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Nation Brand Advocacy and the Reputation of South Africa

Mafanedza Brutus Makumbi

A research report submitted to the Faculty of Commerce, Law and Management, University of the Witwatersrand, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Management in Strategic Marketing

Johannesburg, 2016

ABSTRACT

Purpose – This paper investigates the brand knowledge and perceptions of South Africans living abroad. It also establishes whether South Africans living abroad are brand advocates for South Africa.

Design/methodology/approach – The paper draws on key literature relating to knowledge transfer, brand advocacy and nation branding. Data were collected through a self-administered online survey to South Africans living abroad through the Brand South Africa database. Correlation, partial correlation and linear regression were used to identify linkages between knowledge transfer, brand advocacy and nation branding.

Findings – The conceptual model in conjunction with the hypotheses presented is a start in the direction of establishing a framework to understanding the value of nation branding in the South African knowledge economy. Findings showed significant relation between knowledge transfer, brand advocacy and nation branding.

Research limitations/implications – cross-sectional data were used and further research should examine data for multiple years in order to conduct longitudinal studies.

Practical implications – The study has demonstrated that nation branding is an important concept to consider in relation to the diaspora. A strong nation brand help to increase exports, attract tourism, investment and immigration. Nation branding has become an essential part of a country's sustainable development.

Originality/value – The study analysed the relationship between knowledge transfer, brand advocacy and nation branding must be seen as a development strategy for home nations to tap the knowledge and skills of their expatriate professionals in developing economies such as South Africa.

DECLARATION

I, Mafanedza Brutus Makumbi, declare that this research report is my own work except as indicated in the references and acknowledgements. It is submitted in partial fulfilment on the requirements for the degree Master of Management in Strategic Marketing in the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in this or any other university.

Mafanedza Brutus Makumbi

Signed at……

On the……..day of…….2016

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this report to my late father, Abraham Mbau Makumbi and my mother, Dovhani Grace Makumbi, who have shown their support and encouragement for my studies. They have sacrificed a lot to ensure that I receive a good education which will be a good base for me to establish my career and future. My wife, Kelebogile Theodora, has been a continuous pillar of strength through this journey; her love and support made it possible to achieve this.

Special dedication to my two sisters and brother, Elelwani Desiree and Funanani, and Fhulufhuwani; they have been pillars of strength. My mentor, Daniel Mpapele, for being a well of motivation that never dried up.

Last and most importantly, I would like to thank the Lord Almighty, my Savour Jesus Christ for imparting in me the dream to undertake the Masters of Management in Strategic Marketing programme and the ability to see the programme to completion.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to take this opportunity to express my profound gratitude and deep regard to my supervisor, Professor Russell Abratt, for his exemplary guidance, valuable feedback and constant encouragement throughout the duration of my studies. His valuable suggestions were of immense help throughout this research. His perceptive criticism kept me working to make this research much better. Working under him was an extremely knowledgeable experience for me.

I would also like to give my sincere gratitude to Mr Thanyani Maremba and Dr Fawzy Basardien for their valuable and constructive support during the planning and development of statistical analysis. Their willingness to give their time so generously is much appreciated.

Most importantly, none of this would have been possible without the love and patience of my family. My immediate family, to whom this research is dedicated to, has been a constant source of love, concern, support and strength all these years.

Without the support of my Pastor who provided a great deal of support and prayers, this research would not have been executable. I would like to thank the Wits Business School staff and lecturers for the unmatched wisdom they imparted to me.

My greatest gratitude goes to Dr Petrus De Kock and his team at Brand South Africa for his guidance and database access.

Last but not least, I would like to thank the Lord Almighty for providing me with strength to endure the duration of this programme; it has been a tough but worthwhile journey. His eternal mercies and grace has been with me throughout this research.

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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Purpose of the study

This research report investigates the brand knowledge and perceptions of South Africans living abroad. It also establishes whether South Africans living abroad are brand advocates for South Africa.

Subsequent to the 1960's, academic studies have dynamically researched the field of country reputation, with more emphasis on Country-of-Origin effects. The most recent publications take after a newer approach, which focuses on country reputation and nation branding (Gertner, 2011).

1.2 Context of the study

South African nation brand history prior to 1994

Widespread perceptions and the reputation of the South African brand during 1960s were unfavourable, due to politically-sanctioned racial segregation and a tyranical arrangement of government (Johns & Davis, 1991). Notwithstanding becoming a global weight and feedback on the nation's racially oppressive set-up and human rights infringement, the framework operated (Grundlingh, 2006). Politically-sanctioned racial segregation and its racially biased approaches minimised popular inter-racial gatherings, including Africans, Coloureds and Asians. Amujo and Otubanjo (2012) attest that

adversely perceived nation brand identity is birthed out of socio-political and natural calamities.

The South African brand after 1994

The term 'rainbow nation' (credited to Nobel Peace Prize laureate Archbishop Desmond Tutu) became synonymous with the new South Africa and implied a strategy and obligation to nation (South Africa) building (Bornman, 2006).

When South Africa hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup, the Local Organising Committee made it clear that the primary vision was to change the global reputation of the South African national brand (Jordaan, 2011). Hosting an event of this magnitude denotes hope for the nation and an opportunity to demonstrate the capability of a developing nation (Knott, Fyall, & Jones, 2013).

Brand South Africa (De Kock, 2014) clarifies that South Africa has transitioned from the arrangement of politically-sanctioned racial segregation to a one party majority rule government following 1994. This encompasses formulating a different nation brand vision, core nation brand values to warrant relevancy to contemporary issues (Amujo & Otubanjo, 2012).

Globalisation and Migration

In the previous thirty years, globalisation has encouraged the nature and arrangement of the African diaspora. The African diaspora has encountered significant movements; from the forced migration of African captives of the Old and New Worlds to the purposeful displacement of free, talented Africans searching for political refuge or economic opportunities (Akyeampong, 2000)**.**

Skilled migration has assumed a focal part in the considerable number of students and experts leaving Africa for developed nations. Instead of returning home for employment,

some students develop expertise and do not return home (Beine, Docquier, & Özden, 2011; Kamei, 2011).

During the course of the 2000s, scholars have continuously recognised and observed to what degree migrants keep personal ties, political impact, religious identities and practices, linguistic and cultural features and more extensive recognitions, while in the new nation of settlement (Lacroix & Fiddian-Qasmiyeh, 2013).

1.3 Problem statement

1.3.1 *Main problem*

The global arena is witness to numerous voices, reputations and sentiments exuding from historical and current events, collectively creating a certain perception towards the South African nation brand.

The report investigates the brand knowledge and perceptions of South Africans living abroad. It also establishes whether South Africans living abroad are brand advocates for South Africa.

1.3.2 *Sub-problems*

The first sub-problem is to assess the relationship between knowledge transfer and brand advocacy.

The second sub-problem is to assess the effects of knowledge transfer and brand advocacy on nation brand reputation.

1.4 Significance of the study

The report provides guidance and fills the gap that exists in the literature, regarding diaspora activities that can impact nation brand perception. Furthermore, the study intends to understand whether South Africans living abroad are brand advocates for South Africa. Much research has been published on nation branding from the perspective of people living within the country, but few from the perspective of those living abroad.

The study is therefore directed at assisting policymakers when branding the nation and promoting diaspora activities as well as scholarly knowledge in this sphere of research.

1.5 Delimitations of the study

- The report is principally fixated on the contribution of South Africans living abroad only, which ignores commitment of the individuals living within the country.
- The report concentrates solely on specific drivers which are knowledge transfer and brand advocacy.
- The report assumes that respondents reflect normal perspectives and experiences.

1.6 Definition of terms

Brand advocacy According to Ferris-Costa (2011), a brand advocate is a consumer who campaigns for a brand and acts as its ambassador by eagerly promoting and defending a particular brand.

Nation brand According to Fan (2006), is an application of branding and communication techniques to advance a nation's reputation.

Diaspora, defined by Shain and Barth (2003) as people who originate from the same nation but who reside in another nation, and they are invited to participate, in one form or another, in the affairs of their homeland.

Knowledge transfer, Argote and Ingram (2000) characterise knowledge transfer as a phenomenon in which one unit is impacted by the encounters of the other unit and this happens at an individual level.

Word-of-mouth can be characterised as an informal communication between individuals about constructive or pessimistic encounters with a brand or product (Anderson, 1998; Cheng, Lam, & Hsu, 2006).

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Background discussion

The current chapter reviews available literature which provides a profound appreciation for the premise to make the scene for the problem statement, hypothesis and to substantiate conclusions drawn from the study.

The current research study is based on the visual conceptual framework, denoted in Figure1. According to the framework, the study suggests that the nation brand reputation, which signifies how the nation is perceived, can be affected by two drivers to be specific; knowledge transfer and advocacy.



Figure 1: Visual conceptual framework of literature

Kamei (2011) professes that developing nations across the globe have recognised the diaspora as noteworthy assets of the nation. Kamei (2011) further annotates that despite the fact that the diaspora left the home nation years back, they still hold a forceful passionate connection and communication framework that can improve the nation brand reputation. If consumers convey a positive character towards a brand, they are more inclined to align themselves to that brand (Kemp, Childers, & Williams, 2012; Schultz & Block, 2012).

This line of thinking is strongly supported by Kuschminder (2011), who acknowledges governmental programmes for returning diaspora. Kuschminder (2011) argues that even a temporary return has been referred to as the new ‘win-win-win’ for brain gain in countries of origin (Kuschminder, 2014).

Diaspora and diaspora option

Contemporary perspectives suggest that South-North migration has largely characterised international migration patterns for decades. In addition, the South has traditionally been the source of both low-skilled and high-skilled labour of developed countries. This has fuelled serious concerns about the apparent loss of valuable knowledge and skills in developing countries, or what became known as ‘brain drain’ (Siar, 2014).

However, there are contrasting views of the diaspora option, as per Brown (2002), arguing that it is a methodology to arrange exceedingly talented exiles to exchange intellectual, financial, social, innovative and experimental knowledge to the change and improvement of the nation. Diaspora option takes into account that while diaspora may not so much need to come back, they can contribute skills, knowledge and proficiency to the home country from wherever they are across the globe (Pellerin & Mullings, 2013). The physical return of expatriates does not need to be long term, even short, focused visits of skilled emigrants to the home nation can serve as a channel for knowledge transfer (Brown, 2002; Mahroum, Eldridge, & Daar, 2006; W. Turner, Meyer, de Guchteneire, & Azizi, 2003; W. A. Turner, Henry, & Gueye, 2003).

Not many studies have investigated the contribution of diaspora to knowledge transfer. Studies conducted by Kuschminder (2011) and Kuschminder (2014) investigated how temporary return programmes contribute to knowledge transfer and capacity building in countries of origin through a case study of the International Organization for Migration the Netherlands Temporary Return of Qualified Nationals Project to Afghanistan.

Rwanda began its development programme, Vision 2020, in 2000, proposing a vital role for the nation's diasporic populace in the formation of a knowledge-based economy. Ghanaian non-residents are compensated for commitment to national economic and

social development, thus encouraging investment and technology transfer. To a greater extent, South Africa centred its focus on strategic discussions with other nations and strongly placed backing of non-profit organisations which address diaspora issues. The South African government has narrowed the focus on political efforts into endeavours of its diaspora. Over past decades, diasporic impacts have been apparent in Sub-Saharan Africa in the circles of economy, society, social and to a constrained degree, political (Davies, 2012; Marks, 2006; Mwangi, 2006).

Similar findings were expressed by Kuschminder (2011), suggesting that diasporas have historically contributed to knowledge transfer and capacity building through diaspora knowledge networks (self-organised diaspora groups in the country of migration), state-led programmes that fund diaspora members to temporarily return (for example China and India), and international organisation- funded temporary return programmes.

Diaspora strategies have turned into a fundamental part of national economic development strategies. The extent that the diaspora option resembles an incredible strategy, policy makers endeavour to identify and harness the expertise of seaward nationals, to maximise diaspora contribution into the home nation (Larner, 2007). Linkages to the home nation create chances to increase available knowledge and technologies to enhance output. Sector growth, rapid advancements in information technology (IT), as an example, have spurred a strong demand for IT professionals to keep up with the expanding use of technology in business, government, health and education (Ankomah & Larson, 2014; Chen, McQueen, & Sun, 2013; Siar, 2014).

Evolving trade liberalisation policies and various innovations in global trading dynamics have also eased the transfer of production activities to more cost-effective locations for transnational companies in which the diaspora plays an integral role (Asmussen, Foss, & Pedersen, 2013). This has made the migration of knowledge more prominent and the movement of skilled labour more pronounced (Baldassar & Pyke, 2014). This view is supported by Tritah (2009)’s study that used 1980, 1990, 2000 and 2006 U.S. micro census data to research the magnitude and nature of European human capital outflow to the United States. His study found that while emigration affects a small number of individuals, the share of Europeans who are leaving is increasing, particularly higher

qualified individuals and ladders of occupations that matter the most in the knowledge economy as nations battle to retain skills in the knowledge economy. Among nations that have executed the diaspora option, is Colombia; it has been the first country to efficiently put this concept into acknowledgment and it is still the most commendable adaptation of the diaspora option (Marks, 2006; Meyer et al., 1996; Meyer et al., 1997).

Diaspora knowledge networks significantly changed the way highly skilled and talented mobility used to be looked at. The traditional “brain drain” has migrated to “brain gain” of expatriates’ skills flow by changing over the loss of human assets into a nation of settlement, to a human resource of networks extended to the home nation (Meyer & Wattiaux, 2006). Closely associated with the net effect of “brain drain” and “brain gain” effects is economic growth (Castles & Miller, 2009). This line of thinking has been vigorously promoted by Siar (2014), suggesting that the inclusiveness of economic growth is a central issue in the development discourse. Growth to be considered inclusive should translate to a better quality of life for all, including the poor (Samet, 2014).

Immigration has consequently culminated in the loss of economic resources of the homeland, through the diaspora option, to be turned into an invaluable external human resources. The option becomes more effective if the homeland has a well-developed diaspora option strategy (Pellerin & Mullings, 2013; Wkapyna, Wkapyna, Shkarupa, & Hovhanesian, 2012).

2.2 Knowledge transfer

Knowledge transfer is a fundamental building block for organisations in value creation (A. K. Gupta & Govindarajan, 2000). Knowledge creation and knowledge transfer, by nature, are strategically vital aspects of an organisation and add to competitiveness (Hamel, 1991; Lee & Yang, 2000; Levin & Cross, 2004; Simonin, 1999). Moreover, Argote and Ingram (2000) stress that the creation and transference of knowledge are essentials in the foundation of an organisation's competitive advantage. Argote and Ingram (2000) further characterise knowledge transfer as a phenomenon in which one unit is impacted by the encounters of the other unit and this happens at an individual level.

There are two perspectives to consider when looking at knowledge transfer; there is internal and external knowledge transfer. Internal knowledge transfer is described as the organisation's ability to share information internally with other functions within the organisation. This study is entrenched on external knowledge transfer, which is explained as the organisation's ability to employ external expertise to promote the organisation's products and processes to others (Blome, Schoenherr, & Eckstein, 2014; Mitchell, 2006; Tsai, 2001). Contemporary perspectives suggest that knowledge transfer is explicit and includes that which is written and formally recorded, whereas tacit knowledge is the informal knowledge transferred through interpersonal methods such as learning by doing, mentoring, problem solving and teamwork (Kuschminder, 2011, 2014). Knowledge transfer is not only focused on knowledge diffusion but also the practical application and use of the knowledge by the receiver (Davenport & Prusak, 1998).

In a multinational organisation set-up, the effectiveness of knowledge transfer from headquarters to the subsidiary is reliant on the willingness and ability of individuals in the subsidiaries to assimilate the knowledge transferred. The vital element influencing the effectiveness of knowledge transfer seems to be the extent of trust. Transferring knowledge can be particularly problematic when the source and recipient do not share common beliefs and perceptions. Knowledge transfer can be barricaded when the knowledge is transferred across different contexts (Asmussen et al., 2013; Fong Boh,

Nguyen, & Xu, 2013; A. K. Gupta & Govindarajan, 2000; S. Gupta, Melewar, & Bourlakis, 2010).

Argote and Ingram (2000) and Keller (2008) distinguish secondary sources of brand knowledge where it is maintained that people assume a critical role in transferring brand knowledge in a person-to-person interface (people refers to employees and endorsers or spokespersons). Organisations are not able to create and transfer knowledge without people; instead furnish individuals with a structure for conception of knowledge (Lee & Yang, 2000).

Keller (2008) further depicts in Figure 2, that, in the secondary sources about brand knowledge, there is an element called Things and this happens through Events, Causes and Third-party endorsements. Third-party endorsements in the contextual framework of the current study would become people with whom endorsers (brand advocates) engage through word-of-mouth. Third-party endorsers have the capacity to convey the same discussion to others regarding a brand.

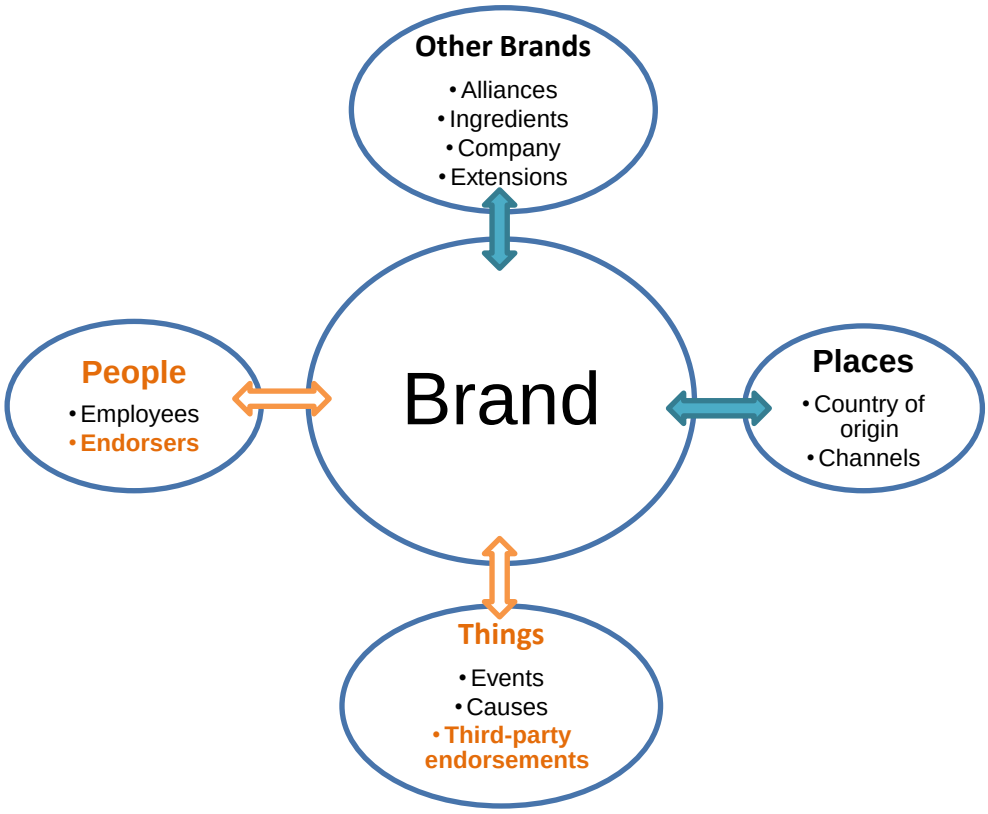

Figure 2: Secondary sources of brand knowledge (Keller, 2008)

In principle, consumers (Third-party endorsers) have the capacity to transfer any feature of brand knowledge from other entities, as demonstrated in Figure 2. The components of brand knowledge enable consumers to connect with the brand (S. Gupta et al., 2010), these components are Awareness, Attributes, Benefits, Images, Thoughts, Feelings, Attitudes and Experiences, radiating from the nation brand; features are transferable through an endorser by word-of-mouth. Ko, Kirsch, and King (2005) maintain that organisations anticipate consultants to have the capacity to transfer knowledge to others (employees and prospective consumers).

Diaspora knowledge transfer

Shain and Barth (2003) define ‘diaspora’ as people who originate from the same nation but who reside in another nation, and they are invited to participate, in one form or another, in the affairs of their homeland.

In the last decade, groups of skilled emigrants originating from Africa and other developing countries out of Africa, scattered in the developed nations and started to create powerful systems among each other and with the homeland (Meyer & Wattiaux, 2006). Emigration of skilled human assets prompts ‘brain-drain’ of the home country (Brown, 2002). Mahroum et al. (2006) add that the emigration of knowledge workers has been seen as a misfortune for the source nations and a net addition for the receiving nations. Dialogues on the economic potential of the diaspora have shifted from ‘brain drain’ or ‘brain gain’ to questions of knowledge and/or technology transfer (Larner, 2007).

Kamei (2011) expresses that developing nations across the globe, have recognized diaspora as noteworthy assets to the improvement of the nation through transfers of knowledge. Kamei (2011) further notes that despite the fact that diaspora left the home nation years back, they still hold a forceful passionate connection and communication framework which has the capacity to improve nation reputation. When consumers convey uplifting character towards a brand, they are more inclined to align to that brand

(Kemp et al., 2012; Schultz & Block, 2012). Doss (2010) states that there is an after-effect of strong brand fulfilment and brand identification.

From a consumer-brand perspective, brand intimacy is categorised as the consumer having a comprehensive knowledge of the brand and the brand having special meaning and connotation to the consumer (Fournier, 1998; Theodhoria & Qiricib, 2014).

2.3 Brand advocacy

Brands consist of both physical and socio-psychological characteristics. Brand connections and relationships can deliver consumers with resources in making buying decisions (Turri, Smith, & Kemp, 2013).

Positive word of mouth

Plenty of research conducted demonstrated that word-of-mouth is one of the most persuasive strategies of communication in the market place. Laczniak, DeCarlo, and Ramaswami (2001) and Allsop, Bassett, and Hoskins (2007) contend that the influential force of word-of-mouth is apparent as it is viewed as a more reliable and credible source than marketer-initiated communication campaigns. Furthermore, Allsop et al. (2007) elaborate that in the period when brand trust is in a deteriorating phase, the persuasive power and impact of word-of-mouth is stronger.

A significant amount of marketing literature revealed that word-of-mouth occurs in two forms, namely; positive word-of-mouth and negative word-of-mouth. Lam, Lee, and Mizerski (2009) acknowledge that word-of-mouth has substantial influence on an organisation's inclination in appealing to new consumers and retaining existing consumers and this is referred to as positive word-of-mouth (De Matos & Rossi, 2008).

While R. Johnston (1998), in an article which investigates the effect of intensity of discontent on complaining consumers' behaviours, takes the view that negative word-of-mouth is impacted chiefly by inferior standards of consumer stratification.

At this point, this study focuses on one element of word-of-mouth – the positive word-of-mouth. Sociologists who identified the crucial role played by opinion leaders acknowledge that word-of-mouth can play a significant role in influencing attitudes and perceptions (Sweeney, Soutar, & Mazzarol, 2005). Consumers who influence other consumers' views are of great importance to the organisation. Positive word-of-mouth conveys a strong influence in inducing a consumer to adopt new products (Gremler, Gwinner, & Brown, 2001). Furthermore, brand evangelism is responsible for a consumer-brand relationship that manifests itself as an expansion of positive consumer-to-consumer word-of-mouth communication (Riivits-Arkonsuo, Kaljund, & Leppiman, 2014; Rogers, 2010).

When a consumer is exposed to high frequency of more word-of-mouth, they are more likely to be influenced (Bansal & Voyer, 2000; Litvin, Goldsmith, & Pan, 2008). Leisen and Prosser (2004) identify conditions that influence word-of-mouth; first, the source of word-of-mouth is a trustworthy third party; second, the experience offered by the source of word-of-mouth can reduce customer uncertainty.

Palmer, Eidson, Haliemun, and Wiewel (2011) illustrated that twenty to fifty per cent of buying decision making is fundamentally made up of positive word-of-mouth as a factor. Palmer et al. (2011) further note that organisations need to make strides towards creating ingredients of positive word-of-mouth and lower elements that result in negative word-of-mouth.

Brand advocacy

Mugobo and Wakeham (2014) hold a view that as a component of the nation branding strategy, the nation should delegate reputable brand champions and brand advocates.

According to Ferris-Costa (2011), a brand advocate is a consumer who campaigns for a brand and acts as an ambassador by eagerly promoting and defending a brand. While most brand advocates do not possess individual influence, when they unite into a community that is aligned to the brand, the community as a whole can have a powerful influence (Sahin & Baloglu, 2014).

Badrinarayanan and Laverie (2011) propose a retail-oriented definition of brand advocacy, as the degree to which the sales force will proactively speak well of a brand to a consumer. Kemp et al. (2012) hold that brand advocacy is an eventual result of well-established and positioned place brands which facilitate resident attachment to a brand.

Rusticus (2006) cites findings published in the Harvard Business Review; the chance for consumers to advocate a brand is directly linked to growth of that business. The study further shows that the findings on brand advocacy were more significant as compared to brand reputation and brand satisfaction in forecasting business growth.

Similar findings were found by Dinnie, Melewar, and Fetscherin (2010)'s study who based a standardised country brand strength index on a company-based brand equity approach. Dinnie et al. (2010)'s study show that the countries with the strongest country brand are smaller, developed countries in Europe. The methodology included an index similar to the widely used Anholt Roper Nation Brand Index (NBI), which measures perceptions of a country brand based on subjective survey data (Anholt, 2006a).

The most convenient way to investigate brand advocacy is through the Brand Advocacy Pyramid (Figure 3) used by Rusticus (2006).

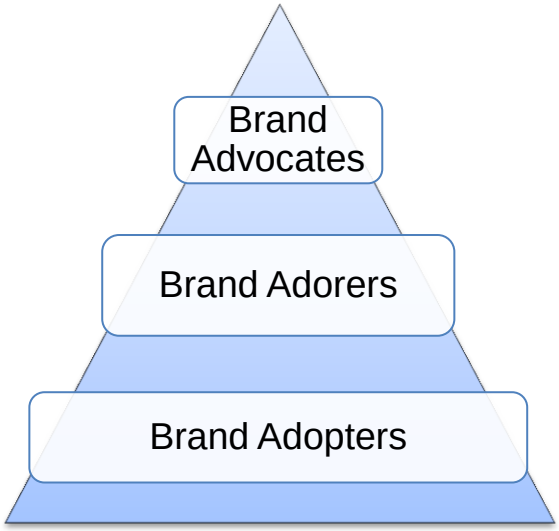

Figure 3: The brand advocacy pyramid (Rusticus, 2006)

The Brand Advocacy Pyramid (Figure 3) illustrates that consumers can be divided into three segments by degree of brand satisfaction and brand experience, namely Brand Adopters, Brand Adorers and ultimately, Brand Advocates. Brand Adopters are at the base of the pyramid, in high numbers; and regular brand users. In the middle of the pyramid are Brand Adopters; consumers who had brand experience and some form of satisfaction with a high degree of affinity and loyalty. Lastly, at the apex of the pyramid, are Brand Advocates, consumers who had high brand experience and high satisfaction (Rusticus, 2006).

Brand Evangelism

Doss and Carstens (2014) examine three critical ideas which constitute the knowledge breadth, which are market maven, opinion leader and brand evangelist.

Figure 4 portrays the breadth of knowledge, beginning with market maven; has the greatest knowledge breadth of the whole market which incorporates a few brands.

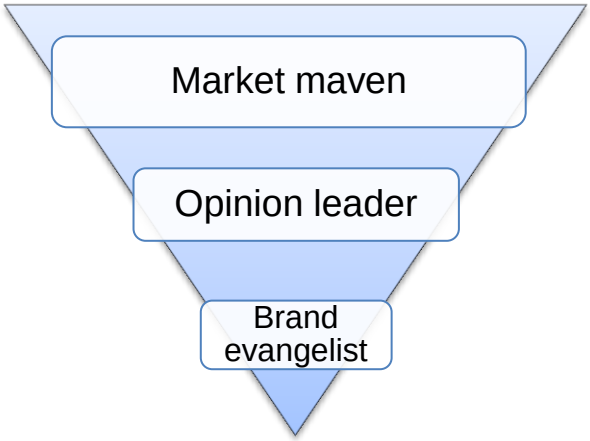

Figure 4: Breadth of knowledge (Doss, 2010)

The knowledge breadth of the market maven (Figure 4) incorporates brand purchasing and consumption behaviour. The second term is opinion leader who has information of a specific segment in the market of various product categories. Ultimately, brand evangelist has knowledge of the market, with a top to bottom information of a brand (Doss, 2010; Doss & Carstens, 2014; Feick & Price, 1987; Flynn, Goldsmith, & Eastman, 1996).

Smilansky (2009) elaborates that brand evangelists convey the character and attributes of a brand; which are brand messages that are also conveyed by conventional marketing efforts to families, friends and communities. Additionally, brand evangelist alludes to a customer that enthusiastically passes positive word-of-mouth, thoughts and perceptions

regarding the brand (Doss & Carstens, 2014). Riivits-Arkonsuo et al. (2014) reinforce the view and summate that brand evangelism is a solid customer-brand relationship that manifests as an expansion of positive customer-to-customer word-of-mouth correspondence.

Becerra and Badrinarayanan (2013) disclose that brand evangelism can be portrayed by three significant practices which are purchase intentions, positive recommendations and brand referrals. Riivits-Arkonsuo et al. (2014) bring out that brand evangelists are dedicated customers who have a compelling enthusiastic association with a brand and spread good brand messages. Doss and Carstens (2014) embrace the same view that a brand evangelist often displays a solid yearning to impact utilisation conduct of a brand or product.

Doss (2010) drove an examination to comprehend the phenomenon of brand evangelism and the dimensions included when customers move to a brand evangelist. The research concluded that consumer-brand identification, brand salience, brand trust, and opinion leadership are contributing factors to brand evangelism. It signifies an extension to positive word-of-mouth communication; furthermore, fulfilled customers are involved in positive word-of-mouth.

Brand evangelism includes a positive passionate association that makes the client tend to impart positive encounters to others. In this manner, brand evangelists may go about as the advocates of the brand with the power to move past word-of-mouth communication, as explained by Doss and Carstens (2014), and De Matos and Rossi (2008). Moreover, existing research asserted that content customers will inform more than 20 others regarding encounters with a particular brand (Becerra & Badrinarayanan, 2013).

Brand evangelists have psychological and emotional commitment to the brand. Brand evangelists have brand-related conduct portrayed by:

- conveying positive information, feelings and perceptions of the brand,
- co-creating the brand image by effectively communicating attributes of the brand to other consumers,

- positively influencing consumer behaviour,
- operating as an unpaid spokesperson on behalf of the brand and
- perceiving unity with the brand (Doss & Carstens, 2014).

In the study conducted by Doss (2014), findings revealed that consumer-brand identification, brand salience, brand trust, and opinion leadership contribute to brand evangelism. However, brand satisfaction did not have a statistically significant relationship with brand evangelism. In the earlier study by De Matos and Rossi (2008), it was argued that satisfied consumers are considered to be involved in positive word-of-mouth behaviour.

Diaspora Advocacy

Diaspora is described as a function of two distinct groups, first group is the “old” Diaspora families, who left Africa over 250 years ago and who identify themselves with the entire region, and secondly the “new” Diaspora, who migrated from Africa in the post-Second World War period. Motivation for migration varies from political, economic, cultural reasons to economic reasons. The latter group maintains a close relationship with the home nation (Bala, 2015; Gandhi, 2002; Legwaila, 2006).

A report (Newland, 2010) which looks at diaspora advocacy, recognises the role played by diasporas in influencing government, media, private sectors, and other groups in both homeland nation and nation of settlement. Newland (2010) additionally portrays diaspora advocates as active participants in diaspora communities with grievances and ambitions (expression of nation identity), are progressively vocal and persuasive in countries of origin and of settlement. Although diasporas are communities that have an active relationship with homeland nations, it is also recognised that not all (diasporas) share a strong bond with the homeland. Diasporas create an influence through imparting the heritage of the homeland nation by means of art, music, films, literature, photography, cuisine and other national attractions (Brinkerhoff, 2012; Cai, 2012; Sweeney et al., 2005).

Terms such as brand evangelists, brand champions, inspirational consumers, brand advocates, brand zealots, volunteer salespeople, customer apostles, and brand ambassadors, as found in marketing literature, are akin in relation of content and connotations (Doss, 2010; Doss & Carstens, 2014)

Survival of a brand is partially centred on its ability to cultivate intimate relationships with consumers (Levin & Cross, 2004; Luhmann & Cross, 2000).

2.4 Deriving hypothesis 1

Review of above literature led to the creation of the first hypothesis.

H1: ***There is a positive relationship that exists between knowledge transfer brand advocacy.***

2.5 Nation brand

2.5.1 *The role of Brand South Africa in branding the nation*

In the magazine release (Brand South Africa, 2013), Brand South Africa clarifies its mandate, as the nation's marketing agency, is to build reputation and perceptions of the nation, both internally and externally, with a specific end goal of improving the nation's global competitiveness (De Kock, 2014).

Then Chief Executive Officer of Brand South Africa, Miller Matola (2013), explains that the organisation was created in 2002 with a directive to develop nation reputation and cohesive, consistent country messaging across all communications to international and domestic audiences. Brand South Africa ensures a dynamic nation brand reputation, and depends enormously on stakeholders for enduring transport of the brand story and messaging of South Africa. The local commitment is in building pride and patriotism amongst South Africans and to help social interconnection and nation brand advocacy.

South Africa is building a coherent nation in the face of an extremely divided national history (Ives, 2007). Nonetheless, the nation is subjected to undesirable affiliations and stigmatisation in view of political incidents and issues that pull in worldwide consideration (Stringari, Oliva, & Estefania, 2014). Consider the case of South Sudan and how that brand was written into existence by international news media (Harengel & Gbadamosi, 2014).

Accordingly, it is significant that South Africa put its weight on nation branding procedures to enhance nation reputation. Ramutsindela (2001) elucidates that nation building is not generally a seamless phenomenon and it is critical for the government to emphasise the building of a rainbow South Africa.

In addition, Fan (2006) communicates that historical underdevelopments of a nation brand exemplify a considerable obstacle, ruining the nation's advancement and change.

At the point when nations have some form of global presence, they are susceptible to stereotyping (O'Shaughnessy & O'Shaughnessy, 2000). Fan (2006) affirms that numerous stereotypes and cultural connotations with respect to a nation that has profound history, will not be simply overlooked by the intended interest group, regardless of any marketing campaigns on which the nation may embark.

Matola (2013) further illuminates that Brand South Africa envisions influence through expanded international competitiveness, enhanced international reputation and improved media reputation. One of the core activities of Brand South Africa is mobilising South Africans living abroad as they assume a noteworthy contribution in elevating the nation brand.

A survey conducted by the Reputation Institute in 2013 found that South Africa's reputation in the eyes of consumers from the G8 countries (France, the United States, the United Kingdom, Russia, Germany, Japan, Italy and Canada) had improved since January 2013 in the wake of the slump of the previous year, following the mining industry distress (ReputationInstitute, 2013).

The South African nation brand needs to be developed through consistent communications and reputation management both domestically and internationally. A nation brand has major impact if there is collaboration amongst stakeholders in creating a distinct, visionary national reputational strategy (Brand South Africa, 2012-2013).

2.5.2 *Nation brand*

Places compete in attracting guests, inhabitants, and organisations. A place with a positive reputation finds it less demanding to strive for consideration, assets, individuals, occupations, and money. A place with a positive reputation builds competitiveness, this implies that places hoping to keep up a solid reputation must consider a comprehensive strategy to implement this (Morgan, Pritchard, & Pride, 2011).

The concept of branding has been previously applied more to corporates than to nations. Compared to reputation, reputation is perceived as a strategic concept centred on the long-term strategic intent of an organisation (Fombrum & Shanley, 1990). Reputation emanates from an organisation's uniqueness and credibility, building actions sustained over a long period of time (Passow, Fehlmann, & Grahlow, 2005). Other perspectives suggest that closely linked to an organisation's or country's uniqueness is the ability to engage in competition (Dinnie et al., 2010). Constant evolution of trading blocks and an increasingly complex and tightly-linked world, not only companies, but also countries, are engaged in competition at every level (Hynes, Caemmerer, Martin, & Masters, 2014).

Nation branding, for example, although the concept is frequently used in marketing literature, focuses primarily on four areas - country of origin (Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2001; Kleppe & Mossberg, 2015; Pisharodi & Parameswaran, 1992; Roth & Romeo, 1992), destination branding (Hankinson, 2005; Morgan & Pritchard, 1998), country image or country-product image (Agarwal & Sikri, 1996; I. M. Martin & Eroglu, 1993; Parameswaran & Yaprak, 1987) and country identity (Keillor, Hult, Erffmeyer, & Babakus, 1996; Keillor & Tomas M. Hult, 1999).

Branding of a nation forms part of Marketing, particularly that of Place Marketing- it is conceptualised from diverse stand points and there are distinct approaches in the literature (Berglund & Olsson, 2010). In the past centuries, nation brands were built through Emperors, Pharaohs, Kings and Queens, by spreading awareness and reputation of the nation brand. Nations with entrenched nation brand reputation export

effortlessly, on new and utilised products. For instance, vehicles from Germany are considerably more appreciated than Asian counterparts (Ahn & Wu, 2013; Djakeli, 2014; Mugobo & Wakeham, 2014).

O'Shaughnessy and O'Shaughnessy (2000) suggest that any nation can be viewed as a brand, it can be considered in the context of compound contemporary and authentic undertones that have relevance in marketing. However, Ahn and Wu (2013) argue that there is an intrinsic complexity in the branding a nation as it is not a real product. Furthermore, a nation may have a multi-faceted reputation; the test gets to be projecting the reputation which effectively speaks to the core qualities of the nation, and it affect how audiences perceive the nation contrasted with other nations (Ashworth & Kavaratzis, 2009; Harrison-Walker, 2011).

Van Ham (2001) observed that the unbranded nation has difficulty pulling in financial and political consideration, and reputation is becoming major part of the nation's strategic equity. Anholt (2006a) and Fan (2010) remarked that a nation with a moderately poor nation brand reputation regularly finds media will respond with distrust to its sure qualities, while the negative meanings are given noticeable quality. South Africa has encountered several publicised issues, for instance, lack of access to fundamental human needs, namely housing and education (Cristea, 2015; Donaldson & Ferreira, 2009).

Kaneva (2011), reviewed 186 scholarly writings on nation branding, and recognises the British practitioner of corporate identity and branding, Wallace 'Wally' Olins to be the 'founding father' of the concept of nation branding. Olins worked for a number of cities and countries with respect to city branding and nation branding. Olins (2002) expresses the rationale for countries to enhance nation brand is to compete for investment, trade and tourism. Knott et al. (2013) noted improved nation brand reputation results in an upsurge of brand equity which subsequently leads to positive consumer behaviour intent, for instance; intention for repeat visitation and positive word-of-mouth.

Anholt Nation Brand Hexagon, which holds tourism, exports, governance, investment and immigration, culture and heritage, and people are the intellectual patrimony of the

nation, consequently building nation competitiveness and nation brand reputation (Anholt, 2006a). Gudjonsson (2005) singles out government as the instigator of nation branding projects.

Nation branding can be viewed as a sentient effort to influence the social imaginary of a nation (Browning, 2013; Taylor, 2002). National branding efforts are geared towards generating global economic benefit (Valaskivi, 2013). Then, the branding challenge is to develop a set of positive associations for the brand, in the same way that corporates, stores and individuals have particular reputations within respective audience; nations likewise can have a brand or reputation within a target audience (Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2001; Rojas-Méndez, Papadopoulos, & Murphy, 2013).

Gudjonsson (2005) and Ashworth (2009) attest that nation branding uses components of branding to shape behaviours, perceptions, personality or reputation of a nation in a productive way. Van Ham (2001) comments that nations brands are being built around reputations and disposition just as corporates do.

Fan (2006) insists that nation branding is an application of branding and communication techniques to advance a nation's reputation. Fan (2006) further alludes to people regarding race and ethnic groups, and famous faces that can be associated with the nation brand. Nuttavuthisit (2007) is of the view that nation branding can be connected to a methodology of creating an international reputation on state and people, yet reputation is reliant on innumerable significant cultural occasions that reform the outer view of the nation.

Fan (2006) accentuates that nation branding's sole objective is to create a clear yet simple and distinct idea, built around emotional qualities that can be denoted both vocally and visually. Marat (2009) ascertains that reputation is primarily strengthened by a nation's businesses and governments, as well as individual citizens who travel internationally.

Nation branding is the aggregate view of a nation in the contemplation of international patrons, which may contain a percentage of components such as; people, place, culture,

dialect, history, food, fashion, famous faces (celebrities) and global brands (W. Tinne, 2015; W. S. Tinne, 2012). Song and Sung (2013), in a study, identified the sum of five crucial antecedents of nation brand personality, that are composed of government competences, people/events, natural features, pop culture and arts/history. It was further noted that antecedents of nation brand personality raises the possibilities of a positive nation brand personality dimension (Rojas-Méndez et al., 2013).

Branding cannot adjust any physical traits of a product; however, it can endeavour to impact the customer's insight. Evaluation of a brand may be based on components such as personal experience, portrayal of the nation through media channels and stereotypes (Fan, 2006; Harengel & Gbadamosi, 2014).

Matiza and Oni (2014) recommended that nation branding is a mechanism that can be applied to fill the gap in perception that currently exist between the nation brand identity and brand reputation. The study conducted by Hosany, Ekinci, and Uysal (2007) found place brand personality positively influences behavioural intentions such as word-of-mouth and brand advocacy. Additionally, the study concluded that host image has a positive impact on perception of destination brand personality.

Sentimental brand image and personality influences the probability of brand advocacy. Distinctiveness and competitiveness of places as tourist destinations is reliant on building unique brand image and identity, providing remarkable brand experiences, creating positive word-of-mouth and brand advocacy (Hudson & Ritchie, 2009; Sahin & Baloglu, 2014).

2.6 Deriving hypothesis 2

Review of above literature led to the creation of hypothesis 2.

H2: Knowledge transfer and brand advocacy positively influence nation brand reputation.

2.7 Conclusion of Literature Review

The literature review has brought different perspectives with respect to different modes that can be employed for knowledge transfer to take place. Leading from this, the effective modes relevant to different settings and environments were highlighted.

A diverse array of literature discussed different views and concepts which lead to advocacy. The application of discussed concepts varies in different environments. It is important to note from literature that advocacy is the ultimate result emanating from the ground work employed by a nation or organisation.

Lastly, the role of Brand South Africa was discussed and it was mentioned that it is mandated to build a South Africa nation brand. Certain drivers of nation brand concept were reviewed as well as nation reputation. The outcome of the literature review was a composite of two hypotheses which are listed as follows:

2.7.1 *Hypothesis 1:*

H_1: There is a positive relationship that exists between knowledge transfer brand advocacy.

2.7.2 *Hypothesis 2:*

H_2: Knowledge transfer and brand advocacy positively influence nation brand reputation.

CHAPTER 3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This section is introduced through depictions of proposed methods and inferences of such methods for the research. This is followed by discussions on research design, sampling methodology, research gathering instruments, data analysis processes and techniques. Lastly, limitations to the study, validity and reliability considerations are reviewed.

3.1 Research methodology / paradigm

Research methodology refers to the method used to implement the research process (Joseph F Hair, Bush, & Ortinau, 2008). This has an impact on the exactness, reliability and outcomes of the research.

The purpose of this research strategy was to uncover the nature of the relationships between the variables as identified in Figure 1. More specifically, the strategy sought to understand the influence of knowledge transfer and brand advocacy on nation brand reputation of the South African diaspora. A quantitative research method was used for this research.

The literature review resulted in two hypotheses being formulated. Variables of the study are quantifiable on an instrument, data was collected and analysed using appropriate statistical techniques. Thus, the study utilises a quantitative exploration approach (Cresswell, 2009).

The study fits in with an ideal model characterised by (Cresswell, 2009) as the basic arrangement of principles that will co-ordinate progression of the study. The postpositivism paradigm (Cresswell, 2009) grasps a deterministic reasoning where causes are potential determinants of outcomes. Postpositivism fuses the reductionist

impact where the study derive variables (knowledge transfer, advocacy and nation brand reputation) that make up the hypotheses. Information and results acquired will provide a view of objective reality of perceptions of South Africans living abroad (Creswell, 2009).

3.2 Research Design

The research design may be described as the strategic framework for action that serves as a channel between the research question/s and research implementation (Durrheim, Painter, Martin, & Blanche, 2006). Quantitative research has many more study design types as opposed to qualitative research and is precise, well-structured, has been verified for its validity and reliability, and can be unequivocally characterised and recognised (Kumar, 2011). As indicated by Hair, Bush, and Ortinau (2003), survey technique is utilised to gather volumes of raw data received from respondents. Kolb (2008) emphasises that a set of predetermined questions will be asked. Wiid and Diggines (2009) concur with previous authors, adding that the survey will allow the provision of numeric account of trends, attitudes, or opinions.

Cooper, Schindler, and Sun (2006) maintain that there are numerous types of research designs namely; experimental, cross-sectional, longitudinal and case study designs.

Cross-sectional research design involves the study of a specific topic at a particular point in time, also referred to as a one-shot case (Burns & Bush, 2000; Collis et al., 2003). Data are typically collected from multiple groups of people, at only one period in time and allow the researcher to explain the relationships between variables (Hair et al., 2008). This research study lends itself to cross-sectional design, since data were collected from South Africans living abroad, with varying experience and opinions at one point in time. The study sought to collect data about the impact of people living outside South Africa, i.e. South African diaspora and nation branding and hence this problem that has occurred in the past was investigated.

Other research designs considered were longitudinal and experimental. Longitudinal design involves studying the population sample on multiple occasions, at regular intervals, to determine a pattern of change in relation to time (Kumar, 2011). Experimental design serves to understand the cause and effect relationship between variables, achieved by using two separate population groups, a control group and an experimental group. The researcher applies the independent variable condition onto the experimental group only and measures the dependent variable across the two groups (Hair et al., 2008). For the purpose of this research study, both designs were not viable due to time constraints and practical implementation of the study.

Quantitative research methods start with a progression of pre-set classifcations which are embodied in standardised quantitative measures, and utilise information to make extensive and generalizable evaluations (Durrheim et al., 2006). The instrument used was designed on the basis of including appropriate variables that were quantifiable and measurable with statistical techniques. At the core of quantitative research is the study of relationships between different variables (W. E. Martin & Bridgmon, 2012). Thus, the study utilises a quantitative exploration approach (Creswell, 2009).

The methodological approach of the research takes the form of survey design. As indicated by Hair et al. (2003), survey technique is utilised to gather volumes of raw data received from respondents. Kolb (2008) expands that a set of predetermined questions will be asked. Wiid and Diggines (2009) concur with previous authors, adding that the survey will allow the provision of numeric accounts of trends, attitudes, or opinions.

The methodology bolsters the present research as it has the capability to suit large sample sizes. A variety of questions were posed to respondents, then administered, recorded and analysed using advanced statistical analysis procedures. The research explored relationships that are not directly quantifiable and observable, survey method made it possible to analyse relationships (Hair et al., 2003).

Figure 4 indicates the research process that was followed. The process included research context, sampling criteria, designing the research instrument, conducting pilot tests in order to adjust for refinements and misunderstanding of the questionnaire, the survey, as well as where the sample was obtained and the statistical procedures used to analyse the data.

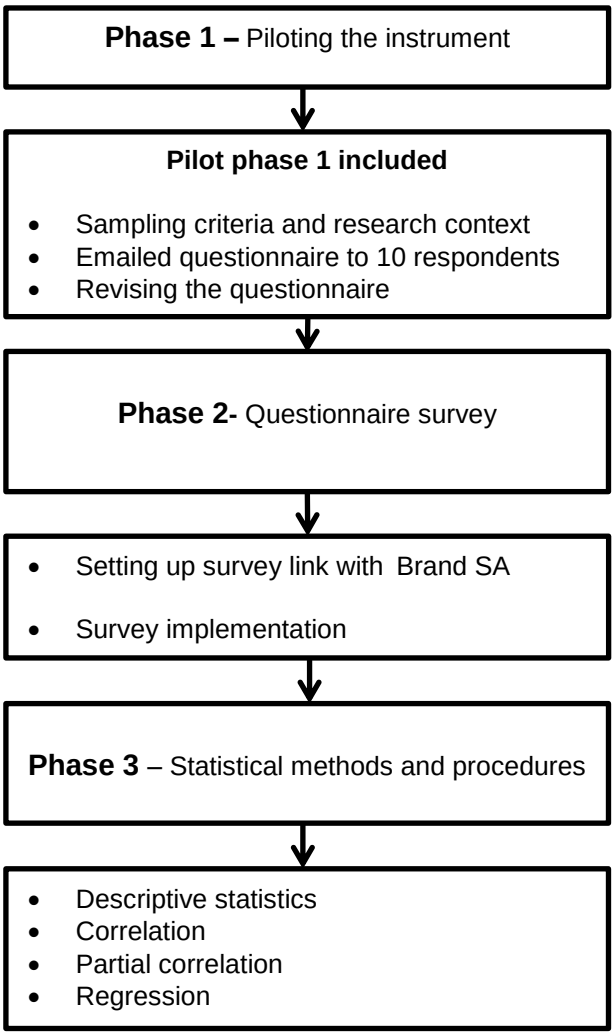

Figure 5: Research process

While the above method seemed valuable for the current study, it was not without faults and limitations. Incongruent treatment of survey instruments, when adapting and developing questionnaire, may render the results inaccurate. There is a probability of an increase in systematic errors, and this raises the possibility of assembling inappropriate data. The quantitative approach utilising the survey method employed can impede

extensive probing due to lack of open-ended questions (W. Turner et al., 2003). Consequently, data may have a deficiency of depth in addressing research problems and hypotheses.

In order to address the research hypotheses in this study, a structured close-ended questionnaire was adopted from previous studies (A. K. Gupta & Govindarajan, 2000). The last question of the instrument was an open-ended question to allow the researcher to capture factors which may be important to the study.

The first section and last section of the instrument was composed of questions addressing demographic data, while the mid-section addressed perceptions of respondents. Data collection was facilitated by means of an online survey as it fitted well with main objectives of the research. The research did not have an interface or direct link with respondents. Communication with the survey population was made up of South Africans living abroad and was facilitated by Brand South Africa; the survey link was circulated to respondents.

The survey remained open for completion for a period of 14 weeks and was purely voluntary. There were no reminders; however survey link as embedded in each monthly newsletter until survey closing date.

3.3 Population and sample

3.3.1 *Population*

The population examined in this research comprised South Africans living abroad and listed in Brand South Africa database. The demographic profile of the associated population is comprised of people from various race groups, income levels, age groups, educational qualifications and coming from different continents.

3.3.2 *Sample and sampling method*

In order to generalise the study's research findings from a sample to its population, it is important that a representative sample is selected (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Two primary sampling methods are available: probability sampling and non-probability sampling. Rubin and Bellamy (2012) explain that probability sampling is favoured since it is the most effective way of ensuring that a representative sample of the desired population is selected. With probability sampling, respondents are randomly chosen, conveying an equal chance of selection to the population (Adams, Khan, Raeside, & White, 2007). Probability sampling is comprised of the following subtypes:

- Simple random sampling
- Systematic sampling
- Stratified random sampling
- Cluster sampling

Purposive sampling was used to select key informants (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Kothari (2004) and Bryman and Bell (2015) define this kind of sampling for a specific purpose, with the subjects sampled being relevant to the research question and able to yield information about the research topic covered in the study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). For this study, it was not possible to interview all the respondents who are living abroad.

Although probability sampling is generally for quantitative analysis (Uprichard, 2013), the sample selection was based on non-probability sampling methods. This was acknowledged through purposive sampling technique, also called judgment sampling, as the deliberate choice of the respondents due to the qualities the respondents possess (Johnston & Sabin, 2010).

Purposive sampling technique does not require primary anchoring theories, the researcher resolves on what needs to be known and sets out to find people who can and are willing to make available information by virtue of knowledge or experience (Guarte & Barrios, 2006; Malhotra & Birks, 2007; Tongco, 2007).

Brand South Africa has gathered a database of almost all South Africans living abroad across all continents. Due to hindrances owing to confidentiality and the protection of private information assertion between Brand SA and prospective respondents, Brand SA would not wholly grant access to the entire or subset of the database to the researcher. However, Brand SA proposed an “opt in approach” where the survey link was emailed to Brand South Africa’s country managers to embed the survey link in the monthly newsletter that is disseminated to prospective respondents (Appendix A1 and A2). It was estimated that 250 responses would be collected, however only 132 responses were received.

Respondents have certain mutually exclusive features, in which variables are continent, educational level, age and gender, and variables correlate with key variables of the study (Ullah, Shabbir, Hussain, & Al-Zahrani, 2014).

3.3.3 *Sample size*

Bryman and Bell (2015) and Hair et al. (2008) explain that it is important to consider the following when determining a sample size (shown in table 1):

- Population size
- Confidence interval or degree of accuracy with which to estimate the population parameters
- Confidence level at which the hypotheses will be tested
- Standard deviation or estimated level of variation in responses

Table 1: Determining sample size

Variable	Value
Population size	512,518 (Brand SA list)
Confidence interval	+/- 5%
Confidence level	90% (Z value of 1.645)
Standard deviation	0.5

Adams et al. (2007) cite the following equation when calculating the population size for hypothesis testing of population means:

$$n_o = Z^2_{\propto\frac{}{2}} \frac{(SD)^2}{d^2}$$

where:

- n_o = sample size,
- $Z^2_{\propto/2}$ = standardised normal value, 1.645 taken for a 90% confidence level
- SD = standard deviation, which according to Adams et al. (2007) can be guessed
- d = confidence interval

Substituting the values from Table 1 into the above equation, the required sample size for this study is 271(Kotrlik & Higgins, 2001).

3.3.4 *Response rate*

Survey response rate is calculated as follows (Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2010; Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2012):

$$\textbf{Response rate } [\%] = \frac{\text{number of usable questionnaires} \times 100}{\text{Total sample} - \text{unusable questionnaires or unreachable participants}}$$

Punch (2003) and Baruch and Holtom (2008) have suggested that a response rate of 60% is acceptable. Using this as the guideline, it was required that the survey be rolled out to 250 respondents within the identified population. In order to achieve this optimistic response rate, Punch (2003) emphasises the importance of planning, notification and access to respondents, consistent follow-up contact and a well-structured questionnaire (Sax, Gilmartin, & Bryant, 2003). With substantial funding, it is possible to incentivise the sample to complete the survey. Unfortunately this was not possible with funding constraints. Consequently, due to time and resource challenges, only 92 usable responses were obtained via the snowball sampling method, with 48 responses received from the consolidated mailing list, eight of which were unusable, leaving 132 usable responses in total. The effective response rate was thus 55% (132 / (250-8)).

3.4 The research instrument

In order to address the research hypotheses in this study, a structured close-ended questionnaire was adopted from previous research in the same field and adapted for the current study (Appendix B) (Turner et al., 2003). The preliminary version of the questionnaire was sent to respondents for trial and to assess the validity and reliability of the questionnaire. Then, the preliminary version was modified to produce the final version of the instrument; it was made up of Questions 1 to 14 of Appendix B.

3.4.1 *Operationalisation of the variables*

Knowledge transfer

Knowledge transfer as a variable in this study constitutes an independent variable that measures the extent of knowledge transfer. Adapting from various authors (Blome et al., 2014; Fong Boh et al., 2013; A. K. Gupta & Govindarajan, 2000; Teo & Bhattacherjee, 2014; Trippl, 2013), the following items were used to measure knowledge transfer; knowledge breadth, effort to find new information and effort and ability to share knowledge. Question 7 dealt with brand knowledge, question 10a positive knowledge transfer, question 10b effort for knowledge transfer, question 10c. seeking brand knowledge and question 10d. knowledge breadth.

Brand advocacy

The variable constitutes an independent variable in the study that measures if respondents may be brand advocates for South Africa. Adapting from earlier research (A. K. Gupta & Govindarajan, 2000; Leisen & Prosser, 2004; Maxham III, 2001; Maxham III & Netemeyer, 2002; Teo & Bhattacherjee, 2014), the following items were used to quantify brand advocacy; frequency of WOM, brand referrals, brand recommendations, believability of WOM, diaspora advocacy, brand association and ability to change perceptions. Question 8 Frequency word-of-mouth, question 14a Positive Word of Mouth, question 14b Positive brand recommendation, question 14c Shift perceptions, question 15. Believability of PWOM, question 16. Positive brand association, question 17. Diaspora advocacy and question 19. Brand referrals deal with brand advocacy.

Nation brand

The construct constitutes a dependent variable in the study that measures respondents' perceptions and inclination towards South Africa. Adopting from authors (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006; Hosany et al., 2007; Hudson & Ritchie, 2009), the questions that addressed nation brand variable utilised a five point Likert Scale, except for Question 19 which tested frequency. Question 4a SA Nation Brand reputation, question 4b. SA Nation brand image, question 20. SA nation brand image, question 22. SA nation brand identity and question 23 SA nation brand visibility deal with nation branding.

Email communication explaining the research and its purpose was sent to Brand South's country managers and is appended in Appendix A, including the survey link. The instrument was made up of 27 questions. Question 1 to 3 and questions 24 to 26 captured demographic data about the sample population - gender, age, educational levels, continent, reasons for leaving and number of years living abroad.

The instrument was made up of 27 questions. Question 1 to 3 and questions 24 to 26 captured demographic data about the sample population whereas questions 4 to 23 captured data to address the two hypotheses. These questions were completed by all respondents who participated. Lastly, Question 27 was an open-ended question which permitted free text, not all respondents captured comments. There was no incentive for respondents who completing the survey.

The majority of questions in the instrument are fashioned in line with the Likert Scale. The Likert Scale is a one-dimensional scaling method, used when the object of the instrument is to indicate the degree of agreement or disagreement (Hair et al., 2003). With the end goal of accomplishing validity on data, the Likert Scale was developed with 5 points (Jamieson, 2004). The middle neutral class is included so that all respondents can still answer a question even if they are unsure or not keen to respond – this broadens the scope of validity.

3.5 Procedure for data collection

Data collection is of critical importance in providing thorough understanding of the theoretical framework that underpins the research (Treiman, 2014). It is imperative that sound judgement is exercised when selecting the manner of data collection.

Adams et al. (2007) explain the prominence of the data collection method in the research design emphasising that effective data collection allows for the research question to be answered adequately. Primary and secondary data collection methods were used for this research. Secondary data refers to previously recorded information, such as that contained in theses, journals, reports and so on. The primary data collection method used for this research was the survey method, which underpins quantitative research and enables hypothesis testing. It is the most widely used method of data collection in business and management research.

Buckingham and Saunders (2004) justify the use of the survey method for this research approach where a survey may be designed to investigate a cause–effect relationship. The survey method was chosen for this study as the purpose was to investigate the relationships between the variables identified. The survey method involves gathering data relating to the demographic characteristics, social factors, opinions and attitudes of some group of people (Cherry, Davis, Mantzourani, & Whitelaw, 1991).

Data collection is very important in order to derive a thorough understanding of theoretical framework that underpins the research (Treiman, 2014). The correct method is of utmost importance when selecting the manner of data collection. Adams et al. (2007) explain that surveys can be administered in several ways as follows:

- Traditional mail
- Face to face interviews
- Telephone
- Online: email or website

The online method was initially identified as the only method to be used to administer the surveys for this research, since it is relatively inexpensive and more convenient in terms of data capturing and accessing the target population (Couper & Miller, 2008). However, the researcher experienced severe limitations in so far as the envisaged response rate was concerned. In hindsight perhaps the response rate could have been enhanced by incorporating telephonic research.

In order to determine if the survey was unambiguous, understandable and convenient to complete, the first version of the survey was piloted to a few respondents. These respondents all agreed that the survey was appropriate, speedy and fairly unambiguous. There were, however, recommendations to reword a few questions that appeared ambiguous and difficult to accurately answer. These changes were incorporated into the final version that was administered to the sample population.

Prior to data collection, the researcher received permission and endorsement from Brand South Africa. Brand South Africa distributed the online survey to South Africans living abroad in the monthly electronic newsletter communication.

The data analysis process encompassed preparing raw data collected from Qualtrics Software, in a CSV file format. The data analysis in this study was carried out using IBM SPSS statistics software.

To establish the primary elements of the study variables, responses collected from the survey have been analysed using the embedded tool from Qualtrics Survey Software to report demographic data.

Prior to data collection, the researcher received permission and endorsement from Brand South Africa. Brand South Africa distributed the online survey to South Africans living abroad in the monthly electronic newsletter communication.

3.6 Data analysis and interpretation

The descriptive statistics included means, ranges and standard deviation. These measures were used as measures of central tendency and measures of dispersion. Measures of central tendency provided information about the most typical or average values of a variable. The mean is defined as the sum of a sequence of observations divided by the number of observations in the series. It is commonly used to describe the central tendency of variables. Measures of dispersion provide information about the distribution of the values of a variable. They indicate how widely values were dispersed around their measures of central tendency. The standard deviation was a measure of dispersion calculated on the basis on the values of the data. It indicated how widely the data were dispersed around the mean (Burns & Bush, 2000; J.F. Hair et al., 2003; Hozo, Djulbegovic, & Hozo, 2005). The standard deviation parameter implied that when the data were normally distributed, 68.3 % of the observations lie within +/- 1 standard deviation from the mean, 95.4% within +/- 2 standard deviations from the mean and 99.7 % within 3 standard deviations from the mean.

I. Ullah (2010) describe the first phase of quantitative data analysis as a preparatory stage where the raw data (unordered, including errors and missing data) contained in each of the received questionnaires are extracted into a database and subsequently subjected to the coding and cleaning processes (Durrheim et al., 2006). The survey was administered primarily via a survey link. Once the survey was closed, the primary data was extracted from Qualtrics and exported to Microsoft Excel.

Hypothesis 1 relates to testing the relationship between knowledge transfer and brand advocacy. Correlation was used to determine the strength of the relationship. Similarly correlation was used for hypothesis 2 and entailed examining the relationship between brand advocacy and nation branding. Correlation is a statistical technique that can show whether and how strongly pairs of variables are related. Correlation is a bivariate measure of association (strength) of the relationship between two variables (Bland & Altman, 2003; Joseph F Hair, 2010; Jackson, 2015).

Correlation varies from 0 (random relationship) to 1 (perfect linear relationship) or -1 (perfect negative linear relationship). It is usually reported in terms of its square (r2), interpreted as percentage of variance explained. For instance, if r2 is .25, then the independent variable is said to explain 25% of the variance in the dependent variable (Joseph F Hair et al., 2008). The Bivariate Correlations procedure was used in this study which essentially computes Pearson's correlation coefficient with their significance levels. Correlations measure how variables or rank orders are related. Before calculating a correlation coefficient, the data was screened for outliers (which could cause misleading results) and evidence of a linear relationship. Pearson's correlation coefficient is a measure of linear association. Two variables can be perfectly related, but if the relationship is not linear, Pearson's correlation coefficient is not an appropriate statistic for measuring their association (Joseph F Hair, 2010; Joseph F Hair et al., 2008).

Mediation was used as the next round of analysis as shown in Figure 6. The aim of the mediation model was to identify and explain the mechanism that underlies an observed relationship between an independent and a dependent variable via a third explanatory variable, known as a mediator variable. A mediational model hypothesises that the independent variable causes the mediator variable, which in turn causes the dependent variable (MacKinnon, 2008).

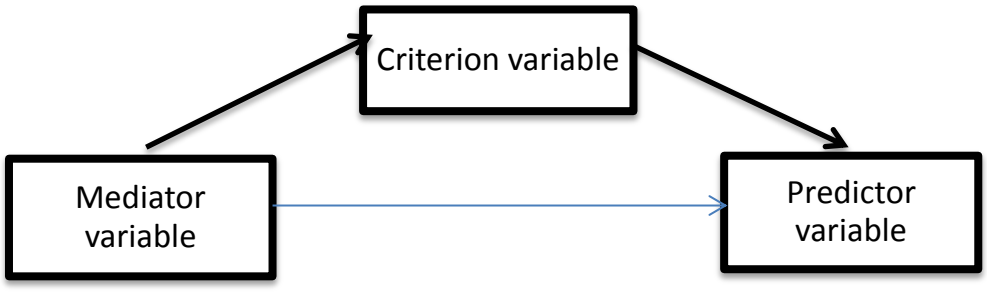

Figure 6: Mediation Model

The mediator variable, then, serves to clarify the nature of the relationship between the independent (nation brand) and dependent variables (knowledge transfer and brand advocacy) (MacKinnon, Cheong, & Pirlott, 2012; Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

The next statistical technique used included the use of partial correlation. The Partial Correlations procedure computes partial correlation coefficients that describe the linear relationship between two variables while controlling for the effects of one or more additional variables. Correlations are measures of linear association. Two variables can be perfectly related, but if the relationship is not linear, a correlation coefficient is not an appropriate statistic for measuring their association (Algina & Olejnik, 2003; Joseph F Hair et al., 2008; Kurowicka & Cooke, 2006).

The next round of analysis involved the use of linear regression. Linear regression is a type of technique used to explore relationships between dependent and independent relationships. Linear regression is used for more sophisticated exploration of the interrelationship among a set of variables. Linear regression also provided information relating to the overall regression model and included the contribution of each variable that made up the model. Linear regression was used to control for the additional variables when examining the predictive ability of the model (Harrell, 2015; Montgomery, Peck, & Vining, 2015).

Regression analysis is one of the most frequently used tools in market research. In its simplest form, regression analysis will allow the researcher to analyse relationships between one independent and one dependent variable (Joseph F Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006; Joseph F Hair et al., 2008). Regression analysis will allow the researcher to:

- Indicate if independent variables have a significant relationship with a dependent variable.
- Indicate the relative strength of different independent variables' effects on a dependent variable.

3.7 Research Criteria

Research validity and reliability is a pivotal segment of any research conducted, ensuring that the research question is appropriately answered by the data. The mechanism that was employed to ensure these aspects are determined is discussed in the sections below.

Some questions in the instrument aimed at extracting perceptions of respondents. Controversy exists concerning ability to generalise results from perception-based studies, since perceptions are highly dynamic. Respondents of the study are not randomly selected, and are not a correct representation of the population of South African living abroad. As a result, external validity was not achieved.

3.7.1 *Validity*

The content validity refers to the extent to which the research instrument provides adequate coverage of the topic under study (Joseph F Hair, 2010). The purpose of considering validity is to ensure that the conceptual definition of a construct corresponds to the attribute being measured, and that the operational definition corresponds to the conceptual definition (Cooper et al., 2006; Durrheim et al., 2006; Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008).

Internal validity tests if a causal relationship is justifiable between the constructs or variables being measured, whilst external validity refers to the generalisability of a study to its population (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008). The latter is evaluated on distinct aspects of the research methodology, including the sampling technique.

In quantitative research, there are three methods to assess validity as follows:

a) Face and content validity

Face validity refers to the existence of a logical link between each question on the research instrument and the associated research objective, whilst content validity refers to the research instrument covering the full range of the issues or attitudes being measured (Cooper et al., 2006). Rubin and Bellamy (2012) refer to this as the weakest form of validity testing.

b) Concurrent and predictive validity

The former alludes to a manner in which an instrument contrasts with a second assessment concurrently done, whilst the latter refers to how accurately an instrument can predict a result (Kumar, 2011).

c) Construct validity

This is a more complex method of establishing validity, assessing if the questions in the research instrument relate to the underlying theoretical concepts (Kumar, 2011). Construct validity comprises several components including, among others, face and content validity and convergent validity (WG Zikmund et al., 2010; William Zikmund et al., 2012). Convergent validity tests if all concepts that should be related are in fact related to one another, as measured by the statistical significance of the relevant correlation coefficient. This type of validity is tested via statistical methods, including correlation testing and confirmatory factor analysis.

Apart from establishing face and content validity of the research instrument, the researcher also assessed the research for convergent validity. Firstly, the pre-existing measurement scales used for this research, as adapted from Ambulkar, Blackhurst, and

Grawe (2015), have already been subject to extensive validity tests employing, amongst others, construct validity testing using confirmatory and exploratory factor analysis. Furthermore, a confirmatory factor analysis was run on the final data for this research in order to establish convergent validity for each of the construct scales. As Rubin and Bellamy (2012) explain, construct validity is the most significant form of validity testing, providing a high confidence level in the ability of the research instrument to accurately measure the required variables.

3.7.2 *Reliability*

Reliability refers to the dependability, predictability and consistency of a research instrument in ensuring that results are repeatable (Burns & Bush, 2000; Joseph F Hair et al., 2008). Kumar (2011) asserts that some of the factors influencing reliability include the ambiguity or wording of the survey questions and the respondent's mood at the time of answering the survey.

Durrheim et al. (2006) explain that two sources of error, namely, random error and systematic error, can affect the reliability of research results. Random error is incurred due to random disturbances in the performance measure or inconsistent responses from respondents and are not as problematic as systematic error, which is due to an inherent flaw in the measurement system, such as an ambiguous questions to measure an attribute (Malhotra & Birks, 2007; Meacham et al., 2011). Furthermore, it is explained that systematic error can be reduced by cautious measurement design.

The reliability of the construct measurements used in this research was tested for internal consistency using the Cronbach's alpha statistic, the results of which are discussed in the next chapter. This is a widely used measure of reliability and tests the correlation between the construct measurement scales, indicating how reliable they are (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008; Rubin & Bellamy, 2012).

All aspects of the research instrument were pre-tested, including individual question content, wording, arrangement, structure and format to ensure that questions were not unclear, biased or ambiguous.

3.10 Limitations of the study

- Only respondents with strong opinions and sentiments participated in the survey, this might have resulted in biasness.
- Respondents self-selected themselves, the researcher had no control
- There was a very short time period to gather more responses
- Inability to send reminders to prospective respondents
- Correlation does not completely tell us everything about the data. Means and standard deviations continue to be important.
- The data may be described by a curve more complicated than a straight line, but this will not show up in the calculation of r
- Outliers strongly influence the correlation coefficient. If we see any outliers in our data, we should be careful about what conclusions we draw from the value of r.
- Just because two sets of data are correlated, it does not mean that one is the cause of the other.

3.11 Validity and reliability

Research validity and reliability is a pivotal segment of any research conducted. The mechanism employed to ensure these aspects are determined is discussed in the following sections.

3.11.1 External validity

Some questions in the instrument aimed at extracting perceptions of respondents. Controversy exists concerning the ability to generalise results from perception-based study, since perceptions are highly dynamic. Respondents of the study are not randomly selected, and are not a correct representation of the population of South African living abroad. As a result, external validity was not achieved (Malhotra & Birks, 2007).

3.11.2 Internal validity

The content validity refers to the extent to which the research instrument provides adequate coverage of the topic under study (Joseph F Hair, 2010). The research instrument questionnaire was obtained from literature review and adoptions from previous studies (W. Turner et al., 2003) relating to knowledge transfer, advocacy and nation brand reputation. All aspects of the research instrument were pre-tested including individual question content, wording, arrangement, structure and format to ensure that questions were not unclear, biased or ambiguous.

3.11.3 Reliability

Data reliability was assessed using Cronbasch Alpha, which is a measure of internal consistency. A Cronbach Alpha of at least 0.5 for each construct is considered to be adequately reliable (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). The results of reliability are shown below, constructs have satisfactory Cronbach Alpha which indicates acceptable level of internal consistency.

Reliability refers to the dependability, predictability and consistency of a research instrument in ensuring that results are repeatable (Collis et al., 2003). Malhotra and Birks (2007) assert that some of the factors influencing reliability include the ambiguity or wording of the survey questions and the respondent's mood at the time of answering the survey.

The reliability of the construct measurements used in this research was tested for internal consistency using the Cronbach's alpha statistic (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011), the results of which are discussed below. This is a widely used measure of reliability and tests the correlation between the construct measurement scales, indicating how reliable they are (Rubin & Bellamy, 2012).

Table 2: Reliability Statistics (nation branding)

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0,889	9

Table 3: Intraclass Correlation Coefficient (nation branding)

	Intraclass Correlation(a)	95% Confidence Interval		F Test with True Value 0			
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Value	df1	df2	Sig
Single Measures	0,470(b)	0,400	0,547	8,985	124,0	992	0,000
Average Measures	0,889(c)	0,857	0,916	8,985	124,0	992	0,000

Two-way mixed effects model where people effects are random and measures effects are fixed.

a. Type C intraclass correlation coefficients using a consistency definition-the between-measure variance is excluded from the denominator variance.

b. The estimator is the same, whether the interaction effect is present or not.

c. This estimate is computed assuming the interaction effect is absent, because it is not estimable otherwise.

Nation branding consisted of nine constructs and showed a high level of reliability (r = 0, 89) reflected in Table 2. The measure is highly reliable and has an interval between 86% and 92% at the 95% confidence interval (Table 3).

Table 4: Reliability Statistics (knowledge transfer)

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0,882	5

Table 5: Intraclass Correlation Coefficient (knowledge transfer)

	Intraclass Correlation (a)	95% Confidence Interval		F Test with True Value 0			
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Value	df1	df2	Sig
Single Measures	,598(b)	,523	,672	8,451	127,0	508	,000
Average Measures	,882(c)	,846	,911	8,451	127,0	508	,000

Two-way mixed effects model where people effects are random and measures effects are fixed.

a. Type C intraclass correlation coefficients using a consistency definition-the between-measure variance is excluded from the denominator variance.

b. The estimator is the same, whether the interaction effect is present or not.

c. This estimate is computed assuming the interaction effect is absent, because it is not estimable otherwise.

Knowledge transfer consisted of five items and the measure was highly reliable (r = 0, 88) reflected in Table 4. Intraclass coefficient shows an interval between 85% and 91% at the 95% confidence interval indicating high reliability (Table 5).

Table 6: Reliability Statistics (brand advocacy)

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0,933	8

Table 7: Intraclass Correlation Coefficient (brand advocacy)

	Intraclass Correlation(a)	95% Confidence Interval		F Test with True Value 0			
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Value	df1	df2	Sig
Single Measures	0,633(b)	0,569	0,699	14,825	128,0	896	0,000
Average Measures	0,933(c)	0,913	0,949	14,825	128,0	896	0,000

Two-way mixed effects model where people effects are random and measures effects are fixed.

a. Type C intraclass correlation coefficients using a consistency definition-the between-measure variance is excluded from the denominator variance.

b. The estimator is the same, whether the interaction effect is present or not.

c. This estimate is computed assuming the interaction effect is absent, because it is not estimable otherwise.

Brand advocacy consisted of eight items and showed high reliability (r = 0, 93) reflected in Table 6. The intraclass coefficient was between 91% and 95% confirming a high reliability value (Table 7).

CHAPTER 4. REPRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter brings the presentation of results derived from the online survey. Respondents are South Africans living abroad; a total of 132 responses were received from the targeted 250 respondents. The responses collected from the survey have been analysed using an embedded tool from Qualtrics Survey Software and SPSS. Tables and graphs are presented that summarise the responses in relation to the key variables examined in the study. This chapter focuses on the research process followed – designing the questionnaire, piloting the questionnaire, survey process, data analysis using descriptive statistics, correlation, partial correlation/mediation and hierarchical regression.

4.2 Demographic profile of respondents

The study has been targeted for 250 potential participants (South Africans living abroad) across all continents of the world. However, only 132 participants completed the survey within a defined time frame. Table 8 gives a summary of the demographic profile of the respondents. All demographic factors outlined in Table 8 are discussed below.

Table 8: Demographic profile of respondents

Demographic variable		N	%
Gender			
	Male	69	52
	Female	59	45
Age category	18-24	14	11
	25-35	42	32
	36-45	50	38
	46-60	18	14
	60+	6	5
Education	High school	10	7
	Diploma	14	11
	Degree	54	41
	Postgraduate	53	40
Continent	Africa	15	11
	Europe	18	14
	Asia	14	11
	Australia	26	20
	North America	19	14
	South America	19	14
	Antarctica	20	15
Reasons for living abroad	Educational	32	25
	Economical	26	20
	Political	26	20
	Others	25	19
	A mix of reasons	21	16
Years abroad	Less than 5 years	56	42
	More than 5 years	73	55

Gender

Out of 132 respondents, only 128 respondents answered the question regarding gender. The survey respondents are composed primarily of males, accounting for 52 percent and females 45 percent.

Age

Total number of responses received is 132; number of participants who responded to the question is 130. It seems that the majority of respondents are between age brackets 36 to 45, which accounts for 38 percent and followed by 25 to 35 which makes 32 percent.

Education

Only 131 out of 132 answered this question. Most of the South Africans living abroad who participated in the survey, 41 percent has a degree followed by 40 percent of respondents that have a postgraduate qualification. Seven percent of the sample had basic schooling and this represented the smallest category.

Continent

Out of 132 participants, 130 answered this question. Majority of South Africans are based in Australia, accounting for 20 percent of the sample. Interestingly 15 percent of the respondents indicated that they live in Antarctica. The smallest group in the sample lived in either Asia (11%) or in Africa (11%).

Reason for living abroad

There are various reasons contributing to South Africans residing abroad. Total number of responses received is 132; number of participants who responded to the question is 130. Most of respondents left South Africa for educational reasons which make up 25 percent of the sample. The second highest category was represented by people who left the country for economic (20%) or political reasons (20%).

Number of years living abroad

From total 132 participants, 129 responded to this question. The results show that 57 percent of South Africans living abroad has been living there for over five years.

Table 9 summarises educational level and respondents' knowledge level of South Africa. It seems that most participants have higher education and a certain degree of knowledge regarding South Africa. It is clear from Table 1 that a greater number of the respondents with a degree and postgraduate education have knowledge "Above Average", both standing at 21 percent. Whereas respondents with "Average" knowledge hold degree and postgraduate education, stands at 13 percent and 17 percent.

Table 9: Responses based on knowledge level of South Africa and level of education

Level of education	Below Average	Average	Above Average
High school	0	3	6
	0%	2%	5%
Diploma	1	6	7
	1%	5%	5%
Degree	9	17	27
	7%	13%	21%
Postgraduate	4	22	27
	3%	17%	21%

Table 10: Scale Characteristics

	1	2.69	3	.995	4	130	
	1	1.46	1	.500	1	128	
	1	3.15	3	.895	3	131	
	1	1.57	2	.498	1	129	
	1	2.82	3	1.417	4	130	
	8	3.57	3.63	0.725	.525	127	
	1	3.24	4	1.087	4	131	
	1	3.31	4	1.180	4	130	
	1	3.79	4	0.848	4	131	
	1	3.79	4	0.945	4	131	
	1	3.71	4	0.752	3	130	
	1	3.33	3	1.319	4	129	
	1	3.48	4	0.987	4	131	
	1	3.87	4	0.781	4	130	
	5	3.60	3.71	0.869	4	128	
	1	2.41	3	0.680	2	129	
	1	3.96	4	0.923	4	131	
	1	3.80	4	1.056	4	131	
	1	3.79	4	1.053	4	131	
	1	3.52	4	1.065	4	130	
Brand Advocacy	3.14	3.20	0.879	0.773	4	129	**0.933**
Ba1	3.50	4	1.026	1.052	4	131	
Ba2	3.67	4	1.224	1.499	4	131	
Ba3	3.42	4	1.250	1.563	4	130	
Ba4	3.35	3	1.136	1.291	4	131	
Ba5	3.85	4	1.024	1.048	4	131	
Ba6	3.60	4	1.333	1.777	4	130	
Ba7	3.69	4	1.341	1.798	4	131	

Table 10 represents the scale characteristics of the key variables used in the study. The parameters included the number of items, mean, median, standard deviation, range, sample size and reliability items.

4.3 Correlation

Correlation is a statistical technique that can show whether and how strongly variables are related to each other. For example, height and weight are related; taller people tend to be heavier than shorter people. People of the same height vary in weight, and in some cases a shorter person can be heavier than a taller person. Correlation is often used for quantifiable data in which numbers are meaningful, usually quantities of some sort. The primary result of a correlation is called the correlation coefficient (or "r"). It ranges from -1.0 to +1.0. The closer r is to +1 or -1, the more closely the two variables are related.

If r is close to 0, it means there is no relationship between the variables. If r is positive, it means that as one variable gets larger the other gets larger. If r is negative it means that as one gets larger, the other gets smaller (often called an "inverse" correlation). While correlation coefficients are usually reported as r = (a value between -1 and +1), squaring them makes then easier to understand. The square of the coefficient (or r square) is equal to the percent of the variation in one variable that is related to the variation in the other. After squaring r, ignore the decimal point. An r of .5 means 25% of the variation is related (.5 squared =.25). An r value of .7 means 49% of the variance is related (.7 squared = .49).

It is essential to never assume a correlation means that a change in one variable causes a change in another. For instance, sales of cell phones and running shoes have both risen strongly in the last several years and there is a high correlation between them, but one cannot assume that buying cell phones causes people to buy running shoes (or vice versa).The second caveat is that correlation works best with linear relationships: as one variable gets larger, the other gets larger (or smaller) in direct proportion. It does not work well with curvilinear relationships (in which the relationship does not follow a straight line). An example of a curvilinear relationship is age and health care. They are

related, but the relationship does not follow a straight line. Young children and older people both tend to use much more health care than teenagers or young adults.

Correlation was used in this study (Table 11) as a means of obtaining how the key variables related to each other. Knowledge transfer was significantly and positively related to nation branding (r = 0,67; p<,01) and gender (r = 0,25; p<,01). Knowledge transfer was negatively and significantly related to age (r = -0,27; p<,01). Brand advocacy is positively and significantly related to knowledge transfer (r = ,75; p<,01) and nation branding (r = ,71; p<,01). Nation branding is negatively and significantly related to age (r = -,25; p<,01).

Table 11: Correlation matrix

		knowledget1	brandadvoc	nationbr	Your gender	Your highest education level is	Your Age
knowledget1	Pearson Correlation	1	,746(**)	,668(**)	,246(**)	-,114	-,272(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,000	0,000	0,006	0,199	0,002
	N	128	126	124	125	128	127
Brandadvoc	Pearson Correlation	0,746(**)	1	0,714(**)	0,162	-0,028	-0,144
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000		0,000	0,070	0,756	0,105
	N	126	129	125	126	129	128
Nationbr	Pearson Correlation	0,668(**)	0,714(**)	1	-0,003	-0,089	-0,251(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000	,000		0,970	0,319	0,005
	N	124	125	127	124	127	126
Your gender	Pearson Correlation	0,246(**)	0,162	-0,003	1	-0,085	-0,154
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,006	0,070	0,970		0,342	0,085
	N	125	126	124	128	128	127
Your highest education level is	Pearson Correlation	-0,114	-0,028	-0,089	-0,085	1	0,474(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,199	0,756	0,319	0,342		0,000
	N	128	129	127	128	131	130
Your Age	Pearson Correlation	-0,272(**)	-0,144	-0,251(**)	-0,154	0,474(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,002	0,105	0,005	0,085	0,000	
	N	127	128	126	127	130	130

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

4.4 Partial correlation

Partial correlation is a measure of the strength and direction of a linear relationship between two continuous variables whilst controlling for the effect of one or more other continuous variables (also known as 'covariates' or 'control' variables). Although partial correlation does not make the distinction between independent and dependent variables, the two variables are often considered in such a manner (i.e., there is one continuous dependent variable and one continuous independent variable, as well as one or more continuous control variables).

Partial correlation can be used to understand whether there is a linear relationship between fizzy drink sales and price, whilst controlling for daily temperature (i.e., the continuous dependent variable would be "fizzy drink sales", measured in rands, the continuous independent variable would be "price", also measured in rands, and the single control variable – that is, the single continuous independent variable being adjusted for – would be daily temperature, measured in °C). There may be a belief that there is a relationship between fizzy drink sales and prices (i.e., sales go down as price goes up), but one would like to know if this relationship is affected by daily temperature (e.g., if the relationship is weaker when taking into account daily temperature since one suspects customers are more willing to buy fizzy drinks, irrespective of price, when it is a really nice, hot day).

For this study, partial correlation was used to determine mediation effects of the key variables. As discussed in the methodology section, a mediation model is one that seeks to identify and explicate the mechanism or process that underlies an observed relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable via the inclusion of a third hypothetical variable, known as a mediator variable. In this regard, mediation testing was performed to determine whether there were mediation effects, refer to Table 12.

Table 12: Correlation matrix

Correlations

Control Variables			knowledget1	nationbr
Brandadvoc	knowledget1	Correlation	1,000	0,375
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	0,000
		Df	0	120
	Nationbr	Correlation	0,375	1,000
		Significance (2-tailed)	0,000	.
		Df	120	0

When knowledge transfer was correlated to nation branding the relationship was significant (r = .67, p < .00). When knowledge transfer is partially correlated with nation branding while holding brand advocacy constant, the relationship is positively significant (r = ,38; p<,01). The relationship between nation branding and knowledge transfer is partially mediated by brand advocacy as the strength is reduced.

Table 13: Correlation matrix

Correlations

Control Variables			Nationbr	Brandadvoc
knowledget1	nationbr	Correlation	1,000	0,358
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	0,000
		Df	0	120
	brandadvoc	Correlation	0,358	1,000
		Significance (2-tailed)	0,000	.
		Df	120	0

When nation branding was partially correlated to brand advocacy while holding knowledge transfer constant, the relationship is partially mediated, as shown in Table 13. The initial correlation between nation branding and brand advocacy is significant (r = .71, p < .00). The strength of the relationship between nation branding and brand advocacy is reduced.

Table 14: Correlation matrix

Correlations

Control Variables			brandadvoc	knowledget1
Nationbr	brandadvoc	Correlation	1,000	0,502
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	0,000
		Df	0	120
	knowledget1	Correlation	,502	1,000
		Significance (2-tailed)	0,000	.
		Df	120	0

When brand advocacy was partially correlated to knowledge transfer while holding nation branding constant, the relationship is positively significant ($r = .50$; $p < .01$). The initial relationship between brand advocacy and knowledge transfer is significant ($r = .75$; $p < .00$). The strength of the relationship between brand advocacy and knowledge transfer is reduced (Table 14).

4.5 Regression

In statistical modelling, regression analysis is a statistical process for estimating the relationships among variables. It includes many techniques for modelling and analysing several variables, when the focus is on the relationship between a dependent variable and one or more independent variables (or 'predictors'). More specifically, regression analysis helps one understand how the typical value of the dependent variable (or 'criterion variable') changes when any one of the independent variables is varied, while the other independent variables are held fixed. Most commonly, regression analysis estimates the conditional expectation of the dependent variable given the independent variables – that is, the average value of the dependent variable when the independent variables are fixed. For purposes of understanding the hypotheses, multiple regression was used. Hierarchical regression represents a form of general linear modelling and is a multivariate statistical technique that is used to test the hypotheses. The independent variables, in addition to their collective prediction of entrepreneurial success, may also be

considered for their individual contribution to the variate and its predictions (Joseph F Hair et al., 2006; Joseph F Hair et al., 2008).

Hierarchical regression is a more advanced statistical technique and is firstly used to examine the additive impact of knowledge transfer and brand advocacy on nation branding. Secondly, hierarchical regression is used to examine the effects of control variables highlighted in Table 15.

Table 15: Correlation matrix

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	,729(a)	,531	,527	,494	,531	127,884	1	113	,000
2	,747(b)	,558	,550	,482	,027	6,735	1	112	,011
3	,765(c)	,585	,573	,469	,027	7,273	1	111	,008

a Predictors: (Constant), brandadvoc

b Predictors: (Constant), brandadvoc, knowledget1

c Predictors: (Constant), brandadvoc, knowledget1, Your gender

Hierarchical regression results are illustrated in Table 15. This table displays R, R squared, adjusted R squared, and the standard error. R, the multiple correlation coefficient, is the correlation between the observed and predicted values of the dependent variable. The values of R for models produced by the regression procedure range from 0 to 1. Larger values of R indicate stronger relationships. R squared is the proportion of variation in the dependent variable explained by the regression model. The values of R squared range from 0 to 1. Small values indicate that the model does not fit the data well. The sample R squared tends to optimistically estimate how well the models

fits the population. Adjusted R squared attempts to correct R squared to more closely reflect the goodness of fit of the model in the population.

In model 1, all the variables were entered including the control variables. The adjusted r2 indicator shows that brand advocacy is a good predictor (r = .527, p < .00). Brand advocacy explains 53% of the variance in nation branding. In model 2 the indicator shows that brand advocacy and knowledge transfer make up a good predictor of nation branding (r = .55, p < .01). In model 2, brand advocacy and knowledge transfer explains 55% of the variance. The third model shows that brand advocacy, knowledge transfer and gender explains 57% of the variance (r = .573, p < .01).

Table 16: Correlation matrix

Coefficients(a)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,665	0,171		9,756	0,000
	brandadvoc	0,598	0,053	0,729	11,309	0,000
2	(Constant)	1,416	0,192		7,365	0,000
	brandadvoc	0,449	0,077	0,548	5,838	0,000
	knowledget1	0,200	0,077	0,244	2,595	0,011
3	(Constant)	1,664	0,209		7,981	0,000
	brandadvoc	0,438	0,075	0,534	5,843	0,000
	knowledget1	0,240	0,076	0,293	3,142	0,002
	Your gender	-0,243	0,090	-0,170	-2,697	0,008

a Dependent Variable: nationbr

Table 16 further confirms that, according to model 1, brand advocacy, the beta coefficient has changed significantly (β = .729, p < .00). According to model 2, brand advocacy (β= .548, p <.00) and knowledge transfer (β = .244, p < .00) shows significant

beta coefficients. According to model 3, the beta coefficients are significant for brand advocacy (β = ,534; p < .00), knowledge transfer (β = .293; p < .00) and gender (β = .17; p < .00).

4.6 Conclusion of results

Overall three tests were performed. This included correlation, partial correlation and regression. All three tests have demonstrated significance. Therefore the hypotheses are supported.

4.6.1 *Hypothesis 1:*

H_1: There is a positive relationship that exists between knowledge transfer brand advocacy.

Result- H1: Supported

4.6.2 *Hypothesis 2:*

H_2: Knowledge transfer and brand advocacy positively influence nation brand reputation.

Result- H2: Supported

CHAPTER 5. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses and analyses the results of the hypotheses tests presented in the previous chapter. The chapter is discussed from three perspectives. Firstly, the chapter discusses and analyses the main effects of knowledge transfer-brand advocacy and brand advocacy-nation branding. Secondly, the chapter discusses the mediating effects of the independent and the dependent variables. Thirdly, the chapter discusses hierarchical regression analyses.

5.2 Discussion pertaining to hypothesis 1

H1: There is a positive relationship between knowledge transfer brand advocacy.

The results showed that knowledge transfer was positively and significantly correlated to brand advocacy ($r = .75$, $p < .00$) and to nation branding ($r = .67$, $p < .00$).

Of late, the concept of knowledge transfer has become more important from multiple perspectives (Blome et al., 2014). The study by Siar (2014) highlights the view that despite issues of the continuing depletion of skilled workers in many developing countries, a more optimistic view of international migration emerged which proposed that it can enhance development, not just through economic means but through the knowledge and skills that migrants can transfer to their countries of origin. Siar (2014)'s study further suggests that South-North migration has largely characterised international migration patterns for decades and found that the South has traditionally been the source of both low-skilled and high-skilled labour of developed countries. Most of

respondents left South Africa for educational reasons which make up 25 percent of the sample. Siar (2014) also advocate English-speaking countries in the OECD have a natural advantage for attracting international students and are known to have the best educational institutions in the world. Similarly, Kamei (2011) professes that developing nations across the globe have recognised diaspora as noteworthy assets with regards to the migration of knowledge.

Clark (2012)'s study also found that the traditional way of obtaining an international education is to travel overseas. Over the years, the dynamics of cross-border education have evolved. Foreign degrees can be pursued in the home country or in neighbouring countries at local institutions through various forms of collaborative arrangements (Clark, 2012). In part, this finding suggests a plausible argument as to why most of the diaspora left South Africa due to educational reasons.

Other theoretical perspectives link secondary education and physical capital investments as an integral component of knowledge transfer (Tritah, 2009). Most notably was the case of Western Europe after the war period where much attention was given to economic restoration through higher education and knowledge investment to spur on a developing knowledge society. The concept of knowledge transfer has evolved in line with events such as war, natural disasters and economic downturns (Harengel & Gbadamosi, 2014). Kamei (2011) suggests that despite that, the diaspora holds a forceful passionate connection and communication framework that can influences knowledge transfer.

The findings in this study also suggest that knowledge transfer is not limited to formal knowledge transfer processes and that the diaspora plays a significant role in the knowledge economy.

The study by Tritah (2009) found that although European universities produce large numbers of graduates, a significant portion finds employment outside of Europe. This paradigm shift from brain drain to brain gain is multi-faceted and is inclusive of various terms, such as 'knowledge transfer,' 'knowledge exchange,' 'knowledge circulation,' and 'brain circulation.' In line with proponents of this concept are theories arguing that the outflow of knowledge and skills resulting from the migration and mobility of highly skilled people may not necessarily mean a loss for their home countries because their skills and

knowledge can be channelled back through a variety of processes (Brown, 2000, 2002; Meyer et al., 1997).

Knowledge transfer and its linkage to brand advocacy can be interpreted through the return option or the repatriation of the highly skilled diaspora to the home country. The other is the diaspora option that does not require any permanent return of the diaspora to the home country (Mahroum et al., 2006; Pellerin & Mullings, 2013; W. A. Turner et al., 2003). Rather, it promotes linking the diaspora's embodied knowledge through social and professional networks and linking the diaspora to the home country through these networks (Meyer et al., 1997; W. Turner et al., 2003).

A clearer view is advocated by Castles and Miller (2009) that the brain circulation argument goes as follows. If highly skilled people cannot be employed at home, they are not damaging the economy by leaving. Qualified personnel emigrate not only because salaries are higher in the North, but also because working and living conditions in the South are poor and opportunities for professional development are lacking. Indeed, training people to work abroad may be seen as a rational strategy, because in the short run, it will increase remittance flows, and in the long run, it may lead to the return of experienced personnel and the transfer of technology (Castles, 2009; Rahman & Sadique, 2014).

This theory is strongly supported by A. K. Gupta and Govindarajan (2000)'s view that knowledge transfer is a fundamental building block for organisations in value creation. Other views suggest that knowledge creation and knowledge transfer by nature are strategically vital aspects of an organisation and add to competitiveness (Hamel, 1991; Lee & Yang, 2000; Levin & Cross, 2004; Simonin, 1999). In addition, Argote and Ingram (2000) advocate that the creation and transference of knowledge is essential in the foundation of an organisation's competitive advantage.

In this study, knowledge transfer directs the view that knowledge transfer is external. External knowledge transfer is explained as the organisation's ability to employ external expertise to promote the organisation's products and processes to others (Blome et al., 2014; Mitchell, 2006; Tsai, 2001). Knowledge transfer is not only focused on knowledge diffusion but also the practical application and use of the knowledge by the receiver (Davenport & Prusak, 1998).

Contemporary perspectives suggest that knowledge transfer is explicit and includes that which is written and formally recorded, whereas tacit knowledge is the informal knowledge transferred through interpersonal methods such as learning by doing, mentoring, problem solving and teamwork (Kuschminder, 2011). Kuschminder (2011)'s study suggests that the concept of knowledge transfer is not new and that diasporas have historically contributed to knowledge transfer and capacity building through diaspora knowledge networks (self-organised diaspora groups in the country of migration), state-led initiatives that fund diaspora members to temporarily return (common in China and India), and international organisation-funded temporary return programmes (Gandhi, 2002).

Knowledge transfer was also significantly and positively correlated to age. As postulated by Kuschminder (2011), knowledge transfer is related to factors such as learning by doing, mentoring, problem solving and teamwork. In Tritah (2009)'s study, he links knowledge transfer to age and points out that expatriates have on average substantial years of labour market experience. In this view, it is emphasised that while new expatriates are younger, the expatriates population as a whole is not systematically younger than source country working-age population. It is widely understood that these aspects are influenced by personal development and age.

Questions "kt2 Based on your knowledge about South Africa, to what extent does this statement applies to you?-I am willing to share positive information about South Africa"

and "kt3 Based on your knowledge about South Africa, to what extent does this statement applies to you?-I make effort to share knowledge about South Africa" showed mean values of 3.96 and 3.80 respectively. This is in line with the argument by Castles and Miller (2009) suggesting that training people to work abroad may be seen as a rational strategy, because in the short run, it will increase remittance flows, and in the long run, it may lead to return of experienced personnel and transfer of technology. The significance of the finding where age is correlated to knowledge transfer supports the literature.

As pointed out in the literature Mugobo and Wakeham (2014) hold a view that as a component of the nation branding strategy, the nation should delegate reputable brand

champions and brand advocates. It is therefore not surprising that countries such as China and India have initiated state-led interventions that fund diaspora members to temporarily return (Ghose, 2015).

Questions “ba2 based on your sentiments and understanding of South Africa, please complete the following-I talk positively about South Africa and ba5 people believe what I say about South Africa” showed mean values of 3.67 and 3.85 respectively. These values are strongly correlated to the knowledge transfer items indicating a reciprocal relationship.

This finding makes for a strong case for a longitudinal research design to determine a causal relationship. In other words, knowledge transfer strongly impacts on brand advocacy and vice versa (Kemp et al., 2012). Brand advocacy was also significantly correlated to gender ($r = .16$, $p < .10$). This finding is interesting, considering that knowledge transfer was correlated to age. However, brand advocacy is an emerging concept and in an increasingly complex and tightly-linked world, not only companies but also countries are engaged in competition at every level (Hynes et al., 2014).

Although this study did not find significant differences with regard to the motivation for migrating for gender, the study did not consider cultural factors such as masculine cultural domain.

As an emerging concept, governments globally are turning to branding techniques to differentiate their country on the global level in order to establish a competitive edge over rival countries in the belief that a strong country brand can contribute to the country’s sustainable development (Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2001; Kleppe & Mossberg, 2015). This area of research is important as it may also restore flawed international credibility, increase international political influence, and stimulate stronger international partnerships, particularly relating to African countries (Fan, 2010; Yang, Shin, Lee, & Wrigley, 2008). As many countries have gained awareness of the importance of their country brand, they have adopted country branding interventions.

Therefore hypothesis 1 is supported.

5.3 Discussion pertaining to hypothesis 2

H2: Knowledge transfer and brand advocacy positively influence nation brand reputation.

The second hypothesis examined the relationship between brand advocacy and nation branding. As pointed out by Keller (2008), nation branding, although dynamic, is not a new concept. Correlations showed that nation branding is positively and significantly related to knowledge transfer ($r = .67$, $p < .00$) and brand advocacy ($r = 71$, $p < .00$). Countries are competing for new markets for exports, attracting foreign direct investment, tourism and high level skills (Anholt, 2006a). Although the relationship between brand advocacy and nation branding is significant, there are contextual factors such as political, historical, geographical, economical and socio-cultural factors which must be considered.

In order to establish the impact of brand advocacy, a more holistic and creative approach is needed (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005). This finding is in line with the advent of globalisation and technological progression in certain markets (Ankomah & Larson, 2014). The telecommunications market is a case in point as an industry that impacts on technological progression (Mitchell, 2006).

Some perspectives suggest that in order to improve competitiveness in global markets many countries place importance on nation branding (Anholt, 2006a; Dinnie et al., 2010). In Dinnie et al. (2010)'s study, over 20,000 online interviews in 20 countries were conducted. The index shows how countries are perceived on the basis of six dimensions (Anholt, 2006a): exports, tourism, investment, immigration, governance, culture and heritage, and people. For each dimension, various questions on a 7-point Likert scale are used. An important point in this part of the analysis is the composition of the index itself.

In my study the findings of nation branding are a reflection of the country brand as a whole, whereas Dinnie et al. (2010) suggest that the index should measure reciprocal country perceptions between countries. Dinnie et al. (2010)'s study found a significant

and positive correlation between perception and nation branding (r = .62, p < .01) which is very similar to this study.

The link between brand advocacy and nation branding is an interesting finding. For African countries, globalisation and technological progression are introducing new challenges through expanding markets and a changing business environment (Bolay & Tejada, 2014). In order to overcome this, nation branding represents an example of image improvement at a country level. More prominently, South Africa as a nation has repositioned itself as “South Africa: Alive with Possibilities” (Fullerton & Holtzhausen, 2012; Knott et al., 2013). The hosting of major events such as the FIFA world cup also enhances nation branding (Holtzhausen & Fullerton, 2013).

These perspectives are in line with a small number of longitudinal studies suggesting that nation branding may shift slowly over time, even in the absence of major events (Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2001; Rojas-Méndez, Papadopoulos, & Murphy, 2013).The majority of those studies, however, conclude that major events can help to speed up or hinder the process of country image change (Anholt, 2006b; Dinnie et al., 2010; Papadopoulos & Hamzaoui-Essoussi, 2015).

Partial correlation procedures were employed to determine mediating effects. In the previous chapter when knowledge transfer was correlated to nation branding, the relationship was significant (r = .67, p < .00). When knowledge transfer is partially correlated with nation branding while holding brand advocacy constant, the relationship is positively significant (r = ,38; p<,01). The relationship between nation branding and knowledge transfer is partially mediated by brand advocacy as the strength is reduced.

This finding suggests that brand advocacy plays an important role in the relationship between knowledge transfer and nation branding. Fast growing industries, such as tourism, have become a global industry and are widely considered to be very important for job creation and economic development and place much emphasis on brand advocacy.

Similarly, when hierarchical regression was employed, brand advocacy was highlighted in all the output models as an important predictor. In model 1, all the variables were entered, including the control variables. The adjusted r2 indicator shows that brand

advocacy is a good predictor ($r = .527$, $p < .00$). Brand advocacy explains 53% of the variance in nation branding. In model 2, the indicator shows that brand advocacy and knowledge transfer make up a good predictor of nation branding ($r = .55$, $p < .01$). In model 2, brand advocacy and knowledge transfer explains 55% of the variance. The third model shows that brand advocacy, knowledge transfer and gender explains 57% of the variance ($r = .573$, $p < .01$).

The regression output indicates that brand advocacy is a good predictor. Although it is established in the literature that a relationship exists between nation branding and national competitiveness (De Kock, 2014), this study focused on the knowledge transfer – brand advocacy relationship in relation to nation branding.

It is evident from the literature that brand advocacy and nation branding are concepts that are multi-faceted. Nation branding, for example, although a concept frequently used in marketing literature, focuses primarily on four areas - country of origin (Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2001; Kleppe & Mossberg, 2015; Pisharodi & Parameswaran, 1992; Roth & Romeo, 1992), destination branding (Hankinson, 2005; Morgan & Pritchard, 1998), country image or country-product image (Agarwal & Sikri, 1996; I. M. Martin & Eroglu, 1993; Parameswaran & Yaprak, 1987) and country identity (Keillor et al., 1996; Keillor & Tomas M. Hult, 1999).

The findings from this study suggest that the concept of nation branding is far broader than just marketing and branding and involve other disciplines such as international relations and public diplomacy.

Therefore, hypothesis 2 is supported.

CHAPTER 6. CONTRIBUTIONS, CONCLUSIONS, PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS, FUTURE RESEARCH AND LIMITATIONS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the significance of the findings in conjunction with conceptual and empirical contributions. Implications for the government as well as organisations are considered. Finally, the way forward and limitations of the study are discussed.

6.2 Key Contributions of this Study

The current research study is based on the visual conceptual framework, denoted in the literature review (Figure 1). According to the framework, the study suggests that the nation brand reputation which signifies how the nation is perceived, can be affected by two drivers to be specific; knowledge transfer and brand advocacy. The study attempted to bring about a better understanding of the relationships between the independent variables, but also the dependant variable itself.

6.3 Conclusions of the study

The purpose of the study was to reveal important elements that assume significant roles in influencing South African's nation brand reputation abroad, as well as to establish whether South Africans living abroad are brand advocates for the nation.

The model in conjunction with the hypotheses presented is a start in the direction of establishing a framework to understanding the value of nation branding in the South African knowledge economy. The country's capacity to absorb global capital and skills, including those from its expatriate professionals, is an essential factor to be considered. Being globally competitive is important in developing a strong absorptive capacity.

South Africa can achieve global competitiveness by cultivating strong and reliable institutions, high-quality infrastructure, macroeconomic soundness, an educated and healthy population, and a high level of innovation capacity as well as a temporary return programme for diaspora. As mentioned throughout the study, knowledge transfer is vital for South Africa to be competitive in the knowledge economy. It is an important factor that affects the motivation of foreign investors to invest, and the decision of expatriate professionals to return to transfer their skills.

In addition to programmes mentioned, social networks are equally important to facilitate the continued ties of migrants as brand advocates that promote diasporic knowledge transfer. The study has therefore concluded that South Africans living abroad can be considered as brand advocates for South Africa.

Lastly, the concept of nation branding is ever changing and the government needs to include the diaspora in bringing about changes in policy and programmes that may impact on nation branding.

6.3.1 *Knowledge Transfer*

Several theoretical contributions have been evaluated to understand the role of knowledge transfer. The work of Kamei (2011), establishing the link between diaspora from developing economies and knowledge transfer, is important to the development of knowledge transfer. In line with this thread is the value of the diaspora as a noteworthy asset of the nation. The concept of knowledge transfer is ever increasing. Knowledge transfer is also a concept that is inextricably linked to capacity building, a point of view that is particularly relevant to developing countries.

In this study, knowledge transfer was defined as explicit as well as tacit knowledge (Buckley & Ollenburg, 2013). The former focuses on knowledge which is written and formally recorded while the latter relates to informal knowledge transferred through interpersonal methods such as learning by doing, mentoring, problem solving, and teamwork. The study supports the view that diasporas have historically contributed to knowledge transfer and capacity building through diaspora knowledge networks, state-led initiatives that fund diaspora members to temporarily return (common in China and India), and international organisation- funded temporary return programmes.

The findings of this study also build onto the work of Clark (2012), who links the motivation of diaspora to education. Education was singled out as the most important reason for moving overseas. This is in line with Clark (2012)'s findings pointing out that the traditional way of obtaining an international education is to travel overseas. However, the dynamics of cross-border education have evolved. Foreign degrees can be pursued in the home country or in neighbouring countries at local institutions through various forms of collaborative arrangements. This finding presents new challenges to governments who need to retain and attract high level skills in the knowledge economy, particularly if the high level skilled diaspora is not returning. An interesting finding in Tritah (2009)'s study is the fact that Europe produces large numbers of graduates but the retention rate is very poor as most of these individuals work outside Europe. This study has not focused on knowledge transfer and capacity building specifically but the linkage is an emerging thread in the literature.

6.3.2 *Brand Advocacy*

This study highlighted brand advocacy as an emerging concept and in an increasingly complex and tightly-linked world, not only companies but also countries are engaged in competition at every level (Hynes et al., 2014).

The main hypotheses were to establish the relationship between knowledge transfer and brand advocacy as well as between brand advocacy and nation branding. A key finding in this study is also the role of migrants and diasporas (South Africans living abroad) to brand advocacy. In particular, brand advocacy in society can be an important factor for development in both home nation and host country.

Siar (2014) has strongly advocated the connection between brand advocacy and international migration patterns. As an emerging concept, future emphasis will be placed on the brand advocacy-international migration pattern relationship. As pointed out in Keillor et al. (1996)'s study, knowledge transfer and its linkage to brand advocacy can be interpreted through the return option or the repatriation of the highly skilled diaspora to the home nation. Far greater emphasis has been placed on the role of the diaspora's embodied knowledge through professional networks.

The study suggests that brand advocacy is strongly correlated to knowledge transfer. This finding is in line with Siar (2014)'s study that points out that South-North migration has largely characterised international migration patterns for decades. The developing countries, including South Africa, also known as the South, have traditionally been the main source of migrant labour for the North or the developed countries. Siar (2014)'s study also draws the link between the emergence of the knowledge economy and greater intensity of competition as nation states, particularly in the North, compete for the continuous supply of highly skilled people.

Although the focus of the study was not specifically on the role of technology, one cannot ignore rapid advancements in information technology (IT) that have spurred a strong demand for information technology professionals to keep up with the expanding use of technology in business, government, health and education. In addition, the constant

evolving trade liberalisation policies have also eased the transfer of production activities to more cost-effective locations for transnational companies. This gave rise to global production networks as well as the movement of technical and managerial people across borders. Combined with the ageing populations in the North, there has been an instantaneous demand for highly skilled medical and healthcare personnel.

As per hypothesis 1, the finding where knowledge transfer influences brand advocacy is relevant to trade liberalisation policies, trade agreements and transfer of production facilities. All of these factors led to the expansion of South-North migration which saw the most increase in the last two decades.

6.3.3 *Nation Branding*

The concept of nation branding is primarily derived from a marketing perspective. This study has highlighted the importance of nation branding in relation to the diaspora. In an increasingly complex and tightly-linked world, not only companies but also countries are engaged in competition at every level. Nations are competing for new markets for exports, attracting foreign direct investment, tourism and high level skills. The relationship between nation branding and regional co-operation such as BRICS is also emerging in the literature. As pointed out, although the relationship between brand advocacy and nation branding is significant, there are contextual factors such as political, historical, geographical, economical and socio-cultural factors which must be considered.

Governments are turning to branding techniques to differentiate their nations on the global stage in order to establish a competitive edge over rival countries in the belief that a strong nation brand can contribute to the nation's sustainable development. There is a lack of empirical research in the area of nation branding in relation to contextual factors.

This study has introduced the role of the South Africans living abroad as a start in establishing a framework to obtain a better understanding of nation branding. The role of migrants and diasporas in society can be an important factor for development in both

country of origin and host country. They create diverse societies that can be dynamic, innovative and open to global trade, investment, skills and knowledge. Given their familiarity with the host country and country of origin, they can act as facilitators, middle persons and cost savers for both.

6.4 Practical Implications

6.4.1 *For public policy (government)*

As pointed out, the findings from this study point to policy and strategy of governments and organisation as they continue to want to retain high skilled individuals in the knowledge economy. The study has demonstrated that nation branding is an important concept to consider in relation to the diaspora. A strong nation brand help to increase exports, attract tourism, investment and immigration. These are important factors to be taken into account to attract foreign direct investment. Nation branding has become an essential part of a country's sustainable development. However, it is complex and includes multiple levels, components and disciplines and entails the collective involvement of different stakeholders.

Evidence from this study suggests that nation branding and brand advocacy are multi-faceted concepts and not grounded in a marketing discipline. As pointed out, the findings from this study suggest that the concept of nation branding is far broader than marketing and branding alone and involves other disciplines such as international relations and public diplomacy. Therefore, the current curricula at government schools and at universities need to be more proactive and include these concepts that may bring about new insights and application.

Similarly private organisations should integrate further research findings to understand the effectiveness of different temporary return programmes in different countries and

contexts. The Afghan case presented by Kuschminder (2011), is quite specific and although the results of the research should not be generalised to the effectiveness of all temporary return programmes, several case studies have shown that thousands of people have utilised a computer for the first time, technicians have been taught the rights skills to do their jobs, female students have been able to receive higher education, and virtual learning has been established for on-going training from diaspora expertise.

In addition, the study analysed the relationship between knowledge transfer and brand advocacy. Knowledge transfer must be seen as a development strategy for home nations to tap the knowledge and skills of their expatriate professionals, which consequently can help mitigate the brain drain effects of skilled migration, particularly regarding developing economies, such as South Africa. The study also analysed knowledge transfer from a view of skilled migration as a process that does not necessarily lead to a loss of skills and knowledge for sending countries. Instead, skilled migration increases the intellectual, social, and economic capital of diaspora, which also benefits home countries through knowledge transfer. By going abroad, migrants accumulate not only new skills; they also build professional and social networks that may have not have been possible had they remained in their home countries.

6.4.2 *For Brand South Africa*

Some perspectives raised in this study suggest that in order to improve competitiveness in global markets, many countries are placing more importance on nation branding (Anholt, 2006a; Dinnie et al., 2010). In time, quantitative approaches can extend research to include new indices to measure nation branding. From a practical viewpoint, countries can use this index as a performance reference point to see where they stand and changes required can be made to improve the current situation. By using this index, public and private organisations can formulate a more powerful nation brand strategy, but improving the nation brand may require fundamental changes in the political, economic, legal and social systems.

Communicating the nation brand is a major undertaking and the diaspora must play a crucial role in this campaign, as suggested in this study. Equally, nations such as China and India, who have initiated diaspora return programmes have been very successful in ensuring knowledge transfer, particularly in high tech industries. Public and private organisations as well as national policy-makers need to become aware of the power of nation branding to help achieve national goals. They need to understand how to build, manage and protect a nation's brand as well as how to co-ordinate nation branding intervention strategies.

6.5 Future Research

The three variables covered in this study can be regarded as emerging concepts. The study attempted to bring about a starting framework to obtain a better understanding of the diaspora in relation to the three variables. Diaspora factors are complex and may include the migrants' motivation to engage in knowledge transfer and could either be altruistic or self-seeking.

Social networks are also important because they can stimulate people to work with others in pursuing a common goal or provide access to resources that can facilitate the production of or engagement in knowledge transfer. When people move overseas, they bring with them their knowledge and skills which they transfer to their host country. The point has been made where some countries have initiated temporary return programmes for diaspora which have proven to be successful. The role of these programmes to tap into knowledge transfer and human capital development is scant in the literature.

Home countries have a critical role in facilitating knowledge transfer by their skilled diaspora. The challenge of diaspora engagement falls primarily on home countries (for example developing economies) as they need it more than the host countries which already directly benefit from skilled migration. Therefore, this presents a new opportunity for future research. Future research must introduce these factors into models and frameworks to obtain a better understanding of nation branding in relation to diaspora.

Although this study did not find significant differences with regards to the motivation for migrating for gender, the study did not consider cultural factors such as masculine cultural domain. This marks new areas for future research.

The study is limited in the sense of not providing more depth on this relationship, particularly with regards to influencing diverse societies and being open to global trade, investment, skills and knowledge.

Although the relationship between brand advocacy and nation branding is significant, there are contextual factors such as political, historical, geographical, economical and socio-cultural factors which must be considered.

6.6 Limitations

As with all research, this study has some limitations. First, due to data limitations only a few countries were included in the study. Second, for immigration the study did not differentiate between skilled and unskilled workers. Third, the parameters and weighting methods used can be improved. Fourth, cross-sectional data were used and further research should examine data for multiple years in order to conduct longitudinal studies. Fifthly, the study used a survey design, future studies could include in-depth interviews.

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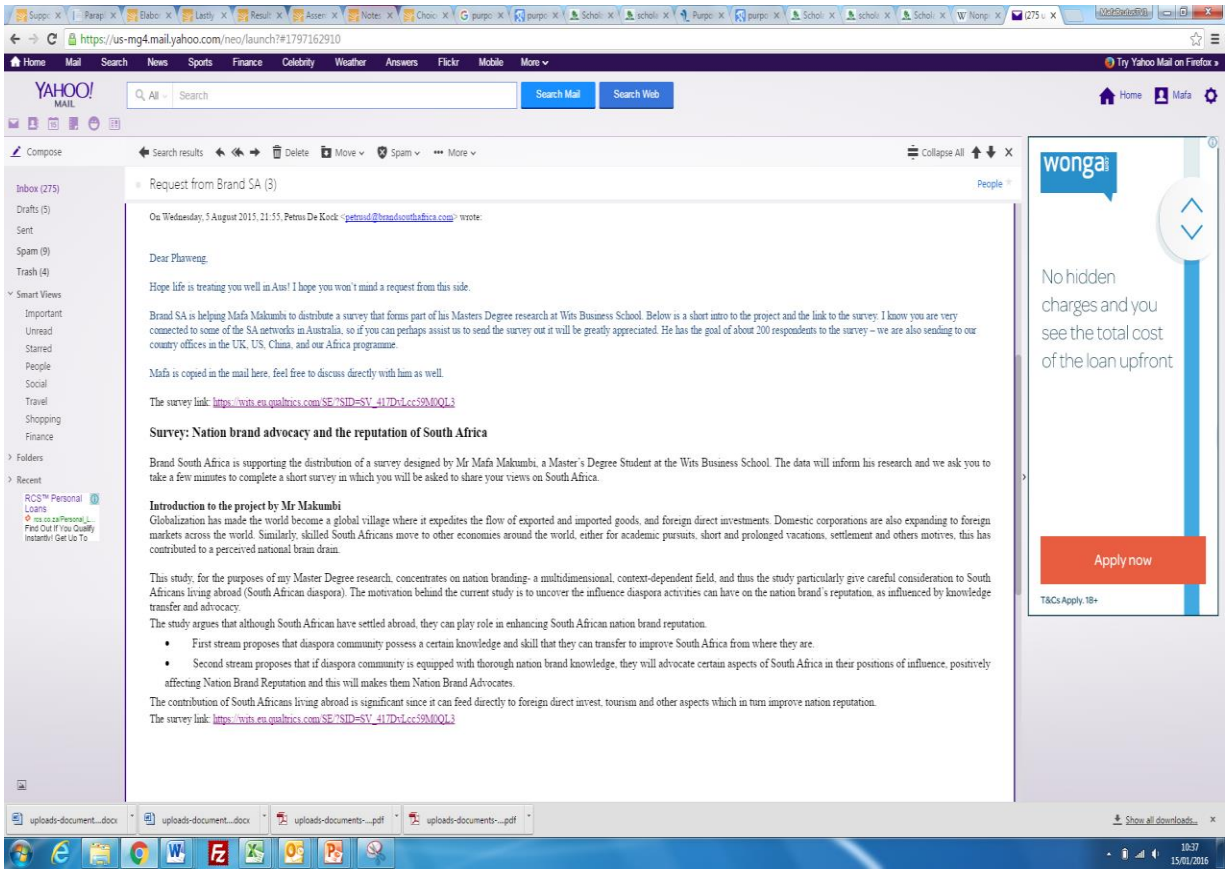
APPENDIX A: BRAND SOUTH AFRICA -EMAIL TRAIL

A1: Email print Screen



A2: Copied Email print Screen- *for visibility purposes*

Petrus De Kock <xxxx brandsouthafrica.com>

To: Mafa Makumbi 08/20/15 at 9:16 AM

Hi Mafa,

Phaweng will be sending out your survey in the Australian networks.

Best,
Petrus

Dear Phaweng,

Hope life is treating you well in Aus! I hope you won't mind a request from this side.

Brand SA is helping Mafa Makumbi to distribute a survey that forms part of his Masters Degree research at Wits Business School. Below is a short intro to the project and the link to the survey. I know you are very connected to some of the SA networks in Australia, so if you can perhaps assist us to send the survey out it will be greatly appreciated. He has the goal of about 200 respondents to the survey – we are also sending to our country offices in the UK, US, China, and our Africa programme.

Mafa is copied in the mail here, feel free to discuss directly with him as well.

The survey link: https://wits.eu.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_417DvLcc59M0QL3

Survey: Nation brand advocacy and the reputation of South Africa

Brand South Africa is supporting the distribution of a survey designed by Mr Mafa Makumbi, a Master's Degree Student at the Wits Business School. The data will inform his research and we ask you to take a few minutes to complete a short survey in which you will be asked to share your views on South Africa.

Introduction to the project by Mr Makumbi
Globalization has made the world become a global village where it expedites the flow of exported and imported goods, and foreign direct investments. Domestic corporations are also expanding to foreign markets across the world. Similarly, skilled South Africans move to other economies around the world, either for academic pursuits, short and prolonged vacations, settlement and others motives, this has contributed to a perceived national brain drain.

This study, for the purposes of my Master Degree research, concentrates on nation branding- a multidimensional, context-dependent field, and thus the study particularly give careful consideration to South Africans living abroad (South African diaspora). The motivation behind the current study is to uncover the influence diaspora activities can have on the nation brand's reputation, as influenced by knowledge transfer and advocacy.
The study argues that although South African have settled abroad, they can play role in enhancing South African nation brand reputation.

- First stream proposes that diaspora community possess a certain knowledge and skill that they can transfer to improve South Africa from where they are.
- Second stream proposes that if diaspora community is equipped with thorough nation brand knowledge, they will advocate certain aspects of South Africa in their positions of influence, positively affecting Nation Brand Reputation and this will makes them Nation Brand Advocates.

The contribution of South Africans living abroad is significant since it can feed directly to foreign direct invest, tourism and other aspects which in turn improve nation reputation.
The survey link: https://wits.eu.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_417DvLcc59M0QL3

APPENDIX B: RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

Q1

How many years have you been living abroad?

- Less than 5 years
- More than 5 years

Q2

Reason for living abroad

- Educational
- Economical
- Political
- Others
- A mix of reasons

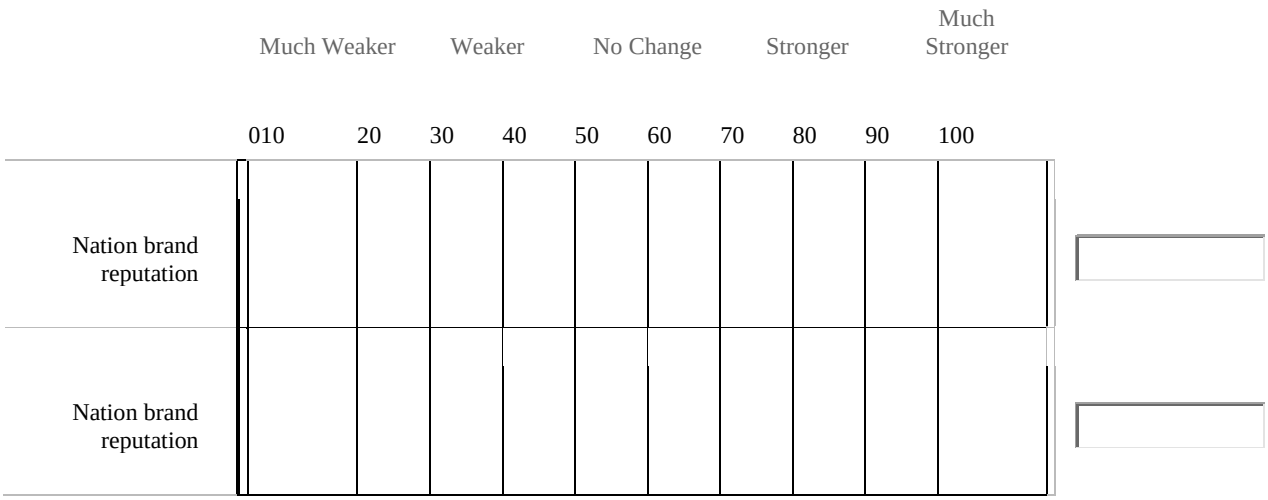
Q3

Which continent do you currently live in?

- Africa
- Europe
- Asia
- Australia
- North America
- South America
- Antarctica

Q4

Please rate South Africa as a nation brand in the the following statements. Use the slider option below, 0 = much weaker and 100 = much stronger.



Q28

What perceptions do others in your country hold about South Africa?

- Very Bad
- Bad
- Neither Good nor Bad
- Good
- Very Good

Q5

How do you feel about South Africa?

- Very Displeased
- Displeased
- Neutral
- Pleased
- Very Pleased

Q6

How is your knowledge about South Africa?

- Below Average
- Average
- Above Average

Q7

How often do you tell others about South Africa?

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Quite Often
- Very Often

Q8

Are you connected to other South Africans abroad or any South African diaspora organization/network?

- True
- Would like to
- False

Q9

Based on your knowledge about South Africa, to what extent does this statement applies to you?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am willing to share positive information about South Africa					
I make effort to share knowledge about South Africa					
I make effort to keep myself updated about South Africa					
I can answer most of the questions about South Africa					

Q10

Which statement applies to you?

	Definitely will not	Probably will not	Don't know	Probably will	Definitely will
I will love to return to South Africa permanently	○	○	○	○	○
My skills and expertise will help South Africa	○	○	○	○	○
I am keen to share my expertise without returning permanently to South Africa	○	○	○	○	○
I can help connect willing South Africans to influential people	○	○	○	○	○

Q11

I am connected to influential people that can contribute positively to South Africa

- ○ Yes
- ○ Maybe
- ○ No

Q12

I am concerned about development in South Africa

- ○ Clearly does not describe my feelings
- ○ Mostly does not describe my feelings
- ○ Somewhat describes my feelings
- ○ Mostly describes my feelings
- ○ Clearly describes my feelings

Q13

Based on your sentiments and understanding of South Africa, please complete the following

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	All of the Time
I talk positively about South Africa	○	○	○	○	○

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	All of the Time
Whenever I talk about South Africa people want to know more					
I change people's perceptions about South Africa					

Q14

People believe what I say about South Africa

- Unbelievable
- Somewhat Unbelievable
- Not Sure
- Somewhat Believable
- Believable

Q15

I represent South Africa

- Clearly does not describe my feelings
- Mostly does not describe my feelings
- Somewhat describes my feelings
- Mostly describes my feelings
- Clearly describes my feelings

Q16

I am proud to be a South African

- Clearly does not describe my feelings
- Mostly does not describe my feelings
- Somewhat describes my feelings
- Mostly describes my feelings
- Clearly describes my feelings

Q17

It is easy for me to talk positively about South Africa despite negative media reports

- Very Difficult
- Difficult
- Neutral
- Easy
- Very Easy

Q18

I influence people to consider South Africa as a possible next destination

- Not At All
- Occasionally
- Frequently

Q19

South Africa has a good reputation internationally

- Very Bad
- Bad
- Neither Good nor Bad
- Good
- Very Good

Q20

South African leaders are respected internationally

- Unbelievable
- Somewhat Unbelievable
- Not Sure
- Somewhat Believable
- Believable

Q21

South Africa has a clear identity and values internationally

- Very Inappropriate
- Inappropriate
- Neutral
- Appropriate
- Very Appropriate

Q22

South Africa is recognizable globally

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Neither Agree nor Disagree
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

Q23

Your gender

- Male
- Female

Q24

Your highest education level is

- High school
- Diploma
- Degree
- Postgraduate

Q25

Your Age

- 18-24
- 25-35
- 36-45
- 46-60
- 60 and more

Q26

Do you want to mention anything else that is not covered by the questionnaire?