses remains in its infancy, often leading to erroneous causality effects. Lastly, few studies made use of longitudinal and/or holistic approaches to understand the behaviour or processes being investigated.

Attitude

Attitude is occasionally defined in research as the relationship with the critical attributes of an object (Juvan, Omerzel & Maravic, 2017). In the case of this study, the characteristics of Soweto as a tourist destination can form the image of a destination, or more broadly as a general attitude. Gnoth (1997) appeals for a better understanding of attitudes with regards to emotions and values (Cohen et al., 2014). Measuring a tourists attitude towards destinations and trademarks of a tourism provider are challenging since researchers also need to consider the mood and emotions of the tourist at the time of the measurement (Juvan, Omerzel & Maravic, 2017).

The theory of planned behaviour assumes an attitude toward a behaviour, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control are three conceptually independent determinants of behavioural intention. The first important determinant of behavioural intention is attitude, which can be described as ‘‘*the degree to which a person has a favourable or unfavourable evaluation or appraisal of the behaviour in question*’’ (Ajzen, 1991, p. 188). Attitude toward a behaviour is believed to be a function of one’s salient beliefs (i.e., behavioural beliefs), which represent the perceived consequences of the behaviour and his/her evaluation of the significance of the consequences (i.e., outcome evaluation) (Ajzen, 1991 and Eagry & Chailen, 1993).

For this study, customers could perceive visiting Soweto as highly cultural, thrilling, being more socially responsible and patriotic to ones’ country. When determining whether to perform a specific behaviour, a person is likely to assess the benefits and the costs resulting from the behaviour (Kang, Lam, & Hsu, 2006). Many individuals tend to possess a favourable attitude when the outcomes are positively evaluated and, thus, he/she is likely to engage in that specific behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; Kang et al., 2006 and Lee & Back, 2008). In other words, an individual’s positive attitude toward a particular behaviour strengthens his/her intention to perform the behaviour (Ajzen, 1991).

2.6.1 Generation Y (Gen Y)

Generation Y (Gen Y) are known as the “Millennials” in the USA and the “Lost Generation” in many European countries reflecting the economic struggles faced, “Net Generation”, “digital natives” and “Generation C” (or Connected Generation). In South Africa, Generation Y is also known as the ‘Born-Free Generation’, as the first generation with no memory of apartheid (Amaria, 2015). The age range and debate regarding the boundaries of Gen Y varies among different academics and researchers (Echenique, 2014). Gen Y is now reaching adulthood, creating new opportunities for research and marketing by exploring their characteristics, behavioural intentions, attitudes and consumption patterns in tourism. Pendergast et al., 2010 suggest that by 2020 Gen Y will become the leaders, managers and leading consumers of tourism experiences.

As seen from generational theory studying a generation has a lot to offer to those wanting a greater understanding of the youth in our society. As noted above Gen Y is currently in and leaving the young adulthood phase of life, with the social role of vitality and testing of values.

Deriving from a wide range of theorists in the generational field such as Howe and Strauss (2000), Huntley (2006) and Fields *et al*. (2008), it allows this study to establish some reliable and well-articulated characteristics of the generation. Gen Y is considered a leading generation who are self-assured, with a great deal of focus placed on brands, friends, fun and digital culture (Mosupyoe, 2014).

Gen Y is considered the most educated generation; while being sheltered they also have high expectations placed on them, and safety is paramount (Florya, 2014). They are impatient and self-focused, yet value teams and collaboration (Pendergast et al., 2010). Gen Y has also deemed multitaskers who are networked rather than individually focused, hence are strongly influenced by friends and peers (Viswanathan & Jain, 2013).

Taking into account all the characteristics listed above, it can be seen they are generated from the interaction between the social and economic context during the developmental years of the generation, combined with the effects of the preceding generations providing nurturing and care, improving policies and community practices, while moulding the character traits of the Gen Y (Pendergast et al., 2010). Fields *et al*. (2008) perceive Gen Y as a group of people that have a powerful influence on culture in the workplace and are increasingly portrayed as being a 'cultural phenomenon'. Generation Y is identified as representing a major generational shift as the product of generational shaping, which is deemed profound when comparing them to the preceding generations Pendergast, 2010).

Since 1990 South Africa experienced a profound political and social transformation, which has influenced the perceptions of the members in Generations X and Y. The South African members of Generation X lived their formative years during the transitional years of South Africa's young democracy during the 1990s, while the members of Generation Y were born during the last decade of apartheid (Mosupyoe, 2014).

For this study Gen Y will be considered individuals born between the years 1983-2000 aged 18–35 (Bruwer *et al.*, 2011; Nusair *et al.*, 2013; Gursoy *et al.*, 2008; Kotler & Armstrong, 2010; Lamm & Meeks, 2009; Cennamo & Gardner, 2008; Lyons *et al.*, 2007). Being the first generation to grow up with technology and the Internet, Gen Y'ers are highly sociable, technology literate, and media/tech-savvy (Bilgihan, 2016). Statistically, Gen Y accounts for 1.7 billion people, representing 25.5% of the world's population. Gen Y'ers are now emerging

as leaders in technology, and other industries will make up 75% of the global workforce by 2025 (Amaria, 2015).

The table on below illustrates the distribution of SA and youth population (15 – 34 years) by province, 2009 and 2014.

Table 2. 1 South African Youth Population

Province	2009 N('000)		2014 N ('000)		Percentage growth	
	SA population	Youth population	SA population	Youth population	SA population	Youth population
Western Cape	5 573	1 936	6 130	2 078	10,0	7,3
Eastern Cape	6 490	2 370	6 655	2 478	2,5	4,6
Northern Cape	1 123	387	1 172	411	4,3	6,1
Free State	2 737	1 015	2 757	1 030	0,8	1,4
KwaZulu-Natal	10 022	3 698	10 571	3 913	5,5	5,8
North West	3 401	1 222	3 649	1 302	7,3	6,6
Gauteng	11 693	4 333	12 996	4 585	11,1	5,8
Mpumalanga	3 917	1 483	4 181	1 598	6,7	7,8
Limpopo	5 262	2 031	5 585	2 188	6,1	7,8
SA	**50 222**	**18 478**	**53 701**	**19 586**	**6,9**	**6,0**

(Source: STATS SA, 2016)

From the table above we can see that the youth population of 1,9586,000 as of 2014 grew by 6.0% from 2009. However, the share of youth as a proportion of the total population declined slightly from 35.8% to 35.5% over the same period; this is mainly driven by negative growth observed amongst the white population (declined by 4.2%) (STATS SA, 2016).

It is essential to talk about Gen Y in their own context because each region has distinctive influences and experiences that serve as the cultural context for how an individual in that culture forms their view of the world (Amaria, 2015). Technology, education, family, language, history or government are only a few examples of the many cultural drivers that shape a culture's core values and motivations. Each of these influences impacts how one prioritise their attitudes, values and behaviour and then demonstrate them to others. Attracting the best of Gen Y is vital to the future of local businesses as well as local tourism.

2.6.1.1 Generation Y as visitors

In 2012 the World Youth Student and Educational Travel Confederation (WYSETC) conducted a study on more than 8500 Generation Y travellers. The WYSETCs' investigation

revealed the following key attributes about these travellers. Generation Y'ers travel more often; they explore more destinations; they tend to spend more on travel; they make bookings over the Internet; they are far more eager for experience; hungry for information; they are audacious travellers, and ensure they get the most out of their travel.

In a study conducted by Richards (2007), he captured the spirit of travel for Generation Y in a statement: "*Travel is a way of life. A certain level of risk is part of travel, even though it can be minimised through careful planning*". According to Richards, Gen Y travellers generate an estimated €109 billion (approximately R1.7 trillion) annually, providing a strong motivation for preceding generation tourism owners, managers and marketers to understand the unique characteristics of these customers. There has not been a study conducted in South Africa as to how much Gen Y contributes to local travel.

In 2008 the World Tourism Organization (WTO) noted the following: "The unique motivations of young travellers make this niche market extremely important to the key objectives of the global tourism agenda" (WTO, 2008).

A study conducted by Xola Consulting in 2006 regarding North American and Western European Generation Y travellers revealed that they demand a much more authentic travel experience that is rich in cultural exchange and environmental immersion. Gen Y tends to stay at destinations longer than other generations, resulting in higher expenditures that can have an immense impact for host countries. Gen Y enjoys seeking out destinations and adventure travel opportunities outside the mainstream, and they travel to develop a more profound understanding of their personal or cultural heritage. 82% of the respondents stated they choose destinations before deciding on a budget, and 74% said they research trips on the Internet. Xola Consulting proposes that travel companies marketing to members of Gen Y should highlight holiday packages and tours that provide a more meaningful experience than the traditional packages.

2.6.1.2 Complexities of studying Generation Y

Generation Y is the latest generation to be researched and investigated in detail. Gen Y is perhaps the most challenging to study of their predecessors due to substantial conflict over when its members were born, what they should be labelled as and the fact that some are still young.

Donnison (2007) states that estimates of when the generation begins can vary between 1977 and 1983 and when it ends can vary between 1993 and 2009. The debate and confusion over the defining birth dates can create problems. One of the main problems being, it results in extensively varying estimates of the number of members in a generation. For example, estimates within the US population can vary between 76 million (Eisner, 2005) and 80 million (Mitchell, 2005) and these different estimates can make Gen Y larger than (Mitchell, 2005) or smaller than other cohorts (McCrindle, 2009). It is important these differences be kept in mind when making claims about potential future impacts of the generation particularly in areas of consumption and travel.

Also, local governments need to create an enabling environment for small business and other stakeholders to operate in by the promotion and development of entrepreneurship for the youth of South Africa. The industry could significantly contribute to the employment of low skilled youth and entrepreneurship development which are two major problems in South Africa. Meyer and Meyer (2015) concluded that many benefits of tourism for development of local regions such as economic growth, poverty alleviation, an improved trade balance, job creation and a more diverse local economy. They also identified tourism as one of the main strategies as part of a local economic development strategy.

2.6.2 Local Tourism

According to the World Travel and Tourism Council (2016), the tourism industry contributed 9.8% of global GDP in 2016. Tourism contributes substantially to employment and well-being across the globe. The total contribution of travel and tourism to a countries GDP may amount to as much as three times its direct contribution. The tourism outlook for the coming decade is positive with an expected annual growth rate of 4%. Tourism demand is impacted by economic circumstances and lifestyle changes, with a greater emphasis on the visitor experience. Within the broader context of leisure travel, Jafari (1992) and Calinao and Lin (2017) have reported that culture and arts-related activities occupy a growing market share. This trend provides destinations generally and cities in particular with an opportunity to attract tourists by capitalising on their cultural distinction (Ngwira & Kankhuni, 2018).

Previously, more focus was placed on international tourism, and the development and research of domestic tourism was highly neglected (Dolnicar & Huybers, 2010; Pierret, 2011). The institutions and firms liable for the development and promotion of local destination need to establish the factors influencing tourists' destination choices. A destination is recognised not only as a tourism product, offering an integrated experience to tourists, but it is a perceptual concept, which is inferred subjectively by the tourists and is dependent on an extensive range of factors (Buhalis, 2000).

As noted above, the dictionary meaning of tourism is defined as "*the commercial organisation and operation of holidays and visits to places of interest*" (Reddi, 2009). The Business Dictionary (2007), defines tourism as "*marketing of the enjoyable and other features of a travel destination, and provision of facilities and services for the pleasure travellers (tourists)*". A tourist is someone who is visiting a destination outside his/her usual environment for pleasure (IRTS, 2008). A local tourist is someone who visits sites in their region. Thus we can deduce local tourism to being an act of a citizen of a country visiting destinations in their region.

The importance of culture has repeatedly been stressed in destination branding literature (Kladou & Kehagias, 2014; ATLAS, 2007; Buhalis, 2000). Arzeni (2009), states that "*creating a strong relationship between tourism and culture can assist destinations in becoming more attractive and competitive*". Cultural destination brands have been particularly popular among tourism practitioners and academicians (Buhalis, 2000 and ONTIT, 2012). Furthermore, emphasis on heritage and cultural assets is deemed to have the potential to be developed into a special niche in the industry (Apostolakis, 2003).

South Africa is well known as the Rainbow Nation, a title that captures the country's cultural and ethnic diversity (SAHO, 2016). The South African population is one of the most complex and diverse in the world. According to STAS SA (2017), the mid-year population is estimated at 56,5 million. The black African population constitutes the majority 45,7 million which is approximately 81% of the total South African population. The white population is estimated at 4,5 million approximately 8%, the coloured population at 5,0 million approximately 8.8% and the Indian/Asian population at 1,4 million approximately 2.5%.

South Africa has eleven official languages; these are, Zulu (22.7%), Xhosa (16%), Afrikaans (13.5%), English (9.6%), Sepedi (9.1%), Tswana (8%), Southern Sotho (7.6%), Tsonga (4.5%), Swazi or SiSwati (2.5%), Venda (2.4%) and Ndebele (2.1%) (Hattingh, 2018).

According to the South African government, tourism is a crucial sector in the South African economy as it contributes positively to the trade balance via foreign exchange receipts and sustains 700 000 direct jobs. Globally, the country recorded its seventh year of sustained growth despite the economic slowdown.

The 2017 STATS SA report indicated an increase in tourist arrivals in all months of 2016, compared to the previous year. More importantly for this study according to the STATS SA domestic tourism survey in 2015; domestic tourism declined between 2013 and 2015 with the total number of day trips decreasing from 54,4 million in 2013 to 48 million in 2014 and 44 million in 2015 (STATS SA, 2017).

The tourism sector directly contributed 2,9% to the South African gross domestic product (GDP) in 2016, according to the 2017 release of the STATS SA's annual *Tourism Satellite Account for South Africa* report, making the tourism sector a more substantial contributor than agriculture, but smaller than other industries such as construction and mining.

In 1994, with the end of apartheid, the South African government embarked on making tourism one of the country's leading industries in the creation of employment and the generation of foreign income (Tassiopoulosa & Haydamb, 2007).

Soweto, together with the Kruger National Park and Cape Town, is considered to be among the most attractive destinations, as part of the South African culture. All these monuments and heritage sites reflect South Africa's influence on its developments over the past century.

2.6.3 Soweto

South Africa as a tourism destination is a unique country with its richness of natural resources, culture, history and people, whose lifestyle represents an uncommon and balanced combination of traditions and ceremonies of various cultures and civilisations (Venske, 2018).

South Africa's image is first and foremost connected to history; in particular, it is renowned for the Apartheid history. The township of Soweto (short for South-Western Townships) is located to the south-west of Johannesburg, Gauteng South Africa. Soweto is a metaphor for "black life in South Africa" (Klaaste, 2004). Soweto has transformed from a legacy of the apartheid era to a vibrant, energetic hub which immerses one in authentic South African culture (South African Tourism, 2017).

Soweto took on board some of the cosmopolitan heritage that characterised life and culture in Sophiatown during the 1950s and 1960s (Hannerz, 1996). While the African municipal township was perhaps "the key institution of segregation and apartheid" (Maylam, 1995). Heritage of histories, spoken languages and subcultures that draws on an incredible variety of cultural sources, both local and global (Krige, 2011). Soweto is significant for its role in the struggle against apartheid, and one is expected to find lots of historical sights. Soweto is also known for its image referring to food, cuisine, shebeens, thrill-seeking activities such as the Soweto towers, the famous soccer stadium, as well as Gold Reef City.

2.7 Conclusion

This chapter aimed to cover the research content used to complete the study. First, introduced the theoretical grounding of the theory of brand equity incorporating a destination, behavioural theory and generational theory. Then the chapter briefly investigated the research context which will be investigated in much more detail in the following chapter.

According to (Omotayo and Adebayo, 2015) studies conducted on intention-behaviour have also validated that intention leads to action. Behavioural intention is defined as 'a person's intentions to perform various behaviours' (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). By quantifying consumers intention to revisit a destination or recommend it to others, enabled this study to give a fair indication of local South African Gen Y behaviour. This study reviews factors affecting destination brand equity for Soweto, Johannesburg (South Africa), by drawing the influencers from theories on brand equity and, generational theory and behavioural theory. Previous literature revealed that destination brand equity could be explained through these mediators: destination brand image, destination perceived quality, destination brand awareness, destination brand loyalty, attitude and behaviour.

Despite all previous research conducted on destination brand equity, there is still a need for further studies in destination brand equity in South Africa to determine local Gen Y cohorts intention to visit and recommend Soweto as a local tourist destination. The six variables mentioned above, destination brand image, destination perceived quality, destination brand awareness, destination brand loyalty, attitude and behaviour are identified as the individual's influencers towards destination brand equity for Soweto for this study. In the next chapter, these influencers will be discussed in more detail. Hypotheses will be formed based on these factors to determine their effect on destination brand equity.

CHAPTER 3: CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

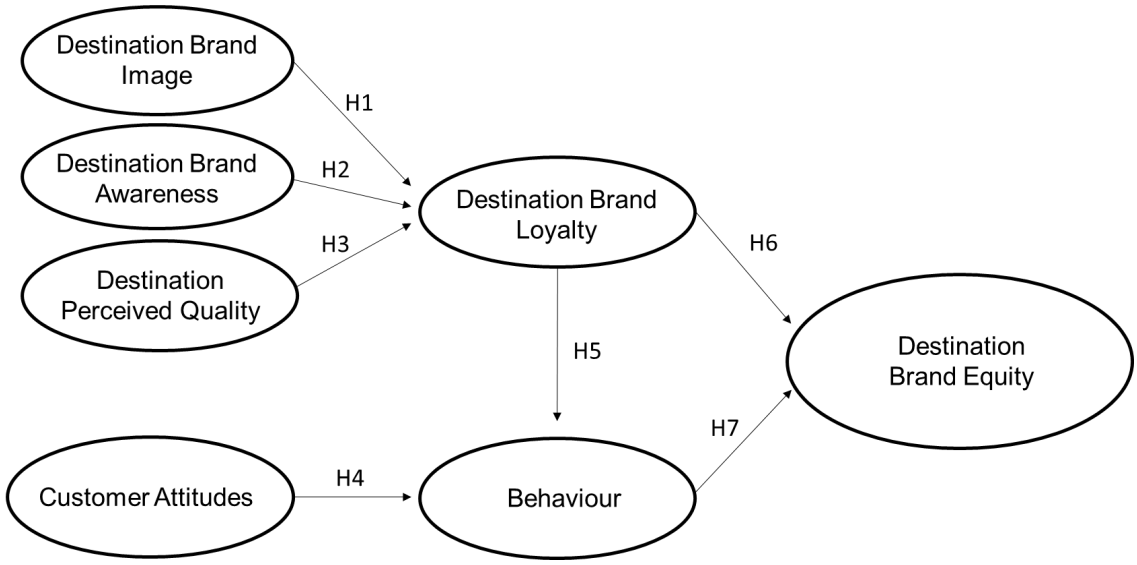
3.1 Introduction

The increasing importance of tourism in most countries has led to a rising interest in studying the factors that affect tourists' perception destination and eventually, their buying behaviour, repeat visits and likelihood for recommendation to friends and family (Bédiová & Ryglová, 2015). Furthermore, globalisation and increased competition among destinations have forced many countries to seek new ideas and approaches to maintain and extend visitor level.

Destination branding is an approach that has attracted the attention of destination managers and academics (Deslandes, 2003).

Using the information gathered in the literature review in Chapter 2, particularly the theoretical and empirical literature, a research model was conceptualised and is shown below. Next, hypothesised relationships between research constructs were developed for further empirical examination. In the research conceptual model, destination brand image, destination perceived quality, destination brand awareness and attitude are the predictor variables, destination brand loyalty and behaviour as the mediating variables, destination brand equity, the outcome variable. The figure below illustrates the proposed conceptual model.

Figure 3. 1: Research Conceptual Model



(Source, Own)

3.2 Hypotheses Development

A hypothesis is often defined as an educated guess because it is formed by what the researcher already knows about a topic (Dutton, 2010). This step in the process of the study is to identify and develop the hypotheses developed from the conceptual model which is formed on existing theory discussed in Chapter 2.

Since this is a quantitative study, hypotheses are used in the research methodology. As previously stated this research study applied the theories discussed, namely, Destination Brand Equity, Behavioural Theory and Generational Theory to understand what it is that influences the destination brand equity outcome variable.

Below all the preceding variables to destination brand equity are discussed.

3.2.1 Destination Brand Image (DBI)

As noted above brand image is regarded as the reasoned or emotional perceptions consumers attach to specific brands (Boo et al., 2009; Dobni & Zinkhan, 1990 and Keller, 2003). Even though brand image is not the only element in branding a destination, it has attracted the most attention of researchers and is identified as central to the formation of a destination-branding model (Kim & Lee, 2018; Cai, 2002; Konecnik & Gartner, 2011; Huang et al., 2014; Kim & Kim, 2003; Keller, 2003; Gnoth, 2002 and Aaker, 1991). Destination brand image denotes a tourist-based subjective impression for a given destination (Kim & Lee, 2018 and Joshi & Yadav, 2017). Blain *et al.* (2005) suggested that destination image should be included in the definition of destination brands.

The overall image of a destination is influenced by the cognitive and affective evaluation of the brand (Tasci, Gartner & Cavusgil, 2007). Tasci et al., define destination image as "an interactive system of thoughts, opinions, feelings, visualisations, and intentions toward a destination." Kim (2018) posits that a brands' image is encompassed by all thoughts, emotions, and imaginations associated with that brand or destination. Therefore, brand image associations are the informational nodes linked to the brand node in memory and contain the meaning and the evaluation towards brand for consumers (Hashim & Ansary, 2018; Keller & Lehmann, 2006; Romaniuk & Nenycz-Thiel, 2013 and Keller, 1993).

Brand image has been extensively discussed in the tourism literature, with reviews reported by (e.g. Kim & Lee., 2018; Gardener & Konecnik, 2007; Pike, 2016; Pike, 2002; Pike *et al.*, 2007;

and Boo *et al.*, 2009). Tourism marketing experts deem destination image as a concept that includes two components, tangible and intangible (Sparks & Pan, 2003). Konecnik (2010) discovered brand image to be the most important factor regarding a customers' choice of a travel destination. When a brand image becomes popular in a tourists' mind, they are likely to link it to a collection of benefits and positive expectations (Kim & Lee, 2018). As a result, this can lead to increased repeat visits and attract new tourists to a destination. A tourism destination should establish a positive and strong brand image derived from the cognitive, unique and compelling image associations (Qu et al., 2011). Several studies have also linked a behavioural component (Morgan, Pritchard & Piggott, 2003, and Grace & O'cass, 2004).

The importance of all the findings above is that it shows how valuable it is for tourism destinations to provide pleasant experiences for tourists to develop a positive image; as this will further enhance their willingness to revisit or recommend the destination to others (Qu et al., 2011). Brand image can also play a crucial role in differentiation. The image component of a brand is considered a key factor in the brand equity formation when differentiation with competing brands exists (Kim & Lee, 2018).

While most studies concur that brand image is a multidimensional global impression, there is no agreement on the dimensions that constitute this same holistic impression (Kim et al., 2007). Furthermore, a lack of homogeneity, reliability and validity in the scales used for measuring the destination image is observed, since the majority are the result of exploratory studies on the identification of essential and determined attributes for the destination image formation (Huang et al., 2015 and Beerli & Martín, 2004).

Unfortunately, the majority of studies conducted concerning destination brand image only focused on the cognitive assessment. Qu, Kim and Im (2011) investigated a theoretical model of destination branding in which they suggested that destination image as a multi-dimensional concept influenced by both the cognitive and effective images that jointly affect tourist behaviours. Furthermore, their results revealed that destination image exerts a mediating role between the three image components as the brand associations and behavioural intentions.

This study recognises destination brand image as a concept that includes local Gen Y tourists' differentiated emotions with competing local tourist destinations following tourist activities in Soweto, Johannesburg. A brand equity investigation conducted by Pike and Page (2014)

included the brand image element and concluded that this dimension had been measured with only a few scale items. This limitation was also triggered by the use of SEM. It can be seen that the theory of brand image is complex, and even more so, regarding destination image.

3.2.1.1 Destination Brand Image and Destination Brand Loyalty (DBI →DBL)

According to Park and Nunkoo (2013), a key challenge for tourism managers and destination marketers attempting to promote tourism trade is the ability to understand the patterns of travellers' behaviour. If repetitive patterns of behaviour can be recognised, it allows informal channels of relationships to be created whereby potential tourists can be attracted to specific destinations. Therefore, researchers have conducted numerous studies in an attempt to identify loyalty and repeat behaviours among travellers.

Advocates of loyalty behaviours, originating from repeat visits and recommendations, identify destination image as a factor that effects loyalty directly and indirectly (Chi & Qu, 2008; Jang & Feng, 2007; Lee, Graefe, & Burns, 2007; Yuksel, Yuksel & Bilim, 2010). The intentions to revisit a destination spread positive word-of-mouth have been the two most critical behavioural consequences in destination image and post-consumption behaviour studies (Park & Nankoo, 2003). The overall conclusion is that overall image of a destination is influential not only on the destination selection process, but also on loyalty and tourist behaviours in general (Bigne et al., 2001; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Qu, Kim, & Im, 2011). Therefore, based on the above research, the hypothesis used for this study regarding destination brand image and destination brand loyalty is proposed as:

H1: There is a positive relationship between Destination Brand Image and Destination Loyalty.

3.2.2 Destination Brand Awareness (DBA)

Aaker (1991) and Keller (2003) posit that "*brand awareness is a combination of whether a specific brand is stored in the memory of consumers and their ability to recall a specific brand within a product category*" (Karam & Saydam, 2015). According to Keller (2003) brand awareness is created by increasing brand familiarity through strong association and constant

positive exposure. Brand awareness transpires when the consumer has a profound and specific image of the product in mind (Huang & Cai, 2015).

Destination brand awareness also represents the strength of the destinations' presence in the mind of the target audience along a continuum (Aaker, 1996). Usually, when researchers investigate awareness in destination branding, they typically consider items connected to the destination selection process (Boo et al., 2009; Motameni & Shahrokhi, 1998; Yoo & Donthu, 2001). Destination awareness infers that an image of the destination exists in the minds of potential tourists (Gartner 1993). When a destination seeks to be successful, it must first achieve tourist awareness and second a positive image (Milman and Pizam 1995).

Destination brand awareness is a sub-component of Kellers' (2003) theory of Customer-Based Brand Equity Model and Aakers (1991) Brand Equity Model and then applied to a destination, (Gartner & Ruzzier, 2011), and the main attribute of a brand (de Chernatony & McDonald, 2003; Motameni & Shahrokhi, 1998; Oh, 2005). Brand awareness has been regarded the main component of a brand's effect on local tourism (Kim & Kim, 2005; Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2003; Lee & Back, 2008; Oh, 2000) as well as in the consumer's purchasing decision (Kwun & Oh, 2004; Oh, 2000; Webster, 2000).

All models of consumer behaviour argue that awareness is a first and necessary, but not sufficient, step leading to trial and repeat visits (Gartner & Ruzzier, 2013). Goodall (1993) noted that only destinations the potential tourist is aware of would be included in the perceived opportunity set. According to Jakeli & Tchumburidze (2012), brand awareness can be a useful factor in order to attain a competitive advantage and improve competition among brands.

For this study, brand awareness is deemed as the extent to which local Gauteng Gen Y cohorts are aware of Soweto as a tourist destination; for example, whether Soweto is famous and well known in South Africa or was Soweto the first tourism site that comes to mind, and so on.

3.2.2.1 Destination Brand Awareness and Destination Brand Loyalty (DBA → DBL)

Mishra and Mishra (2014) found that brand awareness indicates the strength of a brand's presence in the customer's mind; this is seen in the context of a destination as the strength of a

destinations presence in the mind of a tourist. According to Aaker (1991) brand awareness indicates the ability of customers to recall the brand without any signal and is, therefore, a vital component for developing the image of a brand.

Furthermore, brand awareness plays an essential role in building a destination brand in the tourists' mind for the reason that tourists make travel decisions based on knowledge, awareness, or experience of a specific destination. As a result, tourists may repeatedly visit as they are assured of its quality. Therefore, brand awareness is related to brand loyalty in making travel decisions as it relates to tourists' thoughts.

Brand awareness is also said to affect the customers' attitudes toward brand loyalty (Alkhawaldeh, Al-Salaymeh, Alshare & Eneizan, 2017). The degree of brand loyalty becomes stronger and more certain when customers are more aware of the brand. Thus, this study aims to highlight the role of destination brand awareness in the context of the local Gen Y'ers' decision-making process as an essential tool for selecting Soweto as the local tourist destination of choice.

From this point, marketers can create destination brand awareness among customers through repetitive publicity and advertising to build brand loyalty in the long-term (Keller, 2003). Eventually, destination brand awareness influences brand loyalty directly, although there is not enough understanding about its impact on the customer loyalty process (Alkhawaldeh et al., 2017). It is noteworthy that some researches revealed a significant relationship (Tsang, Lee & Li, 2011; Valavi, 2014) and others found an insignificant relationship (Esch, Langner, Schmitt, & Geus, 2006; Ramaseshan, Rabbanee & Hui, 2013; Hyun & Kim, 2011 and Liu, Liu & Lin, 2013) between destination brand awareness and destination brand loyalty.

Based on the above research, the hypothesis used for this study regarding destination brand awareness and destination brand loyalty is proposed as:

H2: There is a positive relationship between Destination Brand Awareness and Destination Brand Loyalty.

3.2.3 Destination Perceived Quality (DPQ)

Brand quality is also often considered as one of the most crucial dimensions of brand equity (Kim & Lee, 2018; Baalbaki & Guzman, 2016; Boo et al., 2009; Aaker, 1996; Keller, 2003; Lassar *et al.*, 1995; and Boo, 2006). The term brand quality has often been used interchangeably with perceived quality by consumers (Boo et al., 2009; Aaker, 1991; Zeithaml, 1988). Zeithaml (1988) broadly defined the quality of brands as "*superiority or excellence, and with this definition as the base, defined perceived quality as the judgment of consumers about the overall superiority or excellence of a product*". In other words, perceived quality, unlike objective quality, is subjective and refers to what consumers perceptions regarding the destination's infrastructure, hospitality service, and amenities such as accommodation and tourist sites (Stepchenkova and Li, 2014; Pike *et al.*, 2010; Buhalis, 2000; Murphy *et al.*, 2000 and Keller, 2003). Keller (2008) identified seven dimensions of product quality: performance, features, conformation quality, reliability, durability, serviceability, style, and design.

The term perceived quality is very subjective, but it can be made operational through a variety of scale measures, as can all the other brand equity dimensions (Konecnik, 2010). For tourists, the brand is a guarantee of quality, and they are willing to pay extra for the tranquillity the brand provides them. Destination brand quality refers to perceptions of the quality of the facilities and non-physical aspects of the destinations. Customer perceptions of brand quality are essential to successful destination marketing because of their influence on destination selection and the decision to return to or recommend the destination (Kim et al., 2013).

Konecnik & Gartner investigated destination brand equity using destination quality as a variable in their proposed model. They found destination quality to be important because of its impact on consumer behaviour. For their study destination quality refers to how tourists perceive the quality of the environment surrounding the destination. In particular, it relates to the quality of accommodations, cuisine, ambience, culture, and personal safety, among others.

For this study, destination perceived quality is deemed as the extent to which South African Gen Y cohorts see the overall quality of tourism products and services in Soweto as a local tourist destination.

While examining previous studies concerning destination choice, only a few covered the topic of perceived quality and were a good predictor of revisit intentions (Huang et al., 2015; Ekinci & Sirakaya, 2004; Heung & Cheng, 2000; Kozak & Rimmington, 2000 and Petrick, 2003). It

is, therefore, interesting to note the tourist's overall evaluation of a destination is a combination of products, services, and experiences, proving quality is an element affecting both consumer loyalty and behaviour. Probably the most challenging issue about integrating quality into destination evaluation is how to operationalise the concept. The importance of price has been recognised by others investigating destination development (Baloglu & Mangaloglu 2001; Crompton 1979 and Echtner & Ritchie 1993).

3.2.3.1 Destination Perceived Quality and Destination Brand Loyalty (DPQ → DBL)

Perceived quality is a crucial aspect for decision making for tourists in the process of deciding their next, or return to the same place or providing a recommendation to the friends or family members (Bobovnický, 2011). Favourable perceived quality of place's offerings differentiates the place from a competing one, improves the travellers' perception. The creation of the perception of quality for a place is impossible unless the quality claim has substance in the significant attraction factors (Moilanen-Raiunisto, 2009). Prior research suggests that quality attributes such as destination infrastructure, accommodation, culture, atmosphere, hygiene and safety may have a positive influence on brand loyalty and behaviour (Haneef, 2017 and Buhalis, 2000). Likewise, Boo et al. (2009) reported a positive effect of destination brand quality on destination brand loyalty.

Perceived brand quality brings value to consumers including a reason to visit and differentiating the destination from competing local tourist destinations in the country. Few previous studies have investigated the topic of destination brand quality and its effect of destination brand loyalty (Boo et al., 2009; Murphy et al., 2000; Buhalis, 2000; Pike et al., 2010).

Destination loyalty is essential for both the destination and the tourist. Further, loyal tourists are willing to make repeat visits to the destination that delivers value beyond their expectation. This study proposes that destination perceived quality of Soweto will positively influence brand loyalty and behaviour and ultimately destination brand equity in a local tourism context from the perceptions of Gen Y.

Therefore, based on the above research, the hypothesis used for this study regarding destination perceived quality and destination brand loyalty is proposed as:

H3: There is a positive the relationship between Destination Perceived Quality and Destination Brand Loyalty.

3.2.4 Customer Attitudes

Attitude is occasionally described in research as the relationship with the essential aspects of an object (e.g. the characteristics of a tourist destination can form the image of a destination), or mainly as a general attitude (Juvan, Omerzal & Maravić, 2017 and Chang & Liu, 2009). Attitude towards a behaviour is defined as "*the degree to which a person has a favourable or unfavourable evaluation or appraisal of the behaviour in question*" (Ajzen, 1991). Attitude as a predictor of consumer choice behaviour is most popularly and frequently used in consumer behaviour field in marketing (Um and Crompton 1990).

Consumers' decision to visit a specific destination depends on specific destination attitudes (Chang & Liu, 2009). Attitudes towards a destination are relatively permanent and stable evaluative summaries of the destination. It is assumed that if customers are satisfied with the performance of a service, they tend to become loyal to it (Chen & Chen, 2010; Mashwama, Chiliya & Chuchu, 2019). It is also an important psychological construct as it has been found to influence and predict many behaviours (Kraus, 1995). Generally, the more favourable the attitude toward the behaviour, the more likely an individual's intention to perform the behaviour will occur (Ajzen, 2001).

Although studies implicitly address the mediating role of brand attitude (Liu, Li, Mizerski & Soh, 2012; O'Cass & Weerawardena, 2010; Sattler, Völckner, Riediger & Ringle, 2010), brand attitude's mediation between behaviour and destination brand equity has not been thoroughly investigated in South Africa from a local tourist perspective. Thus, one prediction is that brand attitude mediates the effects of behaviour and destination brand equity on visit intention for local tourist destinations.

Prior travel experiences may influence the individuals' attitudes and behaviours toward choices (March & Woodside, 2005). Thus, it is important for marketing communications (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991) and service quality (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1991) positively influence destination performance and tourists' attitudes.

Merrilees, Miller, and Herington (2009) showed that the major antecedents influencing brand attitudes are social bonds, culture, and creative business. While applying the term "attitude" to the research of destination branding, it is necessary to understand the formation of tourists' attitudes (Jalilvand, Esfahani, & Samiei, 2010).

As noted in Chapter 2 in the theory of planned behaviour (TPB), Ajzen (1985, 1987, 1991) proposed adding perceived behavioural control to the analysis of how attitude and behaviour are formed. In TPB, behavioural intention is central to the brand equity model and represents the extent of the individual's intentions to perform or not to perform one certain behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; March &Woodside, 2005). Many studies in a variety of contexts demonstrated that attitude toward the behavior, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control as exogenous constructs lead to customer intention and behaviour within the framework of the TPB or extended TPB (e.g. Hsu & Huang, 2012; Kim et al., 2013; Ong & Musa, 2011; Quintal et al. 2010; Teng et al., 2015).

For instance, Hsu and Huang (2012) in their effort of extending the TPB verified that tourists' attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control determine their decision to visit a tourism destination. Quintal et al. (2010) findings indicated that attitude toward behaviour significantly impacts Japanese travellers' decision to choose a destination.

3.2.4.1 Customer Attitudes and Behaviour (CA→B)

Attitude toward the behaviour, which is a volitional determinant of behavioural intention, reflects "*the degree to which a person has a favourable or unfavourable evaluation or appraisal of the behaviour in question*." (Tarkiainen & Sundqvist, 2005)

The main focus of the present subheading is the effect of consumer attitudes towards Soweto and its predictive power on actual behaviour. It is generally assumed that attitudes toward available options—whether inferred from choices in the revealed preferences paradigm or measured directly—determine consumer decisions (Lee et al., 2014). When confronted with a choice between alternative destinations, tourists presumably select the alternative toward which they hold the most favourable overall attitude. Because this assumption is virtually an article of faith, it is rarely questioned or empirically validated (Ajzen, 2008).

Although intuitively reasonable, the assumption that consumer attitudes are predictive of behaviour must be deemed with caution in light of extensive research on the attitude-behaviour relation conducted over the past 40 years (Nikdavoodi, 2013 and Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005). Consider, for example, attempts to understand local tourist behaviour. The predominant explanatory construct in this study is an attitudinal indication of Soweto as a local tourist destination.

The challenge in the predictive and explanatory power of the TPB is premised on attitudes towards a behaviour (along with subjective norms and perceived behavioural control) leading to the comparable behavioural intention (Ajzen, 1991). Thus, behavioural and cognitive models that assume a rational actor and posit attitudes as indicators of actual behaviour may be especially problematic when applied to local tourism. Gnoth (1997) hence calls for a better understanding of attitudes in light of emotions that help organise attitudes.

Measuring a tourists attitude towards the destinations' products, services, infrastructure, safety and trademarks of tourism providers is difficult since one must also consider the mood and emotions of the tourist at the time of the measurement (Juvan et al., 2017).

For this study, the target behaviour is the intention to travel to, revisit or recommend Soweto. Hence, we propose the following hypothesis on the basis of these findings that destination customer attitudes will positively influence actual behaviour and ultimately destination brand equity in a local tourism context and from a Gen Y perspective.

Therefore, based on the above research, the hypothesis used for this study regarding customer attitudes and behaviour is proposed as:

H4: There is a positive relationship between Customer Attitudes and Behaviour.

3.2.5 Destination Brand Loyalty

Brand loyalty, as a brand equity dimension, has been defined as the attachment a customer has to a brand (Narteh, 2018; Lee, 2011; Aaker, 1991) and has been recognised as the primary source of customer-based brand equity (Keller, 2003). Loyalty is viewed as a critical driver of

performance in today's competitive environment (Bazazo, Nasseef, Al-Zawaideh, Al-Zawaideh & Al-Dhomaidat, 2017).

According to Aaker (1991) loyalty of the customer base is the core of a brand's equity. The capability to create customer loyalty should be a significant goal of brand management. Generally, brand loyalty has been considered either an attitude or behaviour (Singh & Mehraj, 2018 and Odin, Odin, & Valetter-Florence, 2001). Nonetheless, regarding measurement, an assessment of the literature emphasises the lack of clarity about the conceptual nature of brand loyalty. Thus, it has resulted in the use of a variety of measurement tools producing inconsistent findings (Odin et al., 2001).

Brand loyalty has recently attracted the attention of tourism academics, and an interest in destination loyalty and interest is growing (e.g., Pike et al., 2014; Bianchi & Pike, 2016; Bosnjak, Sirgy, Hellriegel, & Maurer, 2010; Croes, Shani, & Walls, 2010; Forgas-Colla, PalauSaumellb, Sánchez-Garcíac, & Callarisa-Fiolc, 2012; Phillips et al., 2013; Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Yoon & Uysal, 2005 and Yuksel, Yuksel, & Bilim, 2010). Even though loyalty has been a focal research area in tourism (Baloglu, 2001, 2002; Boo et al., 2009; Oppermann, 2000), to date there is no precise definition of destination brand loyalty within the theory of destination brand equity.

Furthermore, Back and Parks (2003) note that in the tourism and hospitality sector, loyalty is considered a consequence of multidimensional cognitive attitudes toward a specific brand. Huang et al., (2015) suggested that repeat visitation and intention to return are indicators of place loyalty.

One argument posits that by identifying antecedents of tourists' destination loyalty will enable managers to develop strategies that will increase loyalty (Park & Nunkoo, 2013). Research on destination loyalty is mounted conceptually within the broader literature on product and service loyalty. However, despite the studies conducted, the degree of loyalty and the underlying likelihood of tourists ever becoming loyal are still being debated.

A study conducted by Kim and Lee (2018) suggested brand awareness and perceived quality have impacts on brand image, and brand image is related to brand loyalty. An investigation conducted by Song, Su, and Li (2013) proposed a multiple mediation model, in which the

interplay jointly influences destination loyalty intention between destination perceived value, satisfaction and destination image. Hsu, Oh, and Assaf (2011) emphasised that brand loyalty for upmarket hotels is a compound outcome variable of the three factors of perceived quality, brand awareness and brand image. Chen and Tseng (2010) illustrated that brand awareness positively influenced brand perception quality, and again, perceived quality affects brand loyalty.

According to Choi's study (2009), on Japanese tourists visiting Korea. Their study was based on destination brand equity formation, and results indicated brand awareness and brand image affect brand loyalty. Two more studies found brand image and brand awareness influencing brand loyalty (O'Cass & Grace, 2003 and Kim, 2018). Song et al., (2013) corroborated that destination image's effect on destination loyalty intention is only to some extent mediated by perceived value and satisfaction. They confirmed all possible single and multiple effects within their research model.

It can be seen from the above studies that none of them investigated brand loyalty with a focus on a local tourist destination in South Africa with local Generation Y cohort as the tourist market. Therefore, this study investigated brand loyalty as a mediating variable and destination brand equity as the outcome.

To sum up, previous findings on destination brand loyalty and destination brand equity it has provided a contextual basis for the four brand equity elements used in this study; i.e. awareness, image, perceived quality, and loyalty (e.g. Boo et al., 2009; Konecnik & Ruzzier, 2008). According to Konecnik and Ruzzier (2008), brand loyalty is positively related to each one of the above four brand equity dimensions as perceived by tourists.

3.2.5.1 Destination Brand Loyalty and Behaviour (DBL →B)

This study goes one step further to the traditional destination brand equity model. This study also evaluates and measures loyalty by evaluating attitudinal and behavioural elements. There are previous research studies that suggest there are two dimensions of loyalty: behavioural loyalty and attitudinal loyalty (Kang, 2015; Jones & Taylor, 2007; Li & Petrick, 2008; Aaker, 1991; Boo et al., 2009; Keller, 2003 and Yoo & Donthu, 2001). Konecnik (2010) differentiated between behavioural tourism destination loyalty and attitudinal tourism destination loyalty and

how these determine brand loyalty differently. Behavioural tourism destination loyalty indicates previous experiential familiarity influences the present, and future tourism decisions, especially destination choice, or many destinations rely heavily on repeat tourists. Attitudinal loyalty denotes the dispositional commitment or attitude a consumer has toward a brand (Pike et al., 2014).

In the context of this study, Generation Ys' attitudinal destination brand loyalty would be manifested by positive feelings towards Soweto. Attitudinal destination loyalty is measured by the intention to visit and positive word of mouth recommendations. In prior studies, attitude is considered an appropriate measure of destination loyalty (Pike et al., 2014; Alegre & Juaneda, 2006; Chen & Chen, 2010 and Eusébio & Vieira, 2013). Tourists who have a positive attitude towards a destination are more likely to provide a positive word of mouth and recommend it. Given that the importance of positive word of mouth is recognised, it is considered a major influential factor when discussing tourism destination loyalty (Konecnik, 2010).

Gitelson and Crompton (1984) argued that many destinations rely heavily on repeat tourists. Opperman (2000) suggested that destination loyalty should be investigated longitudinally, looking at lifelong visitation behaviour, this is not possible due to the length of time the study. Nevertheless, behavioural loyalty can be used as a reasonable or good predictor of future destination choice. The behavioural approach considers loyalty to be the tendency to visit or recommend a specific destination for a period repeatedly.

Therefore, based on the above research, the hypothesis used for this study regarding destination brand loyalty and behaviour is proposed as:

H5: There is a positive relationship between Destination Brand Loyalty and Behaviour.

3.2.5.2 Destination Brand Loyalty and Destination Brand Equity (DBL →DBE)

Most of the current research on brand equity for a destination and more specifically destination brand loyalty, e.g. Konecnik and Gartner (2007) or Pike and Bianchi (2013) refer and make use of the research made by Opperman (2000) in tourism destination loyalty. In the literature above destination brand studies have investigated the interrelationship of the commonly used constructs of awareness, perceived quality, image, and brand loyalty (Schuckert, Kim & Im,

2014; Bianchi et al., 2014; Boo et al., 2009; Ferns and Walls, 2012; Horng, Liu, Chou & Tsai, 2012; and Pike et al., 2010). The studies found that a high destination brand equity indicates customers' positive and strong associations and perceptions toward the destination brand will result in tourists' high loyalty to the destination.

Karbaspour and Saeideh (2010) conducted a study, and their results showed that brand loyalty and association factor have a direct impact on brand equity, and the factor of perceived quality has an indirect impact on brand equity through loyalty.

Konecnik and Gartner (2007) observed the importance of brand loyalty for Slovenia a country in Central Europe in their brand equity model. Also, in 2005 Kim and Kim found that brand loyalty from the customers' perspectives affects a firm's performance in the luxury hotel business.

This study proposes that destination brand loyalty will positively influence destination brand equity and behaviour in a local tourism context from the perceptions of Gen Y. Therefore, based on the above research, the hypothesis used for this study regarding destination brand loyalty and destination brand equity is proposed as:

H6: There is a positive relationship between Destination Brand Loyalty and Destination Brand Equity

3.2.6 Behaviour

Consumer behaviour has been considered as a set of actions and processes that consumers apply at the time of information collection, purchase, evaluation and use of products and services to meet the needs, desires and to create utility (Cohen, 2014 and Belch & Belch, 2004). At the same time, the consumer wants to maximise their benefits and minimise the time spent. Consumers' behavioural intentions toward a brand functionally relate to perceptions and evaluations of that brand. Consumers' intention to use certain service providers is based on belief in the brand name in general (Lee et al., 2014).

This study will use the theoretical foundations from behavioural theory as well as generational theory discussed in Chapter 2 and apply them to the local South African Generation Y cohort

behaviour. Theoretical foundations are imperative for empirical research and the measurement of tourist behaviour because it reveals the concepts that should be measured, as well as the ways to measure them. There are not many recent studies that have discussed whether it is even feasible to use traditional marketing concepts for the study of tourist behaviour (Scott et al., 2014). There are some that authors have attempted to develop and expand models that may be more useful in tourism (Juvan et al., 2017).

As the field of local tourism continues to develop (Sparks, 2007; Mitchell & Hall, 2006), the need for a better understanding of consumer behaviours is paramount, especially in respect of likelihood of visiting and recommending local destinations. Travel behaviour is a term of synthesis, which includes the decision before the trip, the evaluation and intention of tourist. In travel behaviour, the intended trip includes repeat visits and positive word-of-mouth recommendation in the post-consumption phase (Huang et al., 2015 and Chen, 2008) and is often financed with savings. It is noteworthy that tourists are becoming more proficient, flexible and resourceful, but this also makes them more demanding.

Other factors that may influence a consumers' behaviour include those generated by economic and social changes, for example, the increasing price of fuel, the trend of having smaller families, increasing options of communication and so on. There are also environmental or social effects, such as the role of the family and friends, the role of colleagues, the role of social status, the role of culture and so on.

Research on tourist behaviour must take all of the above into account. It can be seen that there are many factors that can affect an individual tourist. Therefore, it is important stakeholders on the supply side understand a tourist's perception of a destination, journey, distance, and advertising so that they know how to prepare an effective marketing strategy. It is also valuable if the stakeholders know how decisions about the journey were made and how they were influenced by personal factors.

Furthermore, in mapping out the behavioural intentions of local tourists, it is also helpful to draw upon established theoretical paradigms from attitudinal research (Sparks, 2007; Ajzen, 2001; Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). According to Alghamdi (2007), how people set objectives for their choice of destination, and how these objectives are then reflected in their

choice and travel behaviour, can be revealed through consumer behaviour theories (Mengich, 2011).

In recent years, practitioners have increasingly turned their attention to an examination of one particular segment of tourist demand— Generation Y. The WYSE Travel Confederation (2012), from a behavioural point of view, emphasised the fact that youth and student travellers are keen to discover and learn about different cultures and to be able to interact with local populations. These factors open up the possibility of promoting, through this segment of tourist demand, behaviours that are more responsible and more aware of the various aspects of sustainability.

Generation Y is the new visitors to the tourism market (Pendergast, 2010). "*The importance of this market segment lies in the fact not only that it is becoming larger but also that it represents the market of the future*" (Vukic; Kuzmanovic & Stankovic, 2014). The IRTS (2008) also emphasised the growing importance of the young tourist segment (compared to other market segments), regarding both tourist flow and spending power. The study of Gen Y requires, first of all, the criteria and variables used to define an individual as a member of Gen Y be identified so that their decisional processes, motivations, and behaviour can then be observed and described.

3.2.6.1 Behaviour and Destination Brand Equity (B→DBE)

One of the current main concerns of tourism marketing managers is searching for ways to increase repeat visits and recommendations (Satvati, Rabie & Rasoli, 2016). Successful destinations try to establish a sense of loyalty because creating strong ties to the tourist is one of the main bases of visits. One of the most common strategies to achieve this goal is to understand the relationship between tourists' behaviour and brand equity because the brand equity is often an indication of its quality which affects the choice of tourists (Anaraki,2013). In recent studies, the importance of the emotional relationship between the tourist and the destination brand has been approved (Prayag, Hosany, Muskat, & Del Chiappa, (2017), and these studies strongly emphasise that destination brand equity is not only achieved by the goods and services offered, but also by interactions between tourists and sellers (Singh & Mehraj,2018; Kashif, 2015 and Kladou & Kehagias, 2014).

Therefore, based on the above research, the hypothesis used for this study regarding behaviour and destination brand equity is proposed as:

H7: There is a positive the relationship between Behaviour and Destination Brand Equity.

All of the hypotheses were designed into a conceptual model below.

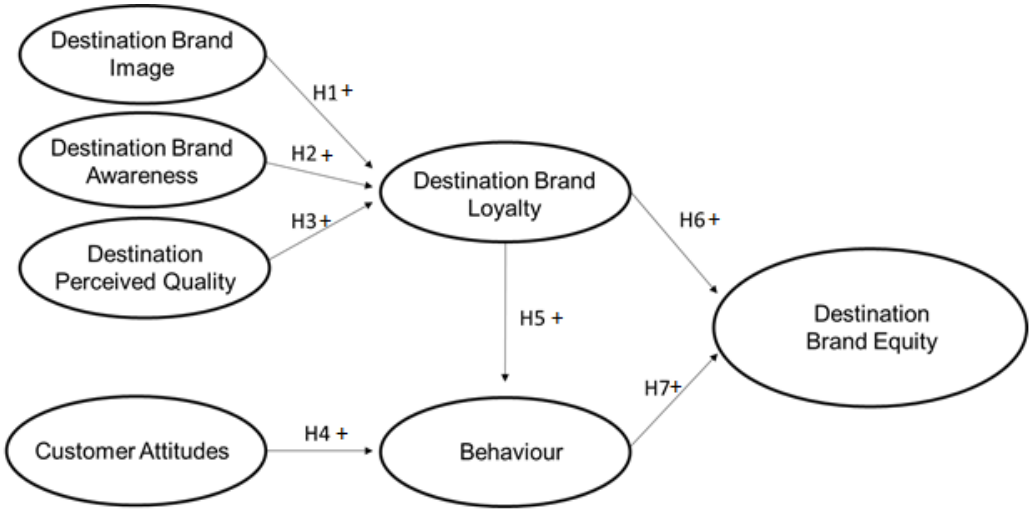
3.3 Conceptual Model

Conceptual frameworks are products of quantitative processes based on theorisation. Initially, the terms of the concept and conceptual framework are defined, and then the processes and procedures of conceptual framework building will be outlined.

Figure 3.2 on the following is the proposed research model for examining destination brand equity for the destination Soweto from a local Gen Y'ers perspective. The proposed hypotheses incorporate independent variables (Destination Brand Image , Destination Brand Awareness, Destination Perceived Quality, Destination Brand Loyalty, Customer Attitudes, and Behaviour) and the dependent variable destination brand equity in a predictive relationship positing the nature of the impact. The direction of the relationship between the variables in each of the hypotheses in Figure 3.2 on the following page is denoted by "(+)" or "(−)" sign representing a positive or negative relationship, respectively.

Research Conceptual Model

Figure 3. 2: Hypothesised Research Conceptual Model



(Source, Own, 2017)

Below are the generated null hypotheses (H_0) and represents the above theoretical hypotheses that have been put forward, as they are believed to be true and are used as a basis for argument, but has not been proved. The alternative hypothesis (H_A) is a statement of what a hypothesis test is set up to establish.

Below are the proposed hypotheses:

H_1: There is no relationship between Destination Brand Image and Destination Loyalty.

H_2: There is a positive relationship between Destination Brand Awareness and Destination Brand Loyalty.

H_{A3}: There is a positive the relationship between Destination Perceived Quality and Destination Brand Loyalty.

H_4: There is a positive relationship between Customer Attitudes and Behaviour.

H_{A5}: There is a positive relationship between Destination Brand Loyalty and Behaviour.

H_6: There is a positive relationship between Destination Brand Loyalty and Destination Brand Equity

H_7: There is a positive the relationship between Behaviour and Destination Brand Equity.

The conceptual model on the previous page depicted in Figure 3.2 was tested by using the research methodology presented in Chapter 4.

3.4 Conclusion

Chapter 3 aimed to illustrate the framework forming the basis of this study. It covered the development of the conceptual model that constitutes this study. It also covered the formation of hypotheses while supporting them with existing literature. The following chapter aims to cover research design and methodology of this study.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented the research conceptual framework and identified theoretical relationships among the constructs that helped formulate the study hypotheses. This chapter focuses on outlining the philosophical foundation of the research and discussing the methodology used to collect the data and test the relationships proposed in the conceptual model. The chapter ends with a description and discussion of the techniques and methods used for this study.

Research methodology is a process followed in order to conduct accurate and valuable research (Bitso, 2011). Every research study conducted should involve and follow specific steps such as, (1) establish the objectives of the project, (2) determine the sample, (3) choose the data collection method, (4) collect the data, analyse the results, and (5) lastly formulate conclusions and actionable insights based on theoretical and statistical results (Pelissier, 2008). This chapter will also cover concepts relating to statistical modelling.

This study uses a positivist research philosophy because the study depends on quantifiable observations that lead to the use of statistical analysis to formulate conclusions and test the hypotheses (Dudovskiy, 2016). This study made use of quantitative data analysis. Crowther and Lancaster (2008) recommend that as a general rule, positivist studies usually adopt the deductive approach and as noted this study too will use a deductive approach. The methodology employed a deductive research approach as well as follow a cross-sectional approach.

4.2 Research Strategy

The goal of formulating a marketing research strategy is to find effective ways to solve a problem in a way that is still profitable (Dudovskiy, 2016). The need to understand the factors influencing destination brand equity is essential for managers, providers and researchers. From a practical perspective, managers and other decision makers in the local tourism industry need information about how their customers and prospective customers act and react. The questions derived from problems identified can be "answered" through marketing research strategies in an effective manner.

Rossman & Rollis define paradigm as "shared understandings of reality" (Cantik, 2012), they identified four paradigms, but the two principal paradigms are positivism and interpretivism. This study is based on the positivist paradigm. Positivism is associated with quantitative research, which involves hypothesis testing to obtain an "objective" truth and to predict what may happen at a future date (Cantik, 2012). As noted this study uses a quantitative research method. This study uses explanatory methods which is one of three primary quantitative methods and involves testing a hypothesis derived from available theories. Quantitative research involves experiments, questionnaires, testing, and structured content analysis. Quantitative analysis is deemed objective, deductive, as well as having a high degree of structure and may involve some manipulation of subjects.

4.2.1 Research Philosophy

Positivism is the research philosophy implemented in this study (Collins, 2010). It is an approach to the study of destination brand equity that relies explicitly on only "factual" knowledge gained through observation, including measurement, which is reliable. Positivism, in essence, is based on the notion that science is the only way to learn about the truth (Dudovskiy, 2016).

Positivism, therefore, depends on quantifiable observations that lead to statistical analysis. Positivism is well-known "as a philosophy, that is the empiricist view that knowledge stems from human experience" (Pelissier, 2008). Positivists believe that reality is constant and can be observed and described from an objective viewpoint (Levin, 1988).

4.2.2 Research Design

Research design outlines the overall strategy chosen to integrate the different components of the study coherently and logically (Trochim, 2002), thereby, ensuring the research problem is adequately addressed. This research paper is a cross-sectional study as it describes the relationship between destination brand image, destination brand awareness, destination brand perceived quality, customer attitudes, destination brand loyalty and behaviour on destination brand equity. The study will use local Generation Y (Gen Y), people; August - September 2018; in Johannesburg, males/females between the ages of 18 and 35.

Cross-sectional research is used to examine one variable in different groups that are similar in all other characteristics (Roundy, 2016). Cross-sectional research studies are based on observations that take place in different groups at one time. The information is observed merely from the participant's responses. The cross-sectional research method in this study is used to gather information only.

Using a cross-sectional method in this study will provide a clear 'snapshot' of the outcome and the characteristics associated with it, for a specific point in time, i.e. August-September 2018. This study also had time and cost limitations thus making cross-sectional data most fitting. As a result, this study used non-probability techniques (questionnaire) to gather data, which is relatively inexpensive and take up less time to conduct. Cross-section studies are capable of using data from a large number of subjects suiting this study which aims to collect questionnaires completed in the Johannesburg region.

As noted the study uses quantitative data analysis and will this follow the deductive approach. The study will use non-probability sampling making use of purposive and convenience sampling. The study begins by exploring previous research papers, news articles, reports, scholarly books facilitating the development of a theoretical framework which is then used to develop the conceptual model from which the seven hypotheses were then formulated in Chapter 3 and tested and analysed in Chapter 4 and 5.

Primary research was conducted by using 370 reliable, close-ended questionnaires to participants who were conveniently available to complete the questionnaire via self-administered questionnaires as well as through Facebook. Galpin (2013) highlighted the importance of making use of large sample sizes in order to detect small differences within a given sample. The minimum sample size requirement was 350, and it was established that a

total of 370 questionnaires were reliable. Questionnaires are data collection tools that collect demographic, behavioural and attitudinal information (Harvard University, 2012).

The questions within the questionnaire were constructed with the following in mind: (Harvard University, 2012):

- Short and simple questions
- Questions will not be misleading
- The questions will be placed in a logical order

4.2.3 Quantitative research

Quantitative research is confirmatory and deductive in nature. This study uses quantitative research as it is the better approach to implement as conclusive answers to research questions are going to be answered and analysed in Chapter 5 and 6. Unlike qualitative research, quantitative research involves large sample sizes such as in this study examining a sample of 370 where the survey questions are also defined and specific, rather than exploratory. The goal of using quantitative research in this study is to provide statistical information about the research questions identified in Chapter 1 so that accurate conclusions can be drawn from the data collected.

Researchers often conduct quantitative studies to help managers, providers, and other researchers understand how people will/do respond to the product or service at hand and to profile these customers or prospective customers in a statistically valid way.

4.2.4 Research Approach Adopted for this Study

As noted above that positivism uses deductive logic. Deductive reasoning is used alongside quantitative data and is “reasoning from the general to the particular” (Pelissier, 2008), informally known as the “top-down” approach.

The procedure followed by deductive research in this study is to be summarised as follows:

1. First, a problem was selected and defined based on destination brand equity, and the researcher started exploring existing knowledge or assumptions.

2. Formulation of research questions, objectives, and the hypothesis was formed based on current knowledge, theories or assumptions these were identified and discussed in Chapters 1,2 and 3.
3. The research design is developed in Chapter 4.
4. Observation or data collection was conducted through the distribution of questionnaires in Johannesburg, August 2018.
5. Confirmation through existing theories and statistical output using SPSS 24 and AMOS 24, enabled conclusions to be drawn from the data collected, ultimately leading to either confirmation or rejection of the original theory.

4.2.5 Rationale for Quantitative Research

Quantitative research methods describe and measure the level of occurrences by numbers and calculations (Dudovskiy, 2016). Moreover, the questions of "how many?" and "how often?" are often asked in quantitative studies. The most common research methods from this category are closed-ended questionnaires, experiments, correlation and regression analysis methods and others (Dudovskiy, 2016). As noted this study uses a close-ended questionnaire.

The rationale for using a quantitative approach in this research is because quantitative studies' major strength is providing data that is descriptive, hence, capturing a snapshot of local Gen Y cohorts in the population during August 2018 and gathering quantifiable data from their responses. A quantitative approach is appropriate to capture the attitudes, perceptions and behaviour of the participants that complete the questionnaire regarding their view in visiting Soweto as a local tourist.

Quantitative research is known to be more reliable and objective because it uses statistics to generalise a finding. Quantitative studies often reduce and restructure a complex problem to a limited number of variables; it also looks at relationships between variables and can establish cause and effect in highly controlled circumstances and tests theories or hypotheses. Quantitative research assumes the sample is representative of the population. It is near impossible to gather data from every person living in the Johannesburg region.

There are four main types of Quantitative Research: Descriptive, Correlational, Causal-Comparative/Quasi-Experimental, and Experimental Research (Dudovskiy, 2016).

This study makes use of the causal-comparative/quasi-experimental research. It attempts to establish cause-effect relationships among the dependent variables and the independent variable. The independent variable is identified as destination brand equity and will not be manipulated, and the effects of the dependent variables on the independent variable are measured. When analyses are conducted, and conclusions are made, determining the causes be done carefully, as other variables, both known and unknown, could still affect the outcome.

Quantitative studies provide data that can be expressed in numbers. Because the data used in the primary research is in a numeric form, statistical tests can be used for making reports about the data. These descriptive statistics include the mean, median, and standard deviation, as well as including inferential statistics like t-tests, ANOVAs, and multiple regression correlations. Statistical analysis allows us to derive relevant facts from the research data collected, including demographics, opinions, perceptions and intentions.

For most tests, there is an overreliance on the p-value and sample size. The p-value is a statistic that indicates the likelihood that research findings are the result of chance (Yilmaz, 2013). If a p-value is <05, the findings are said to be statistically significant— in other words; there is less than a 5% chance that the results obtained are the result of chance.

4.3 Sampling Design

This study made use of non-probability sampling method, more specifically purposive judgment sampling. The probabilities of selecting population elements are unknown, and there are many ways to choose respondents and cases to include in the sample (Martínez-Mesa, González-Chic, Bastos, Bonamigo & Duquia, 2014).

With non-probability sampling, unlike probability sampling, there is a greater chance of bias that comes into the sample selection procedure and could distort the study findings. However, there are some advantages to using non-probability, sampling methods to probability sampling methods (Martínez-Mesa et al., 2014):

- It satisfactorily meets the sampling objective
- A random sample may not give a true cross-section of the population

- Non-probability sampling is less costly and less time consuming than probability sampling

4.3.1 Population of Interest

Parahoo (1997) defines a population as 'the total number of units from which data can be collected,' such as individuals, artefacts, events or organisations. Burns and Grove (2003) describe population as all the elements that meet the criteria for inclusion in a study. The target population for this study is all gen Y cohorts both male and female living in Johannesburg between the ages of 18 and 35 years old who visit local tourist destinations.

From the latest South African census conducted in 2014 and as seen in Table 2.1 where 4 585 00 Gauteng youth cohort is approximately the actual population of interest. There are no specific statistics to identify the true population of all gen Y local cohorts between the ages of 18 and 35 living in Johannesburg in 2018

4.3.2 Sample Selection

Polit et al. (2001) define a sample as 'a proportion of a population'. A carefully selected sample provides data that is considered to be representative of the population from which it is drawn. Burns and Grove (2003) refer to sample selection as a process of selecting a group of people, events or behaviour with which to conduct a study. In this study, the sampling selection used is non-probable and purposive. As stated by Parahoo (1997), in non-probability sampling, researchers use their judgment to choose the participants to be included in the study based on their knowledge of the phenomenon. As noted, the difference between nonprobability and probability sampling is that nonprobability sampling does not involve random selection, and probability sampling does. Hence, nonprobability samples cannot depend on upon the rationale of probability theory.

In applied social research, non-probability sampling acknowledges there may be circumstances where it is not feasible, practical or theoretically sensible to do random sampling. In the case of this research paper, non-probabilistic alternatives are used as there are time and cost limitations while conducting this research paper. Nonprobability sampling methods can be divided into two broad types: accidental or purposive. This study used the purposive sampling methods the sampling problem conducted with a specific plan in mind. Purposive sampling (also known as judgment, selective or subjective sampling) is a sampling technique in which

the researcher relies on his or her judgment when choosing members of the population to participate in the study. Purposive sampling is a non-probability sampling method, and it occurs when 'elements selected for the sample are chosen by the judgment of the researcher. Researchers often believe that they can obtain a representative sample by using sound judgment, which will result in saving time and money' (Dudovskiy, 2016).

Ths sample for this study is any females and males aged between 18 and 35 living in Johannesburg who visit local tourist destinations. Purposive sampling is also very useful in the fact that this study has time and cost limitations. Therefore, it needed to reach a targeted sample quickly, and sampling for proportionality is not the primary concern. With a purposive sample, it is likely to get the opinions of the target population but is prone to overweighting subgroups in the population that is conveniently more readily accessible. Convenience sampling (also known as availability sampling) is a specific type of non-probability sampling method that relies on data collection from population members who are conveniently available to participate in the study (Dudovskiy, 2016).

Convenience sampling is also a type of sampling where the first available primary data source will be used for the research without additional requirements (Dudovskiy, 2016). Dudovskiy (2016) suggests numerous advantages of convenience sampling and the following four are listed explicitly pertaining to this study:

- Simplicity of sampling and the ease of research
- Helpful for pilot studies and hypothesis generation
- Data collection can be facilitated in a short duration of time
- Cheapest to implement than alternative sampling methods

4.3.3 Sample Size

Sample size refers to the number of observations in a sample (Evans *et al.,* 2000). The size of a sample varies depending on how precise the researcher would like the conclusion to be. Larger samples can provide a more accurate answer. Since a large sample is statistically known as observations greater than 30 in the central limit theorem, with this research paper obtained 370 reliable responses, the target sample size can thus be considered large.

The sample size depends on the independent variable being measured and the size of the error that is prepared to accept (usually between 90% and 99%). The independent variable in this study is destination brand equity and is used to examine the influencers of local gen Y cohorts visiting local tourist destinations. The most commonly used confidence level and the one used in this study is 95% for reporting sample survey results. The 95% confidence interval means that the sample chosen in this study is 95% reflective of the characteristics of the population.

4.4 Data Collection Method

This research paper used both literature and empirical research for data collection. Therefore, it is imperative to distinguish between primary and secondary data. As far as primary data is concerned, this study focused on the methods of data collection through the measuring instrument in the form of a questionnaire. The reason why a questionnaire is used as a data collecting method in this study will be discussed in more detail later in the chapter. The secondary data for the research study was obtained by examining articles, journals, dissertations, PhD studies, news reports as well as statistics readily available. As noted, destination brand equity, generational theory and behavioral theory were the main theories upon which the variables were chosen, and the theoretical findings and hypotheses development were discussed in chapters 2 and 3.

4.4.1 Ethical Considerations

This study avoided deception or exaggeration regarding the aims and objectives of the research at all costs. All communication about the research was done with honesty and transparency. Misleading information was avoided, as well as any bias in the representation of the primary data findings.An ethics clearance certificate was applied for and granted through the University of Witwatersrand as it is one of the requirements of the research to ensure the reputation of the University as well as the researcher. All collected data will be confidential and guarantees the protection of the privacy of participants and is not used for any other purposes other than that of the research. Measures are put in place that ensures the protection of participants' privacy. The anonymity of individuals participating in the research is of paramount importance and ensured as the questionnaires do not require any personal information as well as giving options to prefer not to say. It was ensured the research participants were not subjected to harm in any ways whatsoever. Respect for the dignity of research participants is prioritised. Full consent is

obtained from the participants through a participation cover letter as well as informal verbal consent before the participants complete the questionnaire.

Voluntary participation of respondents in the research is imperative. No applicant will be forced to participate in the investigation, and no incentives will be used to persuade applicants to participate. In the participation cover letter, it states that the participant is invited to complete the questionnaire.

Offensive, discriminatory, or other unacceptable language is entirely avoided in the formulation of the questionnaire and throughout the study. Acknowledgement of works of other authors applied in any part of the research with the use of the APA referencing system. The research paper collaborated closely with Grammarly and was submitted through Turnitin at the deadline.

4.4.2 The Measurement Instrument

A Questionnaire was used in this study for the collection of primary data because it allows the information gathered to translate into quantifiable results easily. According to the Business Dictionary (2007), the definition of a questionnaire is as follows "a list of a research or survey questions asked to respondents and designed to extract specific information". A questionnaire serves four basic purposes:

1. Collect the appropriate data
2. Make data comparable and amenable to analysis
3. Minimise bias in formulating and asking questions
4. Make questions engaging and varied

Using a quality conceptual framework as the one illustrated in Chapter 3 the frame of reference within which the problem is researched, ensures completeness and distinction when compiling questions. Equally important is the effective development of a reference framework as it is a scientific lead that is based on literature and empirical research.

As a data collection tool questionnaires can guarantee anonymity, and thus, respondents are more likely to be truthful, which usually assists in acquiring more accurate and valid research

information. Research has shown that respondents are more likely to complete a multiple-choice questionnaire rather than open questions, due to the time and mental exhaustion of the latter (Oschman, 2009). The use of Excel for the processing of the information gathered occurs more quickly and accurately. By using a questionnaire in this study, it allowed the increased speed of data collection, low-cost requirements, the ability to facilitate an extensive geographical coverage, and allowing respondents to complete it at a comfortable pace and time. By using structured questions, it forces respondents to choose from a list of alternatives. Through questionnaires, the opinions and perceptions of respondents are obtained in a structured manner which simplifies the statistical process. Answers attained in a closed-ended multiple-choice manner are easily quantified, which makes statistical analysis using computer possible.

A potential disadvantage of a questionnaire with structured questions is the restrictions placed on a respondent's answer as well as the researcher's ability to conduct in-depth analysis. The respondent does not have the freedom to answer beyond the boundaries set by the choices. Another disadvantage to questionnaires is that they are commonly used, and low response rates are usually problematic as a degree of 'resistance.' Poorly designed questionnaires may lead to unsatisfactorily completed questionnaires. There is not enough control over external circumstances under which the questionnaires are completed. Questionnaires conducted in South Africa can be restricted to the respondents' level of literacy as there is a low literacy rate among the cohorts and as such, there is very little to do to motivate respondents to participate in the research. For the causes of the disadvantages listed above, a reliable design and administration of the questionnaire required thoroughness, patience, and competence from the researcher who allowed it to be accepted as a research method. Questions used in the survey were formulated unambiguously and straightforwardly and presented in a logical order. The research scales were operationalised mainly by existing scales. Adequate modifications were made in order to fit the research context for the present article. Five-point Likert scales were employed to analyse items of the research instrument. Each measurement instrument was assessed for reliability (Cronbach's coefficient > 0.7) and validity (Factor analysis > 0.7), thereby meeting the recommended limits.

4.4.3 Questionnaire design

Oppenheim (2000) explains the importance of the questionnaire design as follows: "Questionnaire design attempts to answer questions such as which variables should be measured? What kind of sample will be drawn? Who will be called into question and how often? What scales may have to be built or adapted?" A questionnaire is designed with a specific goal in mind. The questions asked are selected and formulated systematically and carefully, with the aim of the research continuously kept in mind by ensuring the questionnaire only contains relevant questions to determine the relationship between the various variables in the conceptual model in respect of the uniqueness of the subject being researched.

The questionnaire consisted only of closed-ended questions. Respondents were asked demographic questions in order for the researcher to collect information about their age, gender, current employment status, whether they personally visit local tourist destinations, and how many times one has visited Soweto as a tourist

The questionnaire was later designed in the form of multiple choice using a 5-point Likert scale. Respondents are presented with a set of five questions under each section and were provided with a list of answers to choose. The downside to a multiple-choice questionnaire is that, if there are too many answers to choose from, it makes the questionnaire, confusing and boring, and discourages the participant to respond to the questionnaire accurately and truthfully. Respondents may also begin to answer without reading the question properly which can result in incorrect conclusions about the research being conducted. As noted throughout the study, the primary data collection instrument used in this dissertation is a research questionnaire. This questionnaire was adopted (some questions were adapted) by the researcher and is to be self- administered to willing respondents living in Johannesburg. The questionnaire will comprise of eight sections A, B, C, D, E, F, G and H.

Section A will ask the respondent about his or her biographical information such as gender and age.

Sections B to H will ask the respondent about the factors proposed in the conceptual model.

Sections B - Destination brand image

Sections C - Destination brand awareness

Sections D - Destination brand perceive quality

Sections E - Destination brand loyalty

Sections F - Customer Attitudes

Sections G - Behaviour

Sections H - Destination brand equity

Sections B to H will utilise the 5-point Likert scale to ask the respondents questions that are based on the conceptual model. This research makes use of an online questionnaire to collect data from respondents as this is seen to be the most appropriate tool for collecting the data. The questions were adopted/adapted from prior studies. The authors are depicted in the table below.

Table 4. 1: Questionnaire Authors Table

Destination Brand Image	**Authors**
DBI1: Soweto forms a positive sense in my mind	García, Gómez, & Molina, (2012) Pike & Bianchi, (2013)
DBI2: Soweto fits my personality	Lassar, (1995) Boo, Busse, & Baloglu, (2009) Kladau and Kehagias (2014) Bianchi, Pike & Lings (2014)
DBI3: My friends would think highly of me if I visited this destination	Lassar, (1995) Boo et al. (2009) Bianchi, Pike & Lings (2014)
DBI4: I can trust Soweto for a fulfilling experience	Kladau & Kehagias (2014) Aaker (1991)
DBI5: Soweto has a rich history	Kladau & Kehagias (2014) Aaker (1991) Veríssimo, Tiago, Tiago & Jardim (2017) Ferns & Walls (2012)

Destination Awareness	**Authors**
DA1: Soweto is famous and well known in South Africa.	Motameni & Shahrokhi (1998), Oh (2000) Boo et al. (2009) García, Gómez, & Molina, (2012) Kladau & Kehagias (2014)

	Bianchi, Pike & Lings (2014)
DA2: Soweto has a good name and reputation	Boo et al., 2009; Motameni & Shahrokhi (1998) Kladau & Kehagias (2014) Veríssimo, Tiago, Tiago & Jardim (2017) Gómez, González-Díaz & Molina (2015) Bianchi, Pike & Lings (2014)
DA3: The characteristics of this city come to my mind immediately	Boo et al. (2009) Pappu & Quester (2006) Yoo & Donthu (2001) Kladau & Kehagias (2014) Veríssimo, Tiago, Tiago & Jardim (2017) Gómez, González-Díaz & Molina (2015) Ferns & Walls (2012) Bianchi, Pike & Lings (2014)
DA4: When thinking of a local tourist destination, I think of Soweto first	Boo et al., (2009) Kaplanidou & Vogt (2003) Kladau & Kehagias (2014) Gómez, González-Díaz & Molina (2015)
DA5: I am more familiar with Soweto than other local tourist destinations	Chow et al. (2017)

Destination Perceived Quality	**Authors**
DPQ1: Soweto offers a series of quality choices	Yoo & Donthu (2001) Boo et al. (2009) Veríssimo, Tiago, Tiago & Jardim (2017) Bianchi, Pike & Lings (2014)
DPQ2: I would consider Soweto to be a high-quality tourist destination	Yoo & Donthu (2001) Veríssimo, Tiago, Tiago & Jardim (2017) Bianchi, Pike & Lings (2014)
DPQ3: I perceive Soweto is capable of upgrading its infrastructure	Konecknic & Gartner (2007) Pike, Bianchi, Kerr & Patti (2010)

DPQ4: Soweto offers better experiences than other similar destinations	Boo et al. (2009) Murdy (2012)
DPQ5: Soweto provides quality cultural experiences	Aaker (1991), Boo et al. (2009) Kladau & Kehagias (2014) Veríssimo, Tiago, Tiago & Jardim (2017)

Destination Loyalty	**Authors**
DL1: I enjoy visiting Soweto	Boo et al. (2009) Kladau & Kehagias (2014) Back & Parks(2003) Baloglu (2001)
DL2: Soweto would be my preferred choice for a local tourist destination to visit	November, Ezeuduji, & Haupt (2016) Boo et al. (2009) Keller (2003) Odin et al. (2001) Yoo & Donthu (2001) Kladau & Kehagias (2014) García, Gómez, & Molina (2012) Pike, Bianchi, Kerr & Patti (2010) Veríssimo, Tiago, Tiago & Jardim (2017) Gómez, González-Díaz & Molina (2015) Ferns & Walls (2012) Bianchi, Pike & Lings (2014)
DL3: This destination provides more benefits than other destinations	Pike, Bianchi, Kerr & Patti (2010) Konecknic & Gartner (2007) Kim & Lee (2018) Gómez, González-Díaz & Molina (2015)

DL4: I would recommend friends/relatives to visit Soweto	Boo et al. (2009) del Río, Vázquez, & Iglesias(2001) Murdy (2012) Kladau & Kehagias (2014) November, Ezeuduji, & Haupt (2016) Pike, Bianchi, Kerr & Patti (2010) Chi & Qu 2008 Konecknic & Gartner (2007) Chow et al. (2017) Veríssimo, Tiago, Tiago & Jardim (2017) Bianchi, Pike & Lings (2014).
DL5: Overall, I am loyal to this destination	Boo et al. (2009) Keller (2003) Odin et al. (2001) Yoo, B., Donthu, N., & Lee, S. (2000). Yoo & Donthu (2001) Ferns & Walls (2012)

Customer Attitudes	**Authors**
CA1: I have positive attitudes towards Soweto as a local tourist destination.	Duman, Ozbal & Duerod (2017) Boo et al. (2009) Kladau & Kehagias (2014) Konecknic & Gartner (2007) Lee & Back (2006)
CA2: I have a strong attachment to Soweto	Boo et al. (2009) Hosany & Prayag (2013) Reitsamer et al. (2016) Duman, Ozbal & Duerod (2017)
CA3: For me visiting Soweto is pleasant	Liu, Wong, Tseng, Chang & Phau (2017) Huang, Lings, Beatson & Chou (2017) Sung, Hsieh & Lee (2017)

	Gómez, González-Díaz & Molina (2015) Bianchi, Pike & Lings (2014) Jalilvand & Samiei (2012)
CA4: As a local tourist destination, I think that Soweto satisfies my expectations	Aziz, Kefallonitis & Friedman (2012) Proust, Angelakis, Drakos (2009) Kim, Han, Holland & Byon (2009)
CA5: As a local tourist destination, I think that Soweto is very valuable	Aziz, Kefallonitis & Friedman (2012) Jalilvand & Samiei (2012)

Behaviour	**Authors**
B1: I have visited Soweto in the past 3 years	Murdy (2012) Heesup, Jongsik & Wansoo (2018) Bamberg, Hunecke & Blöbaum (2007) Onwezen, Antonides & Bartels (2013)
B2: I intend to visit Soweto in the near future	Sarifuddin, Samsi & Kashif (2015) Konecknic and Gartner (2007) Chow et al. (2017) Murdy (2012) Ferns & Walls (2012) Bianchi, Pike & Lings (2014). Jalilvand & Samiei (2012) Huang, Lings, Beatson & Chou (2017) Park, Hsieh & Lee (2017)
B3: I would prefer to visit Soweto than non-local/international tourist destinations	November, Ezeuduji, & Haupt (2016) Boo et al. (2009) Keller (2003) Odin et al. (2001) Yoo & Donthu (2001) Kladau & Kehagias (2014) García, Gómez, & Molina, (2012) Pike, Bianchi, Kerr & Patti (2010) Veríssimo, Tiago, Tiago & Jardim (2017) Gómez, González-Díaz & Molina (2015)

	Ferns & Walls (2012) Bianchi, Pike & Lings (2014). Park, Hsieh & Lee (2017)
B4: I am likely to visit Soweto when I want to go to a local tourist destination	Heesup, Jongsik & Wansoo (2018)
B5: I feel nothing will prevent me from visiting Soweto if I want to	Park, Hsieh & Lee (2017)

Destination Brand Equity	**Authors**
DBE1: Soweto is a destination with reasonable prices	Boo et al. (2009) Lassar et al. (1995) Oh (2000) García, Gómez, & Molina, (2012) Gómez, González-Díaz & Molina (2015) Bianchi, Pike & Lings (2014)
DBE2: The benefits obtained from Soweto are higher than the costs.	Boo et al. (2009) Lassar et al. (1995) Dodds, Monroe, & Grewal (1991) Oh (2000) García, Gómez, & Molina, (2012) Gómez, González-Díaz & Molina (2015)
DBE3: If international/non-local tourist destinations are not different from Soweto or local tourist destinations in any way, it seems smarter to visit Soweto	Sarifuddin, Samsi & Kashif (2015) Lu, Gursoy, & Lu (2015). Yoo, Donthu & Lee (2000)
DBE4: Considering what I would pay for a trip, I will get much more than my money's worth by visiting a local destination such as Soweto	Boo etal.(2009) Lassar et al.(1995) García, Gómez, & Molina, (2012) Gómez, González-Díaz & Molina (2015) Bianchi, Pike & Lings (2014)
DBE5: Visiting Soweto is economical.	Boo et al.(2009) Lassar et al.(1995)

	Gómez, González-Díaz & Molina (2015) Yoo & Donthu (2001)

4.4.4 Measurement Scales

Various kinds of rating scales exist that enable researchers to measure attitudes, opinions, perceptions directly (i.e. the person knows their perception regarding Soweto as a local tourist). The most widely used scale to measure the above is the Likert Scale.

Likert (1932) formed the principle of quantifying attitudes by asking people to answer a series of statements or questions about a topic, regarding the extent to which they agree with them, and consequently, tap into the cognitive and affective components of the respondents' attitudes.

Likert-type scales use a fixed choice response format and are designed to measure attitudes or opinions (Grove, 2003). The level or scale of measurement the Likert-scale uses is ordinal. The reason being the ordinal measure is a classification that describes the nature of information within the numbers assigned to variables. The Likert-scale measures levels of agreement/disagreement within the responses.

A Likert-type scale assumes that the strength/intensity of the experience is linear, this study's questionnaire offers five pre-coded responses ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree with the neutral point being neither agree nor disagree, and makes the assumption that attitudes can be measured — the frequencies of the most positive responses to each item and the scale totals of the mean and standard deviation.

As noted above data will be collected through the use of questionnaires for this study. The questions in the questionnaire are analysed using quantitative methods such as bar charts, and percentages. Statistical tests will also be run on the data using SPSS 24 and AMOS 24.

4.5 Statistical Modelling

SPSS is the acronym of Statistical Package for the Social Science. SPSS 24 is one of the most popular statistical packages which can perform highly complex data manipulation and analysis with simple instructions (Pituch & Stevens, 2015). Examples of a few functions SPSS 24 can perform are; data transformations, data examination, descriptive statistics, contingency tables,

reliability tests, correlation, t-tests, ANOVA, general linear models, regression, Nonlinear Regression.

Analysis of Momentum Structure (AMOS) 24 was also used to conduct the confirmatory factor analysis and path modelling in order to check for reliability and validity of the data, as well as model fit of the data.

Advantages of SPSS and AMOS is that they offer a broad coverage of formulas and statistical routines, data files can be imported into other programs, and it allows for annual updates to increase sophistication. Some disadvantages of SPSS and AMOS is that it is expensive, has a limited license duration and may confuse the different versions due to regular update.

4.5.1 Measurement model

Construct validity is the extent to which a set of measured items that reflects the latent theoretical construct, those the items are designed to measure (Hair et al., 2010).

Factor analysis was used to formally investigate the construct validity of the scale, in other words, investigating whether the scale measured what it was meant to measure. Factor analysis is intended to look at patterns among the variables in order to ascertain the underlying combinations of the original factors that can be summarised as the original set (Martínez-Mesa et al., 2014). It is also a suitable technique for analysing the patterns of complex, multi-dimensional relationships that researchers encounter and can be used to examine the underlying patterns or relationships for a large number of variables and to establish in the information can be summarised into a smaller set of factors (Hair et al. 2014).

This technique gives the researcher the tools for analysing the structure of interrelationships or correlations among a large set of variables; this is done by defining sets of variables that are highly interrelated, also known as factors (Hair et al. 2014).

The resultant factor loadings were used to interpret the role of each item of the questionnaire in defining each factor. The loadings show the degree of the correspondence between the variable and the factor. The higher loadings make the variable representative of the factor (Hair et al., 2014). In the present research factor loadings of 0.5 and above were considered as

sufficiently high for the item to define the factor in the process of investigating the construct validity of the scale.

4.5.1.1 Cronbach alpha coefficient

It is essential to test the reliability and validity of the questionnaire used in this study. One of the ways the reliability and consistency of a test instrument can be done is by using Conbrach's Alpha Coefficient (CAC). There are other measures of reliability which will be discussed below. Cronbach's alpha is a measure of internal consistency (UCLA, 2016), in other words, how closely related a set of variables are as a group. CAC analyses whether all the answers obtained from the questionnaires are valid and reliable. Below, is the formula for the standardised Cronbach's Alpha

$$\alpha = \frac{N.\bar{c}}{\bar{v}+(N-1).\bar{c}}$$

N = number of observations; c-bar is the average inter-item covariance among the items and v-bar = average variance.

The inter-item estimates are calculated from the same sample. SPSS 24 will compose random subsets of items and compute the resulting correlations. As can be seen from the formula above as the number of observations obtained increase, α will increase. Furthermore, if the average inter-item correlation is low, α will be low. As the mean inter-item correlation increases, α increases as well ceteris paribus.

The instrument used is considered to have a high degree of reliability if the value of the Conbrach's Alpha is obtained as follows:

- $\alpha > 0.9$ = very high reliability
- $0.7 > \alpha \leq 0.9$ = high reliability
- $0.5 > \alpha \leq 0.7$ = reliability is quite high
- $\alpha < 0.5$ = low reliability

Thus, the basic decision making in test reliability would be; if Cronbach's Alpha >0.7 the questionnaire items are considered reliable, therefore, Alpha <0.7 the questionnaire items are considered unreliable.

4.5.1.2 Composite reliability

Composite reliability is obtained by combining all of the true score variances and covariances in the composite of indicator variables related to constructs, and by dividing this sum by the total variance in the composite (GLOBAL, 2016).

The formula for composite reliability can be written as:

$$CR = \frac{(\sum \lambda_i)^2}{(\sum \lambda_i)^2 + (\sum \epsilon_i)}$$

Whereby, λ (lambda) is the standardised factor loading for observation *i* and ε is the respective error variance for observation i. The error variance (ε) is estimated based on the value of the standardised loading (λ).

This study will use SPSS 24 software to calculate both the Conbrach's coefficient and the reliability of a composite.

4.5.2 Reliability and validity tests

This study involved the testing of hypotheses in supporting the theory it was based on. As noted, the instrument used is a questionnaire with a 5 point Likert scale. It is important to know the questions asked and scale used are indeed measuring what is intended to be measured. Since the construct being measured is abstract, it is vital to be sure that if the test is repeated the measurement, will get the same result. These concerns can be tested through validity and reliability. Reliability means the consistency or repeatability of the measure (Trochim, 2002). This is especially important if the measure is to be used on an on-going basis to detect change. Validity means that what is measured is what we want to measure (Trochim, 2002).

As noted above Conbrach's Alpha Coefficient is used as a measure of reliability. Composite Reliability will also be calculated and is obtained by combining all of the true score variances and covariances in the composite of indicator variables related to constructs, and by dividing this sum by the total variance in the composite (GLOBAL, 2016).

Average variance extracted (AVE) will measure scale validity in this study. The formula for AVE is as follows:

$$AVE = \frac{(\sum \lambda_i)^2}{n} + \varepsilon_i$$

Where λ_i is the standardised factor loading and i is the number of items. This can be interpreted as AVE for each hypothesis can be obtained by the sum of squares of completely standardised factor loadings divided by this sum plus a total of error variances for indicators. To achieve validity, all values should be above 0.5, as acceptable levels according to literature (Fraering & Minor, 2013). The calculation of Average Variance Extracted requires a structural equation model to exist already given that to calculate AVE it needs the loadings of the indicators for the latent variable for which it is to be calculated. For the completely standardised solution, all indicator and latent variables are scaled to have unit variance. The inter-construct correlation matrix is used to check the discriminant validity of the research constructs. The correlations among latent constructs were evaluated to determine whether they were lower than 1.0 (Venter, Chuchu & Pattison, 2016)

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is a measurement model (Bechger, van Schooten, Glopper & Hox, 1998). SEM has two parts: a measurement model and a structural model. The measurement model for both CFA and SEM is a multivariate regression model that describes the relationships between the set of observed dependent variables identified in Chapter 3 and a set of continuous latent variables. CFA is a multivariate statistical procedure that is used to test how well the measured variables represent the number of constructs (Bechger et al., 1998). In confirmatory factor analysis; it will specify the number of factors required for the data and which measured variable is related to which latent variable, the results will be discussed in Chapter 5. CFA is used to confirm or reject the measurement theory. Statistical software like SPSS 24 is used for confirmatory factor analysis. In SPSS 24, visual paths are manually drawn on the graphics window and analysis are performed.

4.5.3 Traditional statistical methods, path modelling and structural equation modelling

For this research paper, Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) is used for the data analysis. SEM is a well-known statistical technique that tests the theory using hypothesised relationships from the proposed conceptual model (Liao & Hiesh 2013).

SEM tests relationships between latent variables and observed variables that represent the proposed research model. Using a conceptual model, the present study proposes five hypotheses that will be tested using SEM. More specifically, the model fit will be tested; a correlation matrix will be conducted, scale accuracy analysis and hypotheses testing using path modelling. SEM is entirely dependent on the theoretical section of the study which is considered the core feature of SEM. The objective of an SEM model is to reveal whether the pre-determined relation pattern can be proven and verified or not by the collected data. SEM is a methodical instrument recently used especially for evaluating the relations among variables and theoretical testing models in the field of psychology, sociology, and marketing (Wright, 1921).

SEM is commonly used in the prediction of unknown parameters on linear structure equation. The variables in the equations are directly observed and are implicit variables. SEM assumes there exists a casualty structure among the implicit variables set and that they that can be measured by the observed variables. Implicit variables are one of the essential concepts in SEM as they refer to abstract notions such as intelligence, emotion, and attitude, which can only be observed implicitly using variables measured through some observable behaviour.

The biggest problem social sciences face is knowing the structure and dynamics of complex systems. Path Modelling analysis allows researchers to perceive causal links that make up the complex systems efficiently, and the researchers will be able to decide under what conditions the variables in causality are one another's cause or effect and to be able to explain this causal connection in mathematical terms has always posed a significant question. However, all of these functional relations are not only challenging and costly explain, but it is also a time-consuming process.

SEM is analogous to traditional methods like correlation, regression, and ANOVA in many ways. For example, both traditional methods and SEM are based on linear statistical models, both statistical tests associated with both approaches are valid if certain assumptions are met. Traditional methods assume a normal distribution and SEM assumes multivariate normality.

Neither of the approaches offers a test of causality. Traditional approaches and the SEM approach do differ in several areas. First, SEM is a highly flexible and comprehensive methodology. SEM is further appropriate for investigating achievement, family and peer dynamics, opinions, perceptions, self-concept, exercise, self-efficacy, and so forth. To determine that significance of the analysis traditional statistical methods usually only use one statistical test.

However, SEM depends on numerous statistical tests to determine the suitability of the model fit to the data. The chi-square test implies the extent of the difference between the expected and observed covariance matrices (Moutinho & Hutcheson, 2011). SEM allows researchers to recognize the imperfect nature of their measures. Traditional methods assume measurement occurs without error while SEM distinctly identifies error. The traditional analysis offers straightforward significance tests to determine whether there are any group differences, relationships between the variables, as well as the amount of variance explained. On the contrary, SEM does not provide straightforward tests to determine model fit, instead, the most appropriate strategy for evaluating model fit is to examine multiple tests (e.g., chi-square (χ^2), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Relative Fit Index (RFI), Normed Fit Index (NFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) and the Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation (RMSEA).

4.5.3.1 Chi-square

Chi-square looks at the model as a whole and is a goodness-of-fit chi-square (χ^2 GoF). χ^2 GoF is an exception to the rule; the smaller, the better. Chi-square tests the difference between the observed data and the expected findings, where the expected values are those, we would see under the null hypothesis of no association between the variables (UCLA, 2016). χ^2 GoF tests the difference between the observed data and hypothesised model identified in Chapter 3. The aim is that the proposed model does fit the data, the goal is to see not too much difference; the ideal would be to have no difference between the two. A chi-square value close to zero when the probability level must be >0.05 indicates little difference between the expected and observed covariance matrices. As noted above, conclusions cannot be drawn about causality from the model, even if χ^2 GoF is not significant. Among the suggested indexes, most commonly used similar to the chi-square statistics, is the GFI (Goodness-of-fit index) (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993).

4.5.3.2 Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)

GFI was created by Jöreskog and Sorbomin as an alternative to the Chi-Square test. GFI calculates the proportion of variance that is accounted for by the estimated population covariance (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The most common measure based on the amount of variance accounted for in the model is the Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI). GFI has been developed as an overall measure of model fit for SEM. If the model uses a high number of degrees of freedom in comparison to the sample size, the GFI has a downward bias (Sharma, Mukherjee, Kumar, & Dillon, 2005). GFI is scaled between 0 and 1, with higher values indicating better model fit. This statistic should be used with caution. Traditionally an omnibus cut-off point of 0.90 has been recommended for the GFI as an acceptable threshold (Hooper, Couglan & Mullen, 2008).

4.5.3.3 Comparative Fit Index (CFI)

The foremost attraction of the CFI is that, of all of the fit indices used in SEM, CFI is the only one that has a test of significance associated with it (Moss, 2016). The other indices can be grouped into two main categories: comparative fit and variance explained. The values for CFI range between 0.0 and 1.0. When the values of the results are closer to 1.0, it suggests the model is a good fit. CFI does have a cut-off criterion of CFI $\geq$ 0.90 as recent studies have shown that a value greater than 0.90 is needed in order to ensure that misspecified models are not accepted (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

4.5.3.4 Incremental Fit Index (IFI)

Incremental fit indices (IFI) is also known as comparative or relative fit indices (Miles & Shevlin, 2007; McDonald & Ho, 2002; Hooper et al., 2008). IFI is a group of indices that do not use the chi-square in its raw form but compare the chi-square value to a baseline model(Oschman, 2009). For this study, the null hypothesis is that all variables are uncorrelated. An IFI is analogous to $R^{2,}$ and so a value of zero indicates having the worst possible model and a value of one indicates having the best possible. So the researcher's model is placed on a continuum. Regarding a formula, it is:

$$\frac{\text{Worst Possible Model} - \text{Own Model}}{\text{Worst Possible Model} - \text{Fit of the Best Possible Model}}$$

The worst possible model is called the null or independence model, and the usual convention is to allow all the variables in the model to have variation but no correlation. The degrees of freedom of the null model is k(k – 1)/2 where k is the number of variables in the model.

4.5.3.5 Normed Fit Index (NFI)

The most widely-used comparative fit index is the Normed Fit Index (NFI), tests whether the model differs from the null hypothesis. NFI assesses the model by comparing the χ^2 value of the model to the χ^2 of the null model (Hooper et al., 2008). The null model is the worst-case scenario because it suggests that all the measured variables are uncorrelated. Prior research suggests that the cut-off criteria for NFI should be ≥ 0.95 (Chou & Bentler, 1995; Hooper, Couglan & Mullen, 2008).

4.5.3.6 Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)

The Tucker-Lewis index is another incremental fit index. Let χ2/df be the ratio of chi-square to its degrees of freedom. Therefore, the TLI is computed as follows:

$$= \frac{\chi 2/df(\text{Null Model}) - \chi 2/df(\text{Proposed Model})}{\chi 2/df(\text{Null Model}) - 1}$$

Note that the TLI (and the CFI which follows) depend on the average size of the correlations in the data. If the average correlation between variables is not high, then the TLI will not be very high. Recommendations are as low as 0.80 as a cut-off have been preferred however Bentler & Chou (1995) have suggested NNFI ≥ 0.95 as the threshold (Hooper, Couglan & Mullen, 2008).

4.5.3.7 Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)

The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) is linked to the residuals in the proposed model. RMSEA values range from 0 to 1 where a lower RMSEA value indicates a better model fit (Hooper et al., 2008). An RMSEA value of 0.06 or less indicates an acceptable model fit (Oschman, 2009). Only if the model fit is acceptable, the parameter estimates will be examined. The ratio of each parameter estimate to its standard error is distributed as a z-statistic and is significant at the 0.05% level if its value >1.96 (Hoyle, 1995; Hooper et al., 2008).

4.6 Conclusion

This chapter described the research methodology. The purpose of a research design is to maximize valid answers to a research question. This was achieved by using a non-experimental, qualitative, purposive and deductive approach that was contextual. The researcher was the main data collection instrument. Data was collected using a questionnaire — the researcher made sense of data by using a descriptive method to analyze it and also ensured that the data was trustworthy and collected ethically. Chapter 5 discusses the data analysis and findings.

CHAPTER 5: DATA ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the methods and techniques that were used to acquire the findings that are reported below. This chapter illustrates and discusses the findings that were acquired via the empirical research conducted. This chapter reveals a statistical analysis of data that was obtained via the data collection tool (questionnaire). Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 24) as well as Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS 24) was used to analyse the data. This chapter began by evaluating and discussing the descriptive statistics were followed by the reliability of all the constructs in the proposed research conceptual model.

This study used Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Path Modelling in order to check for Model Fit, Reliability and Validity of the scales used in the research questionnaire. Path Modeling (PM) was conducted to check for model fit, and to test the hypothesis of the study. This chapter reveals the results of the research study with the aid of tables, graphs and in-depth discussions for the results derived from the 370 usable responses. Cronbach's Alpha, Composite Reliability (CR) value, and Average Value Extracted (AVE) were conducted to calculate and assess this study' measure of reliability. For validity, this study used factor analysis to test convergent validity and correlation matrix and chi-square; where CFA difference was used to check for evidence of discriminant validity. Statistics such as the chi-square value (χ^2), Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Normed Fit Index (NFI), Incremental Fit Index (IFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) were used to determine whether the research model fit the data.

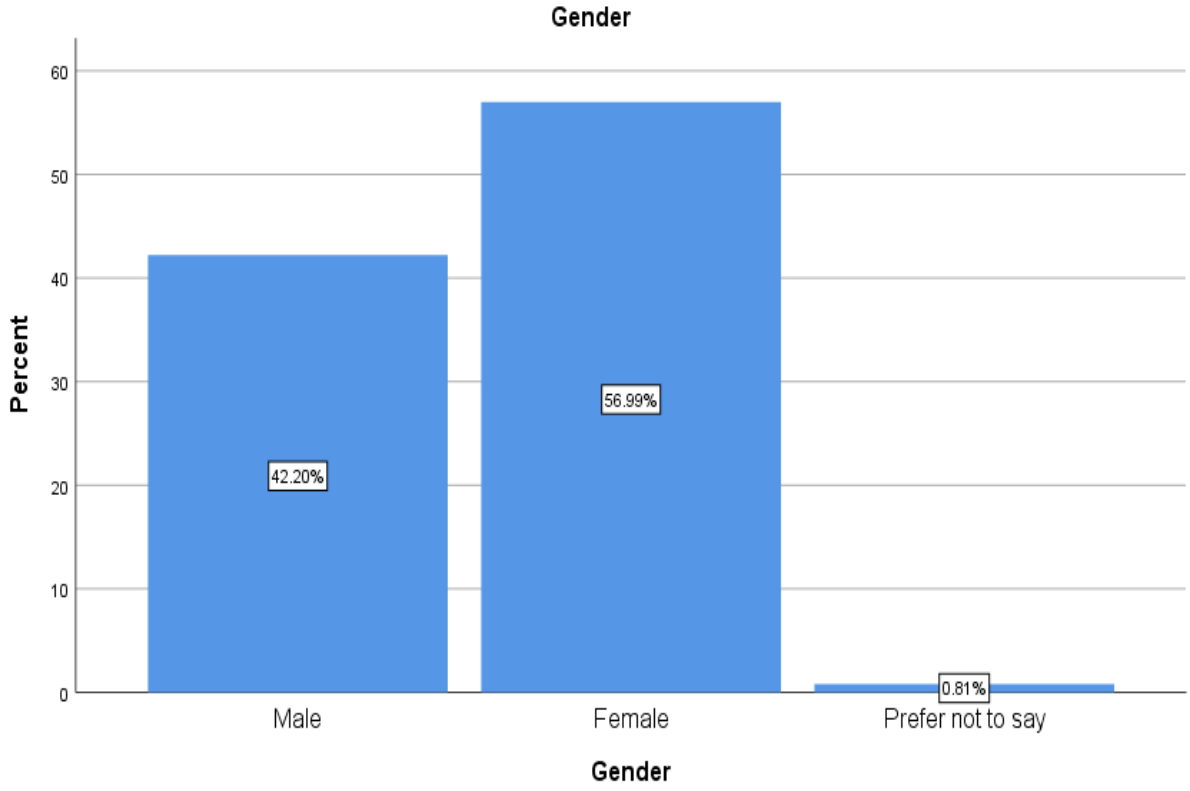
5.2 Descriptive Statistics

After data collection, this study conducted the data screening process proposed by Malhotra (1993) and Churchill (1999) to ensure that the data collected was cleaned before conducting any further statistical analysis. Screening the data is the first step towards gaining better insight into the characteristics of the data. It is important to ensure the precision of data entries and the assessment of any outliers before analysing any summary statistics for the questionnaire responses. In the data screening process, the main analytical tasks include checking the questionnaire, editing, coding, and tabulation.

5.2.1 Gender Profile

The gender profile results can be seen below in Figure 5.1 The results were as follows, the majority 211 (56.99%) were female, 156 (42.2%) of the respondents were male and 3 (0.81%) stated they would prefer not to say. According to STAS SA (2018), there are 57.7 million people in South Africa – up from 56.5 million people in 2017 – and more than half of the population (51%) is female.

Figure 5. 1 Gender Profile



5.2.2 Age profile

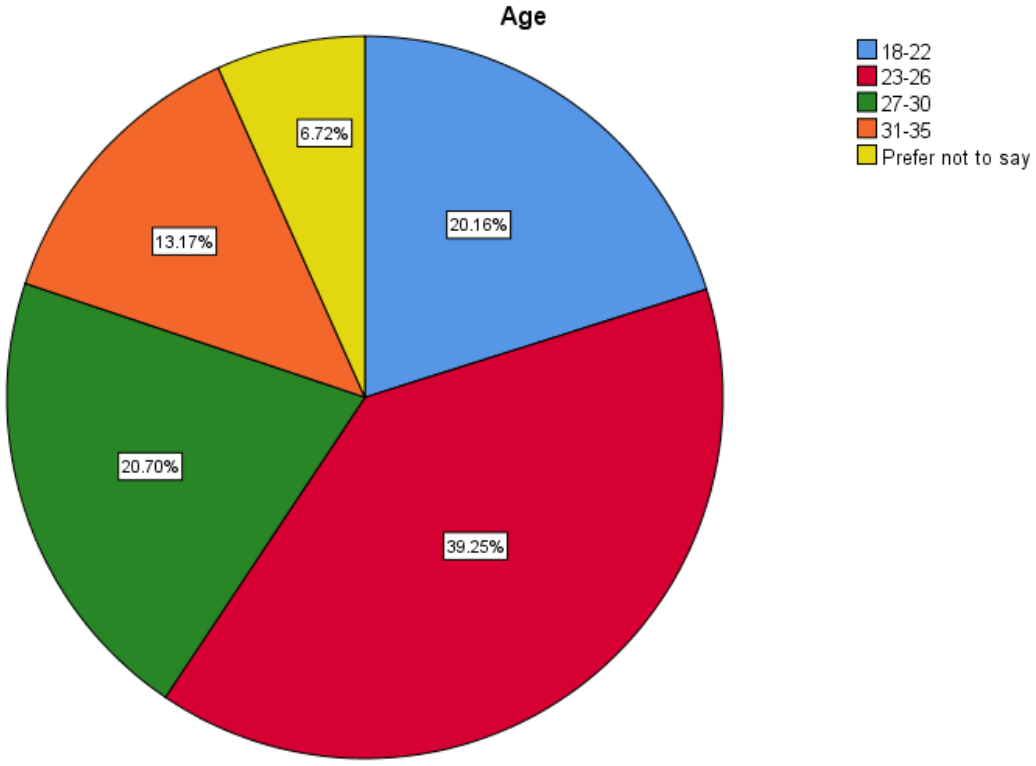
The respondent's ages are shown below, and the pie chart shows observed data from the sample results. It shows four classifications of age, where 75 (20.16%) of the respondents were between the age of 18-22 years old, 145 (39.25%) between the ages 23-26, 77 (20.70%) between the ages of 27-30 and 49 (13.17%) between the ages of 31-35 years old. The remaining 24 (6.72%) prefer not to give their age.

From the latest South African census conducted in 2014 and as seen in Table 2.1 (pg 55) 4,585,00 Gauteng youth cohorts is approximately the actual population of interest. There are

no specific statistics to identify the true population of all gen Y local cohorts between the ages of 18 and 35 living in Johannesburg in 2018.

The results from the questionnaire show that the sample represents a mix of various age groups within generation Y. This mix of age within the generation Y range supports the purpose of this study.

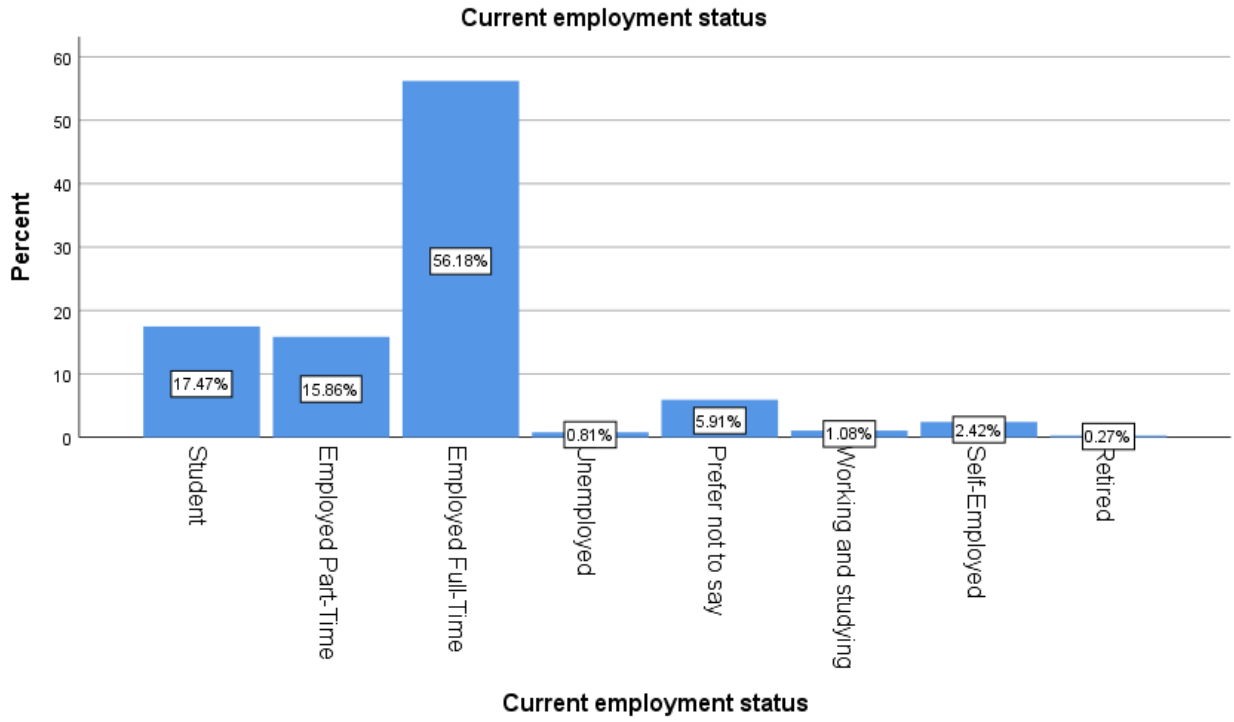
Figure 5. 2: Age Profile



5.2.3 Current employment status

The respondent's current employment status is shown in a bar graph below. It shows various classifications of employment status, where, more than half- 208 (56.18%) - of the respondents stated they were employed full-time. The remaining 162 were split up by 65 (17.47%) being students; 59 (15.86%) being employed part-time; 22 (5.91%) prefer not to say, and lastly, 16 (4.58%) were made up of unemployment, working and studying, self-employed and retired.

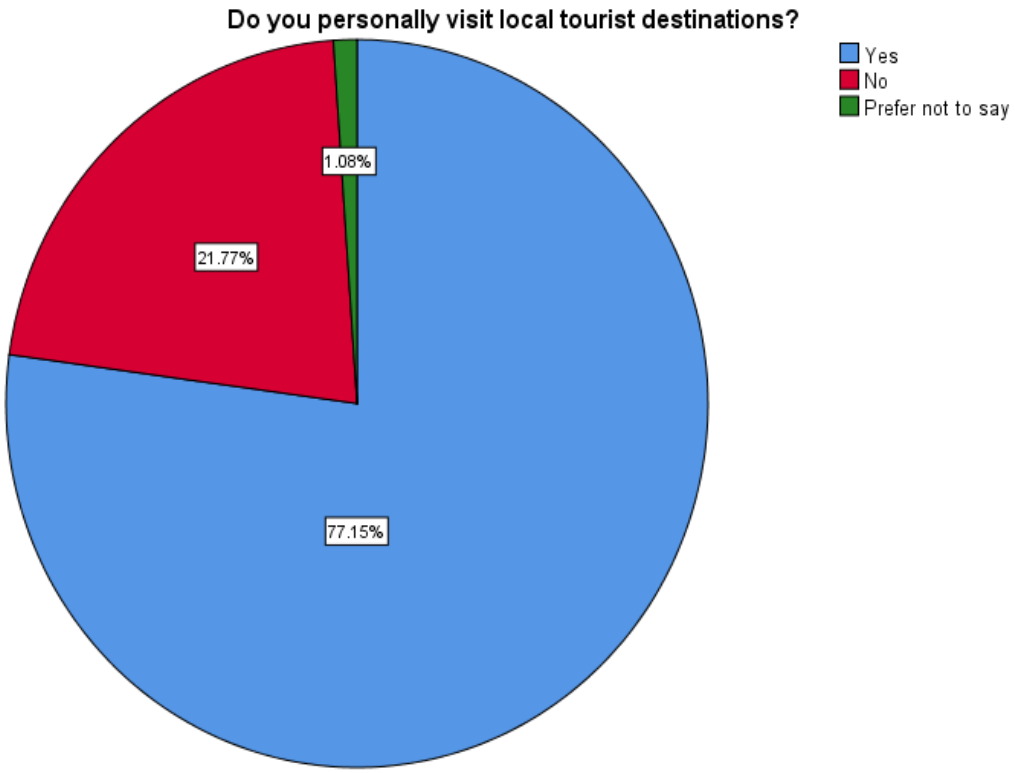
Figure 5. 3: Current Employment Status



5.2.4 Number of respondents who travel locally.

The pie chart on the following page shows the number of respondents that travel locally. As can be seen below 286 (77.15%) do travel locally, 81 (21.77%) do not, and 3 (1.08%) prefer not to say. As noted above STATS SA conducted a domestic tourism survey in 2016, and their report showed a pattern of decline in domestic tourism over the past two years. The results further showed the total number of day trips decreased from 44,3 million in 2015 to 39,4 million in 2016. Overnight trips decreased from 45,4 million in 2015 to 43,0 million in 2016.

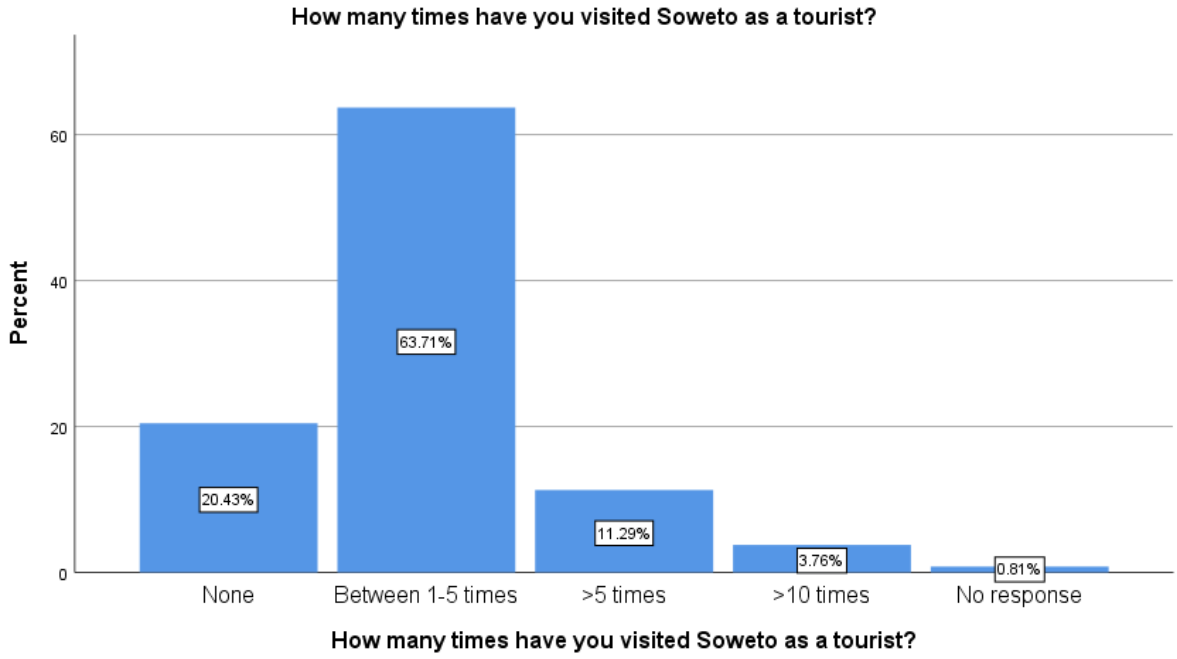
Figure 5. 4: Number of Respondents Who Travel Locally.



5.2.5 Number of times the respondents have visited Soweto as a local tourist.

The bar chart on the following page shows the number of times the respondents have visited Soweto as a local tourist. 236 (63.71%) of the respondents have visited Soweto between 1 and 5 times, followed by 76 (20.43%) respondents had never visited Soweto as a tourist. The remaining 55 (15.01%) have visited Soweto more than 5 times, and 3 (0.81%) did not respond.

Figure 5. 5: Number of times the respondents have visited Soweto as a local tourist.



5.3 Questionnaire Results

The research constructs in this study were all measured on a five-point Likert-type scale. There were a total number of 370 respondents. The first variable "Destination Brand Image (DBI)" was measured with five items, ranging from DBI1 to DBI5. The second variable, namely "Destination Awareness (DA)" was measured with five items, ranging from DA1 to DA5. The third variable "Destination Perceived Quality (DPQ)" was measured with five items ranging from DPQ1 to DPQ5. The fourth variable, "Destination Loyalty (DL)", was measured with five items ranging from DL1 to DL5. The fifth variable, "Customer Attitudes (CA)", was measured with five items ranging from CA1 to CA5. The sixth variable, "Behaviour (B)", was measured with five items ranging from B1 to B5. Finally, the seventh variable, "Destination Brand Equity (DBE)", was measured with five items ranging from DBE1 to DBE5.

Having measured the construct "Destination Brand Image (DBI)" with five measurement items, results revealed that majority of the respondents were neutral in their responses from DBI1-DBI3. This is evident in the following neutral responses for DBI: DBI1 obtained 119

(32%) for the statement “Soweto forms a positive memory in my mind”; DBI2 obtained 111 (30%) for the statement “Soweto fits my personality”; and lastly DBI3 obtained 170 (46%) for the statement “My friends would think highly of me if I visited this destination”. The final two responses DBI4 and DBI5 had higher responses in options 4 and 5, representing “agree” and “strongly agree” respectively as compared to options 1 and 2, representing “strongly disagree” and “disagree”. DBI4 had 252 (68%) for the statement “I can trust Soweto for a fulfilling cultural experience”, and DBI5 achieved 322 (87%) for the statement “Soweto has a rich history.”

The variable “Destination Awareness (DA)” showed that 340 (92%) of the respondents agree that Soweto is a famous and well-known tourist destination in South Africa. DA2 showed that 133 (36%) of the respondents were neutral when it came to Soweto having a good name and reputation. DA3 showed that 148 (40%) of the respondents agree that the characteristics of Soweto came to mind immediately. The results for DA4 “When thinking of a local tourist destination I think of Soweto first” were roughly equally spread between the scales 1-5. The final response DA5 had higher responses options 1 and 2, representing “strongly disagree” and “disagree” which resulted in 211 (57%) of the respondents choosing options 1 and 2.

The next variable, “Destination Perceived Quality (DPQ)”, showed that most of the respondents were neutral with their responses to DPQ1, DPQ2 and DPQ4. This was indicated by 137 (37%) neutral responses for DPQ1, 119 (32%) for DPQ2 and 134(36%) for DPQ4. For DPQ3 289 (78%) of the respondents perceive Soweto is capable of upgrading infrastructure. For example, DPQ3 had 274 respondents (74%), stating that the respondents agree and strongly agree with the statement “Soweto provides high-quality cultural experiences”.

The next variable, “Destination Loyalty (DL)”, showed interesting results. For DL1, 230 (62%) of the respondents were neutral or agree that Soweto is an enjoyable local tourist destination. For DL2 222 (60%) of the respondents are neutral and disagree that Soweto would be a preferred choice for a local tourist destination to visit. DL3 displayed similar results to DL2 where 235 (64%) of the respondents are neutral and disagree that Soweto provides more benefits than other destinations. For DL4 189 (51%) of the respondents agree and strongly agree with the statement “I would recommend friends/relatives to visit Soweto.” For DL5 the highest number of respondents 111 (30%) of the respondents agree with the statement “I intend visiting Soweto in the future.”

The next variable is, “Customer Attitudes (CA)”. For CA1 the highest number of respondents 140 (40%) of the respondents agree with the statement “I have positive attitudes towards Soweto as a local tourist destination.” For CA2 had 219 respondents (52%), stating that the respondents disagree and strongly disagree with the statement “I have a strong attachment to Soweto”. For CA3, 241 (65%) of the respondents were neutral and agree that visiting Soweto is. CA4 showed that 152 (41%) of the respondents are neutral to the statement “as a local tourist destination, I think that Soweto satisfies my expectations”. CA5 showed that 148 (40%) of the respondents agree that Soweto is very valuable.

The next variable is “Behaviour (B)”. B1 showed that 200 (54%) of the respondents had visited Soweto in the past 3 years. The results for B2 “I intend to visit Soweto in the near future” were roughly equally spread between the scales 1-5. B3 showed that 235 (64%) disagree that they would prefer to visit Soweto than non-local/international tourist destinations. The results for B4 “I am likely to visit Soweto when I want to go to a local tourist destination” were also roughly equally spread between the scales 1-5.” For B5 the highest number of respondents 111 (30%) of the respondents agree with the statement “I feel nothing will prevent me from visiting Soweto if I want to.”

The final variable, “Destination Brand Equity (DBE)” had higher responses options 3 and 4. For DBE1 282 respondents (76%) indicated that they were neutral or agree that Soweto is a destination with reasonable price. For DBE2 259 (70%) of the respondents again were neutral or agree that the benefits obtained from Soweto are higher than the costs. For DBE3 233 (63%) of the respondents were neutral or agree with the statement “If international/non-local tourist destinations are not different from Soweto or local tourist destinations in any way, it seems smarter to visit Soweto”. For DBE4 263 (71%) of the respondents were neutral or agree with the statement “Considering what I would pay for a trip, I will get much more than my money’s worth by visiting a local destination such as Soweto”. For DBE5 285 (77%) of the respondents were neutral or agree that visiting Soweto is economical.

5.4 Reliability Tests

The reliability of the data collected was confirmed via three tests. The first test discussed was Cronbach’s alpha test (Cronbach α); second, the Composite Reliability test (CR) and third the

Average Value Extracted (AVE) test. Table 5.1 below presents the results for all three tests used to check the research measure reliability.

Table 5. 1: Reliability Test Results

Accuracy Analysis Statistics										
Research Construct		Descriptive Statistics				Cronbach's Test		C.R. Value	AVE Value	Factor Loading
		Mean Value		Standard Deviation		Item-total	α value			
DBI	DBI1	3,339	3,409	1,094	1,014	0,739	0,820	0,827	0,497	0,823
	DBI2	2,623		1,201		0,655				0,847
	DBI3	2,913		1,034		0,555				0,631
	DBI4	3,883		0,932		0,643				0,659
	DBI5	4,287		0,807		0,494				0,506
DBA	DBA1	4,458	3,284	0,830	1,097	0,392	0,805	0,869	0,502	0,553
	DBA2	2,919		1,052		0,599				0,677
	DBA3	3,631		1,003		0,572				0,625
	DBA4	2,743		1,260		0,708				0,780
	DBA5	2,669		1,339		0,703				0,863
DPQ	DPQ1	3,377	3,585	1,014	1,024	0,740	0,876	0,869	0,577	0,820
	DPQ2	3,173		1,138		0,755				0,871
	DPQ3	4,092		1,015		0,580				0,533
	DPQ4	3,344		1,018		0,737				0,793
	DPQ5	3,940		0,934		0,728				0,735
DBL	DBL1	3,336	3,080	1,178	1,146	0,845	0,924	0,932	0,734	0,909
	DBL2	2,604		1,147		0,782				0,816
	DBL3	2,799		1,067		0,787				0,833
	DBL4	3,358		1,124		0,792				0,878
	DBL5	3,301		1,213		0,809				0,845
DBE	DBE1	3,756	3,438	0,885	0,994	0,606	0,846	0,823	0,484	0,659
	DBE2	3,436		1,020		0,679				0,772
	DBE3	3,133		1,133		0,578				0,623
	DBE4	3,233		1,011		0,757				0,767

	DBE5	3,634		0,920		0,674				0,644
CA	CA1	3,363	3,141	1,085	1,114	0,821	0,919	0,923	0,707	0,865
	CA2	2,458		1,188		0,703				0,778
	CA3	3,133		1,150		0,849				0,881
	CA4	3,209		1,080		0,835				0,887
	CA5	3,542		1,065		0,758				0,786
B	B1	3,295	2,970	1,741	1,359	0,433	0,818	0,923	0,534	0,510
	B2	3,127		1,358		0,762				0,866
	B3	2,214		1,159		0,675				0,724
	B4	2,748		1,255		0,710				0,796
	B5	3,463		1,283		0,571				0,708

C.R.: Composite Reliability- between 0.823 and 0.932

AVE: Average Variance Extracted- between 0.484 to 0.734

[a]significance level $p<0.05$; [b]significance level $p<0.01$; [c]significance level $p<0.001$

Measurement model fits: $\chi 2/df = 1.6$; GFI= 0,916; CFI= 0,981; IFI=0,971; TLI= 0,968; RFI=0,920; NFI= 0,950; RMSEA= 0,04

5.5.1 Cronbach's Alpha Test

This study calculated the standardised Cronbach's alpha to assess the internal reliability of each construct. The aim in this study was to get the highest possible α value as well as inter-item correlations as it represents a higher reliability for the scale used and statistical agreement among the measured items respectively. The results of scale reliability tests are shown in Table 5.1 above. It can be concluded that the item-to-total values ranged from 0.392 to 0,845 and, thus, were above the cut-off point of 0.3 (often ≦0.3) endorsed by Dunn, Seaker and Waller (1994). It can also be seen in Table 5.1 Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranged from 0.805 to 0.924 exceeding the threshold estimate criteria of 0.7 suggested by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994).

5.5.2 Composite Reliability (CR)

The internal reliability of each variable was also assessed using the Composite Reliability (CR) index test. According to the literature in Chapter 4, a CR index greater than 0.7 depicts a passable internal consistency of the construct (GLOBAL, 2016). The results for composite reliability is depicted in the table below

Table 5. 2 Composite Reliability.

Standardised regression Estimates (all variables and instruments included)							
				Composite reliability (CR)			
				$(\sum\lambda Yi)^2$	summation of error terms		**CRη=(Σλyi)2/[(Σλyi)2+(Σεi)]**
					ἐi	∑ἐi	CR
DBI	<-	DBI1	0,823	12,013	0,323	2,517	0,827
	<-	DBI2	0,847		0,283		
	<-	DBI3	0,631		0,602		
	<-	DBI4	0,659		0,566		
	<-	DBI5	0,506		0,744		
DBA	<-	DBA1	0,553	12,236	0,694	1,845	0,869
	<-	DBA2	0,677		0,542		
	<-	DBA3	0,625		0,609		
	<-	DBA4	0,780		0,392		
	<-	DBA5	0,863		0,255		
DPQ	<-	DPQ1	0,820	14,078	0,328	2,116	0,869
	<-	DPQ2	0,871		0,241		
	<-	DPQ3	0,533		0,716		
	<-	DPQ4	0,793		0,371		
	<-	DPQ5	0,735		0,460		
DBL	<-	DBL1	0,909	18,3270	0,174	1,329	0,932
	<-	DBL2	0,816		0,334		
	<-	DBL3	0,833		0,306		
	<-	DBL4	0,878		0,229		
	<-	DBL5	0,845		0,286		
DBE	<-	DBE1	0,659	12,0062	0,566	2,579	0,823
	<-	DBE2	0,772		0,404		
	<-	DBE3	0,623		0,612		
	<-	DBE4	0,767		0,412		

	<-	DBE5	0,644		0,585		
CA	<-	CA1	0,865	17,6148	0,252	1,466	0,923
	<-	CA2	0,778		0,395		
	<-	CA3	0,881		0,224		
	<-	CA4	0,887		0,213		
	<-	CA5	0,786		0,382		
B	<-	B1	0,510	12,9888	0,740	2,331	0,848
	<-	B2	0,866		0,250		
	<-	B3	0,724		0,476		
	<-	B4	0,796		0,366		
	<-	B5	0,708		0,499		

GLOBAL (2016) suggest that in reliability analysis, an acceptable CR value must be greater than 0.7. The CR for this study is calculated using the following formula:

(CR): $CR\eta = (\Sigma\lambda yi)^2/[(\Sigma\lambda yi)^2 + (\Sigma\varepsilon i)]$

Composite Reliability = (square of the summation of the factor loadings)/ {(square of the summation of the factor loadings) + (summation of error variances)}.

It can be seen from the results in Table 5.2 above that the CR indexes were between 0.823 and 0.932. These values exceeded the estimate criteria of 0.7 used by prior literature (GLOBAL, 2016)

Using the results of the construct “Behaviour” to validate the calculation for Composite Reliability was conducted as follows:

Step1: $(\Sigma\lambda yi)^2 = (0.510 + 0.866 + 0.724 + 0.796 + 0.708)^2 = 12,9888$

Step2: $\Sigma\varepsilon i= (1-0.510)^2 + (1-0.866)^2 + (1-0.724)^2 + (1-0.796)^2 + (1-0.708)^2 = 2,331$

Step3: $CR\eta= 12,9888 / (12,9888 + 2,331) = 0,848$

5.5.3 Average Value Extracted (AVE)

The average variance extracted (AVE) in this study proved that the overall amount of variance in the indicators were accounted for by the latent construct. The values for the AVE were all greater than 0.40 confirming that the indicators adequately represent the latent construct. From Table 5.3 below, all AVE values ranged from 0.484 to 0.734, thus within the marginal to acceptable threshold recommended by (Fraering & Minor, 2006) Table 5.3 below presents the calculations for Average Variance Extracted.

Table 5. 3: Calculation of AVE

						ὲi	**∑ὲi**	**∑λyi² / (∑λyi² + ∑ὲi)**
DBI	<---	DBI1	0,823	0,677	2,483	0,323	2,517	0,497
	<---	DBI2	0,847	0,717		0,283		
	<---	DBI3	0,631	0,398		0,602		
	<---	DBI4	0,659	0,434		0,566		
	<---	DBI5	0,506	0,256		0,744		
DBA	<---	DBA1	0,553	0,306	2,508	0,694	2,492	0,502
	<---	DBA2	0,677	0,458		0,542		
	<---	DBA3	0,625	0,391		0,609		
	<---	DBA4	0,78	0,608		0,392		
	<---	DBA5	0,863	0,745		0,255		
DPQ	<---	DPQ1	0,82	0,672	2,884	0,328	2,116	0,577
	<---	DPQ2	0,871	0,759		0,241		
	<---	DPQ3	0,533	0,284		0,716		
	<---	DPQ4	0,793	0,629		0,371		
	<---	DPQ5	0,735	0,540		0,460		
DBL	<---	DBL1	0,909	0,826	3,671	0,174	1,329	0,734
	<---	DBL2	0,816	0,666		0,334		
	<---	DBL3	0,833	0,694		0,306		
	<---	DBL4	0,878	0,771		0,229		
	<---	DBL5	0,845	0,714		0,286		
DBE	<---	DBE1	0,659	0,434	2,421	0,566	2,579	0,484

	<---	DBE2	0,772	0,596		0,404		
	<---	DBE3	0,623	0,388		0,612		
	<---	DBE4	0,767	0,588		0,412		
	<---	DBE5	0,644	0,415		0,585		
CA	<---	CA1	0,865	0,748	3,534	0,252	1,466	0,707
	<---	CA2	0,778	0,605		0,395		
	<---	CA3	0,881	0,776		0,224		
	<---	CA4	0,887	0,787		0,213		
	<---	CA5	0,786	0,618		0,382		
B	<---	B1	0,51	0,260	2,669	0,740	2,331	0,534
	<---	B2	0,866	0,750		0,250		
	<---	B3	0,724	0,524		0,476		
	<---	B4	0,796	0,634		0,366		
	<---	B5	0,708	0,501		0,499		

The formula below is used to calculate Average Variance Extracted:

(AVE): $V\eta = \Sigma\lambda yi^2 / (\Sigma\lambda yi^2 + \Sigma\varepsilon i)$

AVE = {(summation of the squared of factor loadings)/{(summation of the squared of factor loadings) + (summation of error variances)}

Using the results of the construct PBC to demonstrate, the calculation for AVE was conducted as follows:

Step 1: $\Sigma\lambda yi^2 = (0.510^2 + 0.866^2 + 0.724^2 + 0.796^2 + 0.708^2) = 2,669$

Step 2: $\Sigma\varepsilon i = (1\text{-}0.510)^2 + (1\text{-} 0.866)^2 + (1\text{-}0.724)^2 + (1\text{-}0.\ 0.796)^2 + (1\text{-}0.708)^2 = 2,331$

Step 3: $V\eta = 2,669 / (2,669 + 2,331) = 0,534$

As noted above, the results of AVE range from 0.484 to 0.734 confirming an acceptable representation of the latent construct by the items. Altogether, the construct reliabilities and the AVE estimates suggest the scales are internally consistent.

5.5 Validity Tests

5.6.1 Convergent Validity

This study evaluated convergent validity by confirming whether the individual item loadings for each corresponding research construct were greater than 0.5 as recommended by (Anderson and Gerbing 1988). As seen in Table 5.1 (see page 126-127) the factor loadings ranged from 0,506 to 0.909. Thus, they were all greater than the recommended 0.5, indicating an acceptable individual item convergent validity for this study as more than 50% of each item's variance was shared with its respective construct; confirming convergent validity of all scale items.

5.6.2 Discriminant Validity

5.6.2.1 Correlation Matrix

A correlation matrix was developed as an approach to test for discriminant validity for the research constructs in this study. This study aimed to achieve correlations among the latent constructs be less than 1.0. As can be seen in Table 5.1 (see page 126-127), the inter-correlation values for all paired latent variables were lower than 1.0, therefore suggesting the presence of discriminant validity.

5.6.2.2 Inter-construct correlation matrix

To check for discriminant validity of the research constructs, this study used the inter-construct correlation matrix — this study aimed for the correlations among latent constructs that were evaluated to be lower than 1.0. The values for the constructs presented below are marginally accepted as they range from 0.64 to 0.91. Below is Table 5.4 illustrates the relationships among constructs.

Table 5. 4 Correlations

	DBI	DBA	DPQ	DBL	CA	B	DBE
DBI	1						
DBA	0.745**	1					
DPQ	0.762**	0.782**	1				
DBL	0.796**	0.792**	0.793**	1			
CA	0.814**	0.814**	0.818**	0.917**	1		
B	0.701**	0.748**	0.707**	0.840**	0.845**	1	
DBE	0.685**	0.643**	0.727**	0.779**	0.784**	0.734**	1

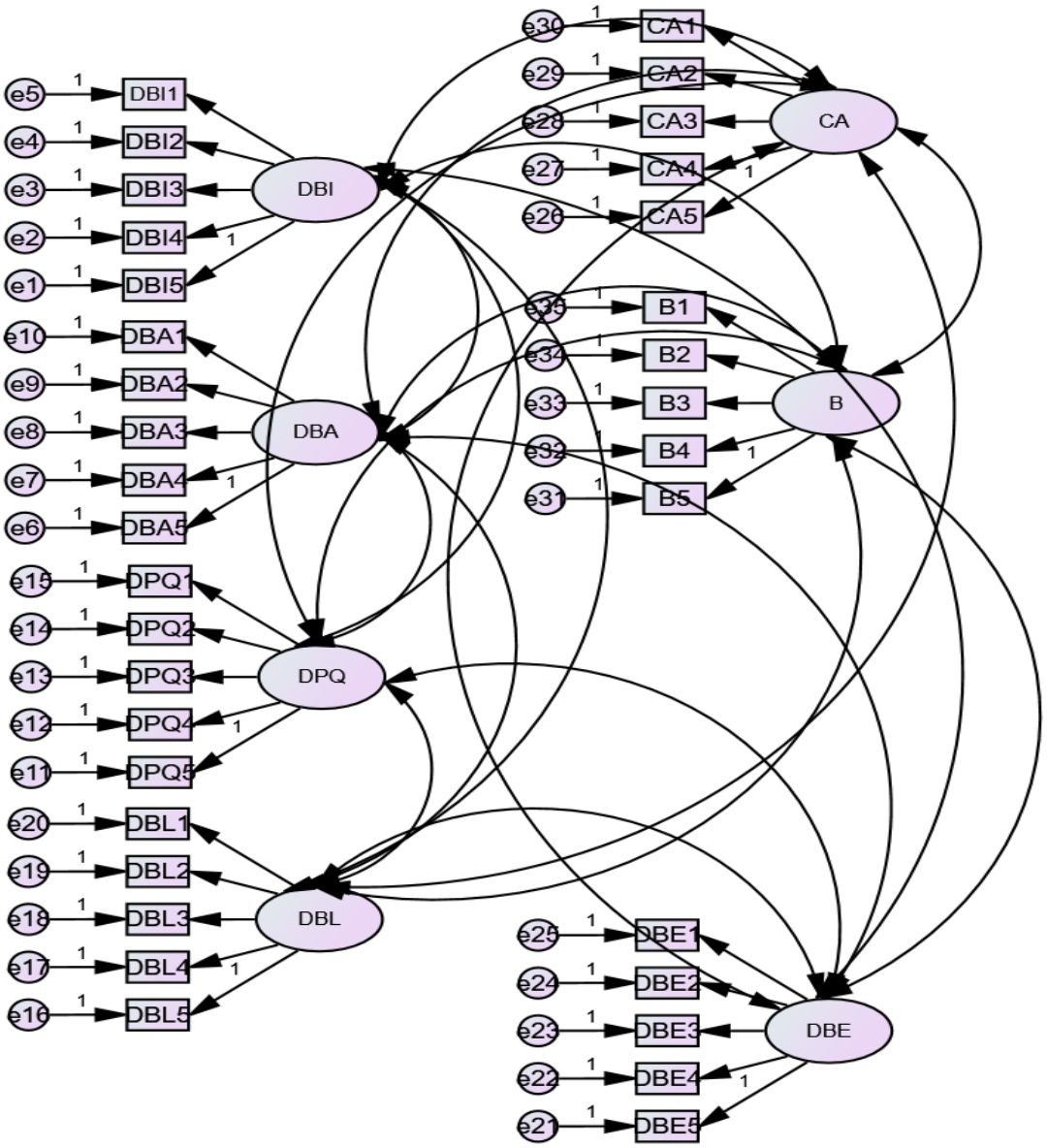
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As can be seen above, the inter-correlation values for all paired latent variables are less than 1.0, thus, indicating the existence of discriminant validity (Chinomona, Lin, Wang & Cheng, 2010).

5.6 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) models

Figure 15 on the following page is an illustration of the confirmatory factor analysis model.

Figure 5. 6: Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model



Key:

Destination Brand Equity = DBE

Destination Brand Image = DBI

Destination Brand Quality = DBP

Destination Brand Loyalty = DBL

Destination Brand Awareness = DBA

Customer Attitudes = CA

Behaviour = B

5.7 Conceptual Model Fit Assessments

This study used a two-step procedure proposed by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) to assess the model fit comprising of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and hypotheses testing. CFA was primarily performed to examine scale accuracy (including reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity) of the multiple-item construct measures. This study performed a CFA analysis using AMOS 24. This study concluded an acceptable model fit was indicated by chi-square value over degree of freedom (χ^2 /df) of value between 1 and 3, the values of Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Incremental Fit Index (IFI) and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) are equal to or greater than 0.90, and lastly the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) value to be equal to or less than 0.08. Recommended statistics for the final overall model assessment revealed an acceptable fit of the measurement model to the data.

5.8 Model Fit Results

Model fit criteria	**Chi-square (χ^2/df)**	**GFI**	**CFI**	**TLI**	**IFI**	**RFI**	**NFI**	**RMSEA**
				rho2	Delta2	rho1	Delta1	
Indicator value	1.6	0.916	0.980	0.968	0.981	0.920	0.950	0.040

The research model was run and the following results can be seen from Table 5.5 below. Chi-square (χ^2 /df) = 1.6, Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = 0,916, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0,981, Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) = 0,968, Incremental Fit Index (IFI) = 0,971, Relative Fit Index (RFI) = 0.920, Norm Fit Index (NFI) = 0.950, Random Measure of Standard Error Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.04. Table 5.5 below shows the model fit results.

Table 5. 5: Model Fit Results

As can be seen from Table 5.5 on the previous page:

- CFI value equal to 0.980> 0.95 indicating the model is a good fit
- TLI value equal to 0.968 > 0.95 indicating the model is a good fit
- IFI value equal to 0.981 is close to 1 indicating the model is a good fit

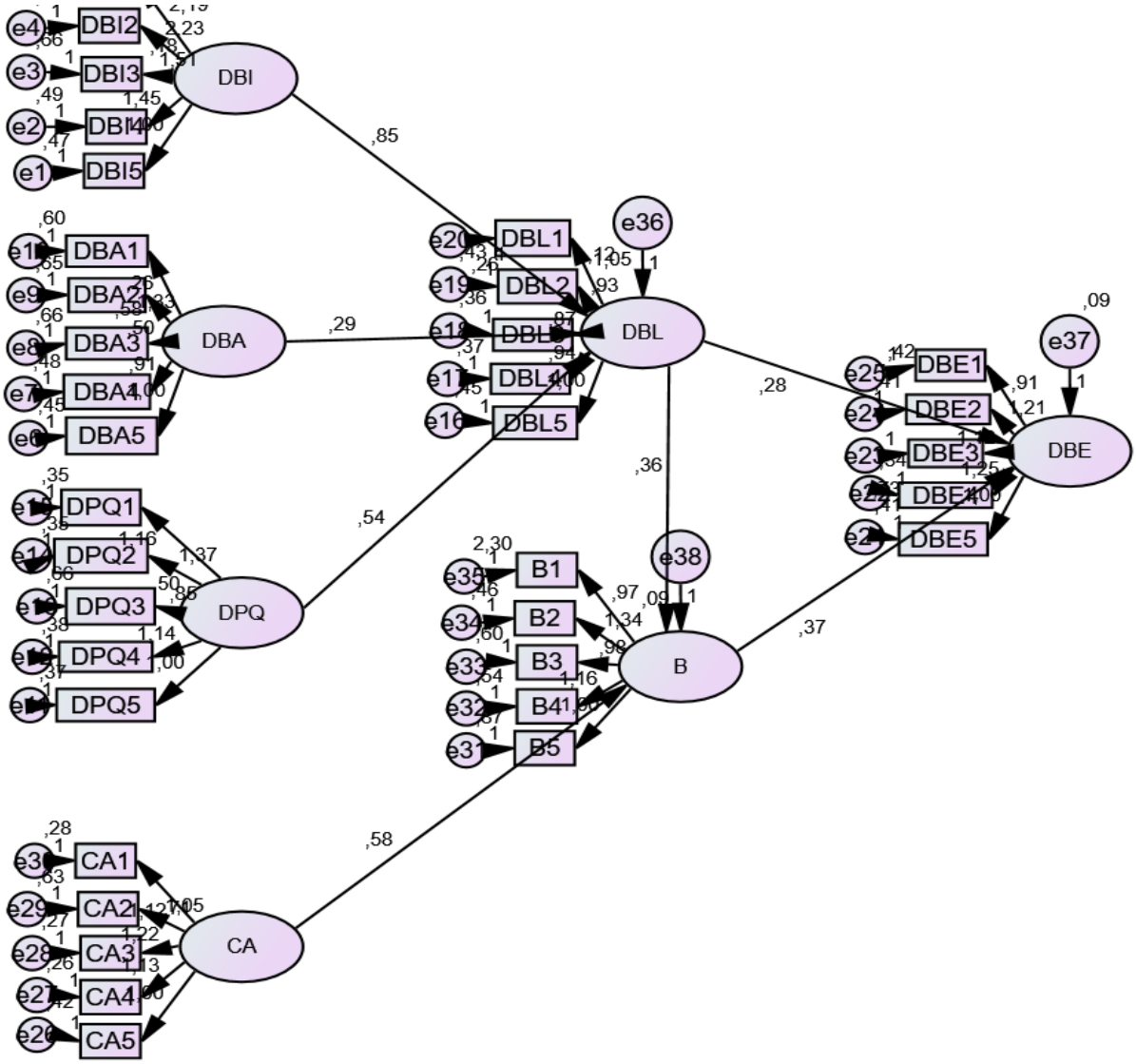
- RFI value equal to 0.920 > 0.90 indicating the model is a good fit
- NFI value equal to 0.950 < 0.95 at the threshold and therefore can be considered a good fit, and lastly
- GFI value equal to 0.916 > 0.9 is above the threshold also indicating the model is a good fit for this study.

Upon examining the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), it is ideally aiming to be lower than 0.08, the present model, indicated an acceptable fit with a value of 0.049. These results conclude that the proposed research conceptual model converged satisfactorily well and could be a representation of the underlying empirical data structure collected by purposive and convenience sampling in Gauteng. The model fit was acceptable and the study proceeded to test the research hypotheses. Since an acceptable CFA measurement model fit was obtained, the study proceeded to the hypothesis testing stage using structural equation modelling with AMOS 24 software program as well as the discussion of the hypothesis.

5.9 Structural Equation Modelling and Discussion of Hypothesis

From Table 5.1 and 5.6 above as well as figure 5.7 on the following page it can be concluded that the findings reveal that all seven hypotheses are significant and supported.

Figure 5. 7: Structural Equation Model and Path Modeling



Key:

Destination Brand Equity = DBE

Destination Brand Image = DBI

Destination Brand Quality = DBP

Destination Brand Loyalty = DBL

Destination Brand Awareness = DBA

Customer Attitudes = CA

Behaviour = B

Table 5. 6: Results of Structural Equation Model Analysis

Hypothesis	Path / proposed hypothesis relationship	Path coefficient estimate	P Value	Supported/ Rejected
H_1	DBI ⟶ DBL	0,848	0.000***	Supported and Significant
H_2	DBA ⟶ DBL	0,287	0.000***	Supported and Significant
H_3	DPQ ⟶ DBL	0,543	0.000***	Supported and Significant
H_4	CA ⟶ B	0,576	0.000***	Supported and Significant
H_5	DBL ⟶ B	0,364	0.000***	Supported and Significant
H_6	DBL ⟶ DBE	0,276	0.000***	Supported and Significant
H_7	B ⟶ DBE	0,371	0.000***	Supported and Significant

Measurement model fits: $\chi 2/df$ = 1.6; GFI= 0,916; CFI= 0,981; IFI=0,971; TLI= 0,968; RFI=0,920; NFI= 0,950; RMSEA= 0,04

* Significance level <0.05; ** significance level <0.01; *** significance level <0.001

From Table 5.6 above, the findings reveal that all seven of hypotheses are significant and supported as their p-values are all greater than 0.05.

Results pertaining to Hypothesis 1 (DBI ⟶ DBL)

There is a positive relationship between Destination Brand Image and Destination Brand Loyalty. The outcome indicated DBI and DBL were supported and significant, p>0.05.

Results pertaining to Hypothesis 2 (DBI ⟶ DBL)

There is a positive relationship between Destination Brand Awareness and Destination Brand Loyalty. The outcome indicated DBA and DBL were supported and significant, p>0.05.

Results pertaining to Hypothesis 3 (DPQ ⟶ DBL)

There is a positive relationship between Destination Perceived Quality and Destination Brand Loyalty. The outcome indicated DPQ and DBL were supported and significant, p>0.05.

Results pertaining to Hypothesis 4 (CA⟶ B)

There is a positive relationship between Customer Attitudes and Behaviour. The outcome indicated CA and B were supported and significant, p>0.05.

Results pertaining to Hypothesis 5 (DBL⟶ B)

There is a positive relationship between Destination Brand Loyalty and Behaviour. The outcome indicated DBL and B were supported and significant, p>0.05.

Results pertaining to Hypothesis 6 (DBL⟶ DBE)

There is a positive relationship between Destination Brand Loyalty and Destination Brand Equity. The outcome indicated DBL and DBE were supported and significant, p>0.05.

Results pertaining to Hypothesis 7 (B ⟶ DBE)

There is a positive relationship between Behaviour and Destination Brand Equity. The outcome indicated B and DBE were supported and significant, p>0.05.

5.10 Conclusion

Chapter 5 discussed the methods and techniques that were used to acquire the findings with the aid of tables and graphs for the results derived from the 370 usable responses. This chapter illustrates and discusses the findings that were obtained via the empirical research conducted. This chapter revealed a statistical analysis of data that was acquired through the data collection tool (research questionnaire). Chapter 5 began with an introduction followed by the research data analysis procedures. The results were examined by means of calculation of demographic statistics, data reliability, and validity checks as well as model fit.

Model fit was explored by including a diagrammatic representation of model fit criteria and acceptable fit level. Confirmatory factor analysis and the inter-construct correlation matrix was conducted on the data for validity purposes. An introduction to structural equation modelling was provided followed by a diagrammatic illustration of the structural model. The structural model was followed by hypothesis testing and a discussion of results of structural equation model analysis. The proposed hypothesis for the study was a test requiring conducting SEM

using the SPSS 24 and AMOS 24 software program and then discuss the research findings. The findings also revealed that all seven hypotheses are supported.

The next chapter will cover the final section of the report – conclusions & recommendations.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

6.1 Introduction

Chapter 6 discusses the conclusions of the research questions, the limitations as well as recommendations for further research. This study was primarily concerned with exploring factors that affect destination brand equity using Soweto as a local tourist destination through a Generation Y perspective. Investigating the effect the six influencers - actual behaviour, destination brand loyalty, customer attitudes, destination brand image, destination awareness and destination perceived quality - have on destination brand equity. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was applied to assess the proposed research model and hypothesis. The analytical results implied that all seven proposed hypotheses were significant and supported. Furthermore, it was observed in Table 5.1 that the influence of destination brand loyalty towards destination brand equity was the most important relationship as it had the highest factor loading indicated by 0.909.

6.2 Summary of Hypotheses Results

From the results seen in Chapter 5, the findings revealed that all seven hypotheses are supported. Upon further examination, the following was found: The strongest relationships were between Destination Brand Loyalty and Destination Brand Equity with the highest factor loading of 0.909, followed by Customer Attitudes and Behaviour with its highest factor loading being 0.887 – the second highest factor loading. Thus, overall indicating that if consumers are loyal to a destination or have a positive attitude towards the destination, they are likely to consider visiting, revisiting or recommending the destination thus positively affecting destination brand equity. Ultimately the purpose of this paper was to develop and test a proposed destination brand equity model for males and females between the ages of 18 and 35 living in Gauteng. Using a conceptual model, seven hypotheses were tested, and 370 questionnaires were distributed and usable. This study attempted to understand the important

branding features of a tourism destination. As noted above, the results supported all seven hypotheses, therefore indicating that the influencers identified positively influences destination brand equity for Soweto as a local tourist destination.

6.3 Implications/Contributions

The results of this research study contribute to existing literature in a few ways. The relation to the factors that cause people to visit, revisit or recommend a local destination and its effect on destination brand equity is seen via the factor analysis. Tourists treat tourism destinations the same as products. They perceive the destination as a brand and make a final selection based on influential brand equity.

The study concluded that there is a positive relationship between destination brand equity and actual behaviour, destination brand loyalty, customer attitudes, destination brand image, destination awareness and destination perceived quality. With the current race among cities worldwide to become tourism destinations, research on the brand equity of Soweto, one of the most visited tourist destinations in South Africa, was investigated in this study. The study also investigates it through the perspective of Generation Y. When Gen Y and tourism is considered, the overwhelming conclusion is that there is very little research into any of the possible relationships between Gen Y and tourism. That is, research is needed into Gen Y members as tourists, tourism managers, entrepreneurs, policymakers and hosts.

6.4 Limitations

Although the present study provides several contributions, this dissertation is context specific. This research was limited to people living in Gauteng between the ages of 18 and 35 in 2018. Considering a different respondent profile, or applying the subject on a different destination, might yield different results — the study excluded individuals that are below the age of 18 and above the ages of 35 who are current tourists'.

The study was also subject to the following limitations:

- Not all of the respondents travel locally

- This research was conducted in the context of financial and time limitations.
- Choice of data collection method(s): a multiple choice questionnaire was used as the data collection method in this study, but by integrating additional methods of data collection such as focus groups, interviews, open-ended questionnaires, can increase the scope and depth of analyses. This is because close-ended multiple choice questionnaires have certain disadvantages, such as selection of random answer choices by respondents without properly reading the question, literacy limitations, and the absence of possibility for respondents to express their additional thoughts and opinions.

6.5 Future Research

On the academic side, this study contributes to the field of tourism, generational, behavioural and brand equity. The current study leaves room for further future research in the local tourism and destination brand equity. On the service providers side, it is important for marketing practitioners to understand the importance of Gen Y and their travel preferences. By gaining insight into the role of Gen Y among the people of Gauteng between the ages of 18 and 35, marketers can utilise research as a platform for effective communication with tourists'.

It is important that future studies should refine and develop the measures of the conceptual model in this study, as well as, increase the number of variables in dimension; additional tourists' destinations could be investigated along with more heterogeneous tourist target groups. It is also suggested that there be more attitudinal and behavioural dimensions included in the model. This would allow for more diversity in the sample and more informed results. This study was highly limited from financial and time constraints, and if this could be addressed in futures studies, the possibility of producing more informed results would be increased. Lastly, further ressearch could dertermine whether the identified variables (destination brand image, destination brand awareness, destination brand perceived quality, customer attitudes) do infact destination brand equity.

6.6 Conclusion

This study attempted to understand the important brand equity features of a tourism destination. To accomplish this, it established a proposed conceptual model of brand equity with relationships and six influencing factors (actual behaviour, destination brand loyalty, customer

attitudes, destination brand image, destination awareness and destination perceived quality). The study, therefore, provides fundamental data that could be used for establishing a strategic branding position for attracting South African tourists. The result of this research can be summarized as follows.

The findings in the proposed model indicated that the respondents' image with a destination was an important, influential factor in destination brand loyalty with its highest factor loading being 0.847. The findings also indicated that the respondents' brand awareness with a destination was also an influential factor in destination loyalty with its highest factor loading being 0.863. The findings also indicated that the respondents' perceived quality with a destination was to an important, influential factor in destination loyalty with its highest factor loading being 0.871.

The findings in the proposed model indicated that the respondents' attitude towards a destination was an important, influential factor in actual behaviour with its highest factor loading being 0.887. The model then also indicated that the respondents' behaviour towards a destination was an important, influential factor in the destination brand equity model with its highest factor loading being 0.866.

The findings in the proposed model indicated that the respondents' brand loyalty with a destination was the most influential factor in destination brand equity model with its highest factor loading being 0.909. The above results support the works of Boo et al., (2009), Kim (2018), Veríssimo, Borges Tiago, Gomes Tiago & Jardim (2017), Kim & Lee (2017), Kladau & Konecnik (2014), Konecnik & Ruzzier (2010), Konecnik & Gartner (2007), Gómez, González-Díaz & Molina (2015), Bianchi, Pike & Lings (2014) and Yoo & Donthu (2001).

The results in this study suggest that managers and practitioners should promote consistent and integrated strategies, given that, in order to improve a destinations brand equity, strategies should improve awareness in the early stages, as well as perceived quality and practices that create favourable image perceptions and future intentions to return or recommend.

To conclude as noted above the purpose of this study was to examine the influence of actual behaviour, destination brand loyalty, customer attitudes, destination brand image, destination awareness and destination perceived quality had on destination brand equity for Soweto, from

the perspective of Generation Y male and females between the ages of 18 and 55 living in Gauteng. Based on the variables mentioned above, a conceptual research model was developed (Figure 3.2).

This final chapter provided four concluding sections, presenting a conclusion for the study that made up this dissertation, noting the implications of these findings for study. The chapter then suggested directions of future studies in the field of destination brand equity and closed with an overall conclusion, noting the contributions made to further investigations. Using a conceptual model, seven hypotheses were tested, and 370 usable questionnaires were distributed and statistically analysed. The results support all seven of the hypotheses.

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APPENDIX

Participation Information Sheet

Exploring Factors that Affect Destination Brand Equity: The Case of Soweto as a Local Tourist Destination through a Generation Y Perspective

Dear Sir/Madam

My name is Natalie Videira and I am a Masters student in Marketing at Wits University in Johannesburg. As part of my studies I have to undertake a research project, and I am Exploring Factors that Affect Destination Brand Equity. This study aims to understand how various factors affecting brand loyalty for local tourism translate into intentions to engage in behaviours which are vital for mapping out the brand loyalty and behavioural intentions of local Generation Y (Gen Y) people.

As part of this project I would like to invite you to take part in answering a questionnaire. The questionnaire will involve answering 40 short questions and will take approximately 10 minutes.

You will not receive any direct benefits from participating in this study, and there are no disadvantages or penalties for not participating. You may withdraw at any time or not answer any question if you do not want to. By answering this questionnaire you have given your consent to use the information obtained solely for the purpose of this study.

If you have any questions afterwards about this research, feel free to contact me on the details listed below. This study will be written up as a research report which will be available online

through the university library website. If you have any queries, concerns or complaints regarding the ethical procedures of this study, you are welcome to contact the University Human Research Ethics Committee (non-medical), telephone + 27(0)11 717 1408, email Shaun.Schoeman@wits.ac.za

Yours sincerely,



Natalie Videira

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QUESTIONNAIRE

Thank you for paying attention to this Marketing Masters by Research questionnaire on behalf of the University of Witwatersrand. The purpose of the study is to examine "**Exploring Factors that Affect Destination Brand Equity: The Case of Soweto as a Local Tourist Destination through a Generation Y Perspective**." I am, therefore, inviting you to complete the questionnaire below. The research is purely for academic purposes and the information obtained will be kept confidential. It will take you approximately 10 minutes to complete the whole questionnaire.

Researcher: Natalie Videira
Supervisor: Dr Tinashe Chuchu
Co-supervisor: Dr Eugine Tafadzwa Maziriri









SECTION A

GENERAL INFORMATION

The section is asking your background information. Please indicate your answer by ticking (✓) on the appropriate box.

A1: Please indicate your age

18-22	23-26	27-30	31-35	Prefer not to say
1	2	3	4	5

A2:Please indicate your gender

Male	1
Female	2
Prefer not to say	3

A3: What is your current employment status?

Student	1
Employed Part-Time	2
Employed Full-Time	3
Unemployed	4
Prefer not to say	5
Working and studying	6
Self-Employed	7
Retired	8

A4: Do you personally visit local tourist destinations?

Yes	1
No	2
Prefer not to say	3

A5: How many times have you visited Soweto as a tourist?

None	1
Between 1-5 times	2
>5 times	3
>10 times	4
No response	5

SECTION B

Below are statements about – **Destination Brand Image (DBI).** You can indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement by ticking the corresponding number in the 5-point scale below:

1= Strongly Disagree **2**= Disagree **3**= Neutral **4**= Agree **5**= Strongly Agree

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

Please tick (✓) only one number for each statement

DBI1	Soweto forms a positive memory in my mind	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
DBI2	Soweto fits my personality	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
DBI3	My friends would think highly of me if I visited this destination	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
DBI4	I can trust Soweto for a fulfilling cultural experience	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
DBI5	Soweto has a rich history	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree

SECTION C

Below are statements about **Destination Awareness (DA)**. You can indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement by ticking the corresponding number in the 5-point scale below:

1= Strongly Disagree **2**= Disagree **3**= Neutral **4**= Agree **5**= Strongly Agree

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

Please tick (✓) only one number for each statement

DA1	Soweto is famous and well known in South Africa	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
DA2	Soweto has a good name and reputation	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
DA3	The characteristics of this Soweto come to my mind immediately	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
DA4	When thinking of a local tourist destination I think of Soweto first	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
DA5	I am more familiar with Soweto than other local tourist destinations	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree

SECTION D

Below are statements about **Destination Perceived Quality (DPQ).** You can indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement by ticking the corresponding number in the 5 point scale below:

1= Strongly Disagree **2**= Disagree **3**= Neutral **4**= Agree **5**= Strongly Agree

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

Please tick (✓) only one number for each statement

DPQ1	Soweto offers a series of quality choices	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
DPQ2	I would consider Soweto to be a high quality tourist destination	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
DPQ3	I perceive Soweto is capable of upgrading infrastructure	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
DPQ4	Soweto offers better experiences than other similar destinations	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
DPQ5	Soweto provides high quality cultural experiences	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree

SECTION E

Below are statements about **Destination Loyalty (DL)**. You can indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement by ticking the corresponding number in the 5 point scale below:

1= Strongly Disagree **2**= Disagree **3**= Neutral **4**= Agree **5**= Strongly Agree

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

Please tick (✓) only one number for each statement

DL1	I enjoy visiting Soweto	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
DL2	Soweto would be my preferred choice for a local tourist destination to visit	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
DL3	This destination provides more benefits than other destinations	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
DL4	I would recommend friends/relatives to visit Soweto	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
DL5	I intend visiting this destination in the future	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree

SECTION F

Below are statements about **Customer Attitudes**. You can indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement by ticking the corresponding number in the 5-point scale below:

1= Strongly Disagree **2**= Disagree **3**= Neutral **4**= Agree **5**= Strongly Agree

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

Please tick (✓) only one number for each statement

CA1	I have positive attitudes towards Soweto as a local tourist destination.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
CA2	I have a strong attachment to Soweto	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
CA3	For me visiting Soweto is pleasant	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
CA4	As a local tourism destination, I think that Soweto satisfies my expectations	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
CA5	As a local tourism destination, I think that Soweto is very valuable	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree

SECTION G

Below are statements about Behaviour. You can indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement by ticking the corresponding number in the 5 point scale below:

1= Strongly Disagree **2**= Disagree **3**= Neutral **4**= Agree **5**= Strongly Agree

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

Please tick (✓) only one number for each statement

B1	I have visited Soweto in the past 3 years	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
B2	I intend to visit Soweto in the near future	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
B3	I would prefer to visit Soweto than non-local/international tourist destinations	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
B4	I am likely to visit Soweto when I want to go to a local tourist destination	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
B5	I feel nothing will prevent me from visiting Soweto if I want to	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree

SECTION H

Below are statements about **Destination Brand Equity**. You can indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement by ticking the corresponding number in the 5-point scale below:

1= Strongly Disagree **2**= Disagree **3**= Neutral **4**= Agree **5**= Strongly Agree

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

Please tick (✓) only one number for each statement

THANK YOU!

DBE1	Soweto is a destination with reasonable prices	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
DBE2	The benefits obtained from Soweto are higher than the costs.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
DBE3	If international/non-local tourist destinations are not different from Soweto or local tourist destinations in anyway, it seems smarter to visit Soweto	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
DBE4	Considering what I would pay for a trip, I will get much more than my money's worth by visiting a local destination such as soweto	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree
DBE5	Visiting Soweto is economical.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree



Appendix B

Research Office

HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (NON-MEDICAL)
R14/49 Videira

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE	**PROTOCOL NUMBER: H18/05/19**
PROJECT TITLE	Exploring factors that affect destination brand equity: The case of Soweto as a local tourist destination through a generation Y perspective
INVESTIGATOR(S)	Miss N Videira
SCHOOL/DEPARTMENT	Marketing/
DATE CONSIDERED	18 May 2018
DECISION OF THE COMMITTEE	Approved
EXPIRY DATE	07 August 2021

DATE 08 August 2018 **CHAIRPERSON** J. Knight
(Professor J Knight)

cc: Supervisor : Dr T Chuchu

DECLARATION OF INVESTIGATOR(S)

To be completed in duplicate and **ONE COPY** returned to the Secretary at Room 10004, 10th Floor, Senate House, University. Unreported changes to the application may invalidate the clearance given by the HREC (Non-Medical)

I/We fully understand the conditions under which I am/we are authorized to carry out the abovementioned research and I/we guarantee to ensure compliance with these conditions. Should any departure to be contemplated from the research procedure as approved I/we undertake to resubmit the protocol to the Committee. **I agree to completion of a yearly progress report.**

Signature

____/____/____
Date

PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER ON ALL ENQUIRIES

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