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Factors that Influence the Intentions to Recommend Johannesburg as a Tourist Destination: An International Students Perspective

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STUDENT NUMBER: 970351

A Dissertation submitted in complete fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of the Master of Commerce in the School of Economic and Business Sciences, at the University of the Witwatersrand

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2019

DECLARATION

- This Master's dissertation is my own original effort.
- All of the sources which were utilised or referred to have been provided in the master's dissertation in the appropriate format.
- This dissertation has not been previously submitted in full or partial fulfilment as deemed mandatory for the attainment of a higher education qualification or equivalent at an educational institution.
- APA was used as the referencing style.



Puseletso Sehahabane

2019

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ABSTRACT

The research investigated the use of the three potential predictors of intention to recommend (city brand identity, city perception and destination image) as a means of establishing whether these were related to city rejuvenation, which ultimately lead to intention to recommend. The study reviewed prior literature on intention to recommend. Probability sampling was used to select respondents, and a research model was developed to measure the constructs used for the study. A field study was conducted in Johannesburg at the University of the Witwatersrand, and research data was collected from 375 registered students of the University of the Witwatersrand, 18 years and older. Using the SPSS 24 and AMOS 24 software programs, structural equation modelling (SEM) was performed to analyze the data set. Based on the findings of the study, city perception, destination image and city brand identity all have a positive impact on students' intention to recommend Johannesburg as a tourist destination. Another contribution to the literature made here was to confirm that city rejuvenation and city brand identity both have a direct and positive impact on destination image. This was confirmed by what Braun, Kavaratzis and Zenker, (2013) stated that in building the city's image, architecture is one of the key elements, which truly needs some visual and concrete factors to catch people's attentions. Finally, the last contribution to the literature of destination marketing made by the current study is that destination image has a positive relationship on the student's city perception. This supported Lee and Xie's, (2011) statement that destination image has a positive effect on city perception.

Key words: city rejuvenation, destination image, city brand identity, city perception, intention to recommend

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1. CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Tourism is regarded as a modern day engine of growth and is one of the largest industries globally as reported by Brand South Africa (2012). South African tourism in particular, has been recognized as a driver of growth and development, as tourism supports one in every 12 jobs in South Africa (National Department of Tourism, 2012). According to Bui and Perez (2010), tourism destination branding represents the most obvious means by which destinations can distinguish themselves from the mass of commodity destinations around the world and is a powerful marketing tool because of increasing competition, product similarity and substitutability on the tourism market (Usakli & Baloglu, 2011). Local tourism campaigns such as Shot'Left have resulted in the rise of destination branding in South Africa as different provinces are branding themselves, based on their main tourist attraction is be it historical, natural resources or the social life in that province (Shot'Left, 2007). South Africa is known for its monumental heritage sites, the African wildlife, the breathtaking coasts and the vivacious city of Johannesburg. South African provinces have since distinguished themselves from the other provinces by the uniqueness and authenticity of their offerings to gain competitive advantage (National Department of Tourism, 2012).

Specifically focusing on Johannesburg, it offers world-class infrastructure like the Gautrain, an 80-kilometer mass rapid transit railway system which links Johannesburg, Sandton, Pretoria, and O. R. Tambo International Airport (Walsh, 2013). Johannesburg enjoys some of the most sophisticated transport highway **i**nfrastructure on the continent, which includes multilane highways. Johannesburg also successfully hosted the opening and closing ceremonies of the World Cup in 2010, at the First National Bank Stadium, also known as Soccer City, a stadium located south of Johannesburg. Lorena, Bagarić and Lončarić (2013) indicated the growing importance of unique experiences that tourists expect from their stay in a destination; due to South Africa's political past Johannesburg offers monumental museums like the Apartheid Museum where visitors go on a visual tour of what it used to be like during Apartheid starting at the entrance of the museum (Brand South Africa, 2012). In the south of Johannesburg is the iconic Soweto, which is well known for the student uprising of 1976 and also found in Soweto is the Guinness World Records "Vilakazi Street", the only street in the world to have had two Noble Peace Prize recipients to have lived there, namely, Nelson Mandela and Archbishop emeritus, Desmond Tutu(Irwin, 2009).Visitors have options of what packages to choose when

visiting Vilakazi Street - it could be by bus, bicycle or on foot, depending on the experience they want (Brand South Africa, 2012).

1.1. TOURISM IN SOUTH AFRICA

The reason for this is the tourism industry continues to play an important role in the South African economy as a whole. According to the Statistics South Africa (2015) report, in 2013, tourism direct GDP was R103,6 billion in 2013, rising from R93,5 billion in 2012. The industry's contribution to total GDP remained stable at 2, 9% for both years. Domestic visitors contributed 57% (R124, 7 billion) of total tourism spend in 2013, while international visitors contributed 43% (R94, 2 billion) (Statistics South Africa, 2015). The report furthermore states that total tourism spending in 2013 was R218, 9 billion, a rise of 9, 7% from R199, 4 billion in 2012.International and domestic visitors have different spending habits. For every R100 spent by an international visitor in 2013, R27 was spent on non-specific products, R15 on tourism-connected products, R14 on accommodation, R12 on road transport and R12 on air transport; and R20 was spent on other products (Statistics South Africa, 2015). The major expenditure items for domestic visitors, for every R100 spent, were for road transport (R29), non-specific products (R19), accommodation (R15), air transport (R14), and tourism-connected products (R10),while R13 was spent on other products. During 2013, 14, 3 million non-resident visitors visited South Africa, increasing from 13, 1 million in 2012 and 12, 1 million in 2011.Rising visitor numbers and increased spending is bound to influence employment within the industry. The number of persons employed in the tourism industry increased by 9 854, from 645 755 persons in 2012 to 655 609 persons in 2013. The tourism industry employs about 4, 4% of all employed persons in South Africa (Statistics South Africa, 2015).

1.2. PROBLEM STATEMENT

Qu, Kim and Im (2011) studied intention to recommend and revisit a destination, however they did not investigate the attitudes of those respondents in terms of their willingness to recommend the destination. Chen and Tsai (2007) suggested that a destination's image influences the perceived value of that destination, however they did not assess how destination image influences an intention to recommend the destination. Fyall, Garrod and Wang (2012) examined the relationships between joy, love, positive surprise, unpleasantness, satisfaction, and behavioural intentions. Prayag, Hosany and Odeh, (2013) assessed the mediating effects of satisfaction and the relationship between emotions and behavioural intentions. This paper explored the gaps

from previous studies that have not been explored in the context of Johannesburg as a setting which would be advantageous for academic and practical use.

1.3. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to investigate the factors that influence the intention to recommend Johannesburg as a tourist destination based on the international student's perspectives.

1.4. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The section below lists the theoretical and empirical research objectives of this study.

1.1.1. THEORETICAL OBJECTIVES

The following theoretical objectives were developed

- To review literature on City Brand identity
- To review literature on City Rejuvenation
- To review literature on Destination Image
- To review literature on City Perception
- To review literature on Intention to Recommend
- To review literature on Destination Image
- To review literature on Destination Branding

1.1.2. EMPIRICAL OBJECTIVES

Given the purpose of the study, the following empirical objectives were developed

- To investigate the influence of City Rejuvenation on City Brand Identity
- To investigate the influence of City Rejuvenation on Destination Image
- To investigate the influence of City Rejuvenation on City Perception
- To investigate the influence of City Brand Identity on City Perception
- To investigate the influence of City Brand Identity on Destination Image
- To investigate the influence of Destination Image on City Perception
- To investigate the influence of City Brand Identity on Intention to Recommend
- To investigate the influence of Destination Image on Intention to Recommend

- To investigate the influence of City Perception on Intention to Recommend

1.5. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

RQ1: Does City Rejuvenation have a positive effect on City Brand Identity?

RQ2: Does City Rejuvenation have a positive effect on Destination Image?

RQ3: Does City Rejuvenation have a positive effect on City Perception?

RQ4: Does City Brand Identity have a positive effect on City Perception?

RQ5: Does City Brand Identity have a positive effect on Destination Image?

RQ6: Does Destination Image have a positive effect on City Perception?

RQ7: Does City Brand Identity have a positive effect on Intention to Recommend?

RQ8: Does Destination Image have a positive effect on Intention to Recommend?

RQ9: Does City Perception have a positive effect on Intention to Recommend?

1.6. RESEARCH LIMITATIONS

Although this dissertation provided a contribution to both theoretical development and empirical evidence on the research constructs, there were limitations in terms of the population sampled. Since these respondents sampled were all registered students, it implied that they had access to financial resources, and that a bias regarding their own perceptions of Johannesburg could have been created, due to education. The students' views can furthermore be generalised within the greater Johannesburg area. Other limitations were financial and time constraints, which led to the use of only registered students from the University of the Witwatersrand as the sample frame. However, future research would have more informed results if conducted on a larger scale.

1.7. JUSTIFICATION AND CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

This study contributes to existing literature on:

The relationship between City Rejuvenation and City Brand Identity

The relationship between City Rejuvenation and Destination Image

The relationship between City Rejuvenation and City Perception

The relationship between City Brand Identity and City Perception

The relationship between City Brand Identity and Destination Image

The relationship between Destination Image and City Perception

The relationship between City Brand Identity and Intention to Recommend

The relationship between Destination Image and Intention to Recommend

The relationship between City Perception and Intention to Recommend

1.8. OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH PROCESS

A scientific research approach was adopted for this thesis, which comprised of a well thought out, logical, organised and robust sequence of identifying problems, collecting data, analysing the data, and drawing valid conclusions. Firstly, the impetus of the research and main purpose of the study are elucidated. Secondly, literature relevant to the problem of research interest is reviewed. Thirdly, drawing from the reviewed theoretical and empirical literatures, a conceptual framework was built, and research hypotheses developed. Fourth, the development of hypotheses was then followed by measures of methodology, and data was collected thereafter. Fifth, the conceptualised model and posited hypotheses were empirically tested, using data collected, and the results were then interpreted. Lastly, closing remarks were provided, theoretical and practical implications of the thesis drawn, and suggestions for future research directions indicated. Figure 1 illustrates the six-stage research procedure followed by the author of this dissertation:

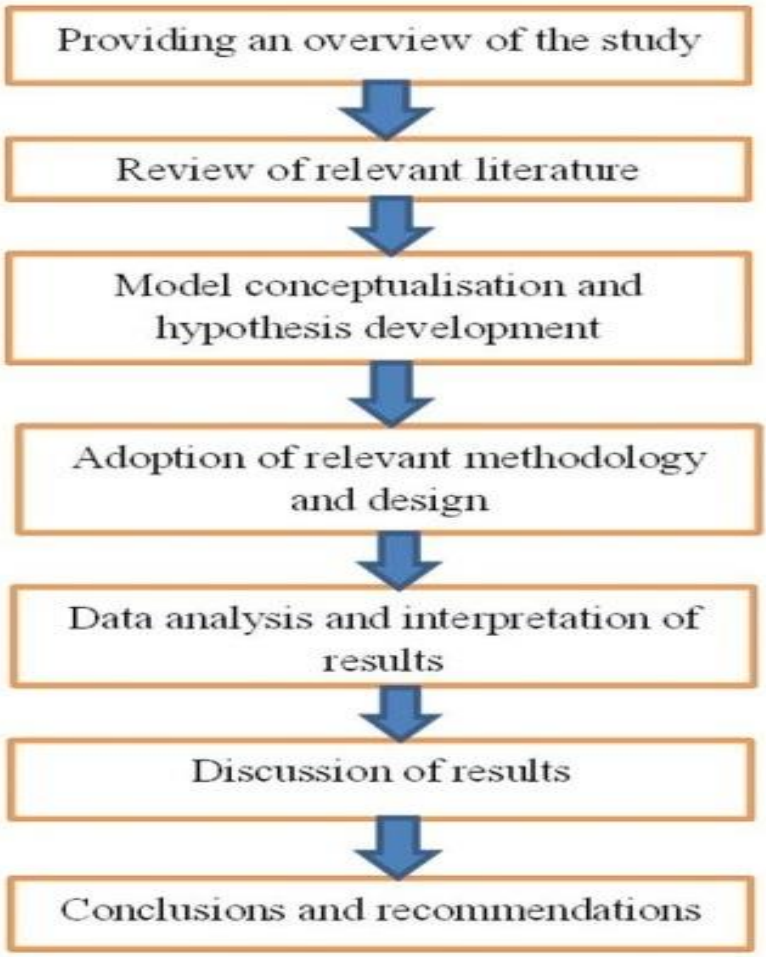


Figure 1: Structure of Dissertation

1.9. ORGANISATION OF THE DISSERTATION

This study is composed of the following six chapters:

- An overview of the study in Chapter 1 provides the introduction and explores the research background. It also provides the purpose of this research, research objectives and research questions. Moreover, it illustrates the flow of the research and the structure of the thesis.

- Literature review in Chapter 2 reviews both theories and empirical studies related to the essence of the thesis. In particular, on the theoretical aspect of this thesis, this chapter discusses in detail, the theories that were consulted for this study, namely the destination marketing theory, destination branding and the theory of destination image. On the

empirical aspect of this thesis, empirical studies regarding research constructs, i.e. city rejuvenation, city brand identity and city perception are examined.

- Conceptual model and hypothesis development is demonstrated in Chapter 3, where, based on the research constructs grounded in theory, a conceptual model is built and research hypotheses developed.

- Research methodology, data analysis and results in Chapter 4 provides the research sampling, measures and data collection procedure.

- Data measurement results in Chapter 5 details statistical techniques used to check for the measurement reliability, validity and the research model fit (confirmatory factor analysis - CFA) using SPSS 24 and AMOS 24 software. Hypotheses testing, where structural equation modelling (SEM), is used to empirically test the proposed research hypotheses follows. Finally, research findings are interpreted and presented.

- Conclusions, implications and overall thesis contributions are covered in Chapter 6: The overall concluding remarks informed by the findings of this thesis are thereafter provided. Practical recommendations to the practice of distribution channel management are provided. Finally, future research directions are indicated, and the overall thesis contributions provided.

1.10. SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 1

Chapter 1 comprises ten sections. The first section begins with an introduction to the research, which focuses on tourism, intention to recommend and thereafter, explores the various definitions of destination marketing. The second section explores the research background and takes a closer look at the tourism industry. The third section discusses the problem statement as the main motivation for this research. The forth section explores the purpose of the study. The fifth section outlines the research questions. In the sixth section, the limitations and challenges of the research are explored. The seventh section is made up of the justification of the study, as well as its intended contributions to the broader literature. The eighth section explores the overview of research, or the flow of research, that was used for this thesis. The ninth section details the organisational layout of the dissertation, and finally, the tenth section of Chapter 1 concludes the chapter, by providing a summary.

2. CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1. INTRODUCTION

The main aim of the literature review is to discuss key issues that relate to current literature relevant to the theoretical grounding and empirical literature of this dissertation. This chapter provides a detailed analysis of the relevant empirical studies and theoretical grounding that have dealt with the research topic, namely, factors that influence students' intention to recommend Johannesburg as a tourist destination. This chapter will describe the context of international candidates in different countries and the nature of tourism in different countries. This chapter discusses in detail the theories that were consulted for this study, namely the destination marketing theory, destination branding and the theory of destination image. The empirical literature review is also discussed in this chapter, whereby all the research constructs that were utilised for this study are explored, namely, city rejuvenation, city brand identity and city perception.

1.2. RESEARCH CONTEXT

1.1.1. INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS

Globalisation, as a 21st century phenomenon, has also led to a dramatic increase in student mobility (De Wit,2011). Politics and culture are also part of the new global realities. Academic systems and institutions may accommodate these developments in different ways. According to Dzvimbo and Moloi (2013) these phenomena include information technology in its various manifestations, the use of a common language for scientific communication, and the imperatives of both mass demand for higher education (massification) and societal needs for highly educated personnel. Academe is affected by, for example, patterns in the ownership of multinational publishing and internet companies, the expenditure of R&D funds worldwide, and international patterns of cultural diffusion (Gunter & Raghuram, 2017). All of these elements, and many more, are parts of a global environment that impacts higher education in different ways. Globalisation opens access and makes it easier for students and scholars to study and work anywhere. Globalisation has added a new dimension to existing disparities in higher education (Delgado-Márquez, Escudero-Torres, & Hurtado-Torres, 2013).

Globalization is defined as *"the process of convergence and integration over national borders, creating a 'single world market' and 'a common store of knowledge".* (De Wit, Agarwal, Said, Sehoole, & Sirozi, 2008, p. 28).

By some estimates, as indicated by Altbach, Reisberg and Rumbley (2010), the number of students studying outside of their own countries will rise to more than seven million by 2020. The flow of students, while reflecting national and institutional strategies, has mainly been the result of decisions made by individual students' worldwide (Altbach *et al*., 2010). This flow of students has been termed internationalisation.

Internationalisation is defined as "*The movement of students, scholars, and ideas across national boundaries."* (Hudzik, 2011, p.17).

It also refers to *"the growing flow of students and faculty globally and the formation of cross-border inter-institutional collaborations and partnership.of international scholars formed as a result at several prominent universities"* (Wildavsky, 2010, p.14).

Black, Kniveton, Skeldon, Coppard, Murata and Schmidt-Verkerk, (2008) observed that both internationalisation and globalisation are complex phenomena with many strands, and concludes that "the distinction between internationalisation and globalisation, although suggestive, cannot be regarded as categorical. They overlap, and are intertwined, in all kinds of ways". King, Findlay and Ahrens, (2010) note that globalisation initially seemed to be defined as the totality of substantial changes in the context and inner life of higher education, related to growing interrelationships between different parts of the world whereby national borders are blurred or even seem to vanish.

Altbach, Reisberg and Rumbley (2009) define globalisation *"as the reality shaped by an increasingly integrated world economy, new information and communications technology, the emergence of an international knowledge network, the role of the English language, and other forces beyond the control of academic institutions"*(Altbach, *et al*., 2009, p.23).

Internationalisation is defined "*as the variety of policies and programs that universities and governments implement to respond to globalization"* (Altbach, *et al*., 2009, p.24).

Most international students pay for their own studies, producing significant income for the host countries - and a drain on the economy of the developing world (Madge, Raghuram & Noxolo, 2015). According to estimates, the money spent abroad by students from some developing countries more than equals incoming foreign aid (Varghese, 2008) . Unfortunately, this important dimension tends to be superseded by economic concerns for those who associate the

influx of foreign students with income generation as the single most important aspect of internationalisation (Hazelkorn, 2015). These students, it is argued, come from relatively wealthy families or have international foundations as their sponsors.

UNESCO estimates that in 2007, there were more than 2.8 million internationally mobile students, an increase of some 53 percent over the estimated figure of 1.8 million in 2000. Attracting these students is clearly a "growth industry," with more than 7.2 million students expected to be studying outside their home countries by 2025 (Institute of International Education, 2008).

There is some evidence that "South-South" mobility is on the rise, with non-European and non-North American countries such as China, Egypt, Singapore, and South Africa, beginning to emerge as popular destinations for students from within their respective regions and beyond (De Wit *et al.,* 2008). However, the flow of students from the North to the South remains extremely small. For example, whereas in 2006/07, 35,802 African students came to the United States, only 10,066 US students studied in the whole of Africa—just 4.2 percent of the total US study-abroad population that year. By contrast, 138,871 American students were in Europe in 2006/07, representing 54.7 percent of all American students abroad (Institute of International Education, 2008).

1.1.2. INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS IN ASIA

East Asia and the Pacific

The East Asia and the Pacific region is expected to exceed enrolments of 100 million students between 2020 and 2021 and to exceed enrolments of 200 million between 2033 and 2034. By 2035, 42% of global enrolments (or 212.9 million enrolments) will be from this region, a sharp contrast to the 25% proportion it attained back in 2000 (University World News, 2017).

China will remain the country in the world with the highest number of students enrolled in higher education by 2035 (anywhere between 20% and 30% of the world's total). Other countries projected to have large numbers of enrolments by 2035 are Indonesia (world's top 10), and Vietnam, Malaysia and the Philippines (all three in the world's top 20).

Interestingly, the region that will stand out in around 20 years is South and West Asia. In 2000, the region had 12 million enrolments –or a share of 12% globally, increasing to 21.4 million enrolments by 2009.

South and West Asia

According to University World News (2017), by 2035, it is likely that South and West Asia will have about 125 million enrolments in higher education –a global share of 24%, making it the region with the second highest number of enrolments. In part, the growth in importance of this region is associated with the size of its population and its economic development, which is second to East Asia and the Pacific. India will remain in second place in terms of the number of enrolments. Iran and Bangladesh are expected to be in the world's top 10, whereas Pakistan is expected to be in the world's top 20 (Hazelkorn, 2015).

Recently, Malaysia was granted approval to establish the International and Comparative Education Society of Malaysia or ICESM in April. Malaysia's commitment and capacity to contribute to international and comparative education broadly, and in particular to Southeast Asian education research, has significantly increased (University World News, 2017).

ICESM, linked with the Centre for Research in International and Comparative Education, or CRICE, University of Malaya, aims to:

- Promote awareness and interest in international and comparative education in Malaysia;
- Investigate issues that affect educational policies and practice, broadly defined; and
- Advance research and training of this kind, especially in relation to Malaysia, and by extension, the Southeast Asian region.

1.1.3. INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS IN THE USA AND EUROPE

According to Findlay, King, Smith, Geddes and Skeldon (2012), the United Kingdom (UK) Higher Education International Unit has recently estimated the number of UK students studying abroad at 33,000.The most recent HESA (Higher Education Statistics Agency) data show that there are nearly 370,000 foreign students studying at UK universities. In other words, the number of foreign students in the UK is eleven times that of UK student's abroad (Findlay *et al.,* 2012). Whilst the UK comes second (after the US) in the global list of 'receiving' countries for foreign students, it ranks 22nd as a 'sending' country (Wilkins, Shams, & Huisman, 2013). Put another way, whilst foreign students account for 15% of the student population in UK

higher education institutions (HEIs), UK students abroad are only about 1.6% of the total population of UK students in higher education (Hazelkorn, 2015). The large number of foreign students in UK HEIs is a vindication of the quality of the UK's higher education system in the global market for HE. Moreover, overseas students' fees contribute nearly £2bn of UK universities' income (Wilkins *et al*.,2013).

However, the UK's low participation rate as a source country for ISM might be a cause for concern, since UK-origin students are missing out on the valuable experience of an international education, and potentially reducing their competitiveness on the global graduate labour market (Vossensteyn, Beerkens, Cremonini, Huisman, Souto-Otero, Bresancon, Focken, Leurs, McCoshan, Mozuraityte, & Bótas, 2010).

The ERASMUS programme is a case in point. ERASMUS is the largest mobility scheme for higher education in Europe and the flagship programme of the European Union (EU). Over 4,000 higher education institutions from over 30 countries take part in the programme. It currently enables around 200,000 students to study abroad each year. Since its inception in 1987, more than 2 million students have participated (Jones & de Wit, 2012). Its annual budget – mainly for student grants - was in 2011, in excess of 450 million Euro. However, ERASMUS is still far from achieving its 10% target of European higher education students being mobile during their studies. It has been estimated that just below 4% of the students use the opportunity of the ERASMUS programme to study abroad (Vossensteyn *et al*., 2010), despite analyses (Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011) pointing out that there is scope for an increase in international mobility across the globe, partly because of unmet demand (Chan, 2012).

First, regarding statistical trends, attention must be drawn to severe problems of measuring student mobility: different countries use different criteria so that a distribution map of UK students abroad can only be an approximation of the true picture (International Focus, 2010). Globally, student migration grows faster than overall migration: the US and the UK are the top destinations for degree mobility; China and India are the top origin countries. The UK's main destinations for degree mobility, according to the authors' best estimates, are the US, Canada, Australia, Ireland, France and Germany (De Wit, 2011).

The UK has low rates of both credit and degree mobility, compared to other European countries. Its rate of growth of degree ISM – 33% over the period 1975–2006 – is also low by

international standards (US 40%, Canada 207%, Germany 424%, and France 492%) (Cremonini & Antonowicz, 2009). On the Erasmus front, the UK has, again, the lowest participation rate and the biggest decline over the period 1994-05 to 2005-06. Other countries whose outgoing Erasmus numbers fell or stagnated over the same period – Ireland, the Netherlands, Sweden and Denmark – are all 'Anglophone-oriented', whereas those countries with strong Erasmus growth (France, Germany, Austria and southern EU countries) are not (Vossensteyn *et al.*, 2010).

The US has had the largest share of international students in the past decades, but mobility patterns have been relatively stable recently, with more than half a million foreign students entering the US on an annual basis (Bhandari & Blumenthal, 2011).Successful economies, such as the US, are those which rely on the ability to develop and exploit new knowledge for competitive advantage and performance through investment in knowledge- based and intellectual assets – R&D, software, design new process innovation, and human and organisational capital (Cremonini & Antonowicz, 2009).

North America traditionally had the greatest share of global enrolments. In 1999, there were 28.2 million enrolments in the region, which comprised 30% of all global enrolments. While the number of enrolments grew to 35.5 million by 2009, the share as a proportion of total global enrolments has progressively declined and by 2009 stood at 22%. This share is projected to drop below 20% by 2014 and by 2035 will represent 10% of global enrolments (Hudzik,2011).

By 2035, student enrolments in North America are projected to be 52 million. Countries with the largest number of enrolments are the United States (projected to remain in the world's top 10 by 2035), Germany (top 20 by 2035) and the United Kingdom (top 30 by 2035) (University World News, 2017).

1.1.4. INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS IN SA

Across Africa, there have been several other significant investigations that deliberate the potential, feasibility and developmental role of tourism for the promotion of economic growth, employment opportunities, sustainable development and poverty alleviation (Rogerson, 2007). Many studies center on identifying the major constraining factors for tourism expansion across the continent, including the limitations imposed by existing air transport networks and regulatory frameworks (Fourie, 2009); the lack of skilled labour resources (Mayaka & Akama, 2007);

weak institutional frameworks (Rogerson, 2012). In these investigations, tourism is portrayed as having considerable 'unrealised potential' across many parts of Africa, despite having developed unevenly across the continent, with some countries and regions benefiting much more than others (Rogerson, 2012).

Known worldwide as the Rainbow Nation, South Africa is emerging as an important regional hub for international students. However, domestic demand for university education – coupled with financial pressures and low student completion rates – is straining the country's higher education system and leaving many South African students without sufficient education or skills to enter the labour market (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2011). This does not bode well for any alleviation of South Africa's unemployment rate, which hovers around 25% and which is particularly hard on the country's youth (Saarinen & Rogerson, 2014). The, *ICEF Monitor* (2017) looks at South Africa's rise as a destination country for international students as well as current issues in its higher education system.

In 2011, more than 68,000 international students were enrolled in South African universities, and of those, nearly 40,000 studied on campus while the rest were distance education students. Saarinen and Rogerson, (2014) states the quality of education and research distinguishes South Africa from other African countries. Especially the level of public universities goes unrivaled.

This is just one of the reasons behind South Africa's increased popularity with international university students. Other factors include its affordable standard of living, relatively straightforward visa processes, and distance learning offerings, including Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) (Healey, 2008). South Africa's appeal also extends to its English language travel industry, which in 2013, experienced strong growth in EFL enrolment, as compared to 2012 and 2011 (Hamilton & Webster, 2015). However, providers still struggle to promote South Africa as a viable and safe study destination and are calling for more government support and broader accreditation initiatives. South Africa is an increasingly popular destination of choice for Africa's mobile students. The French government's 2013 report on *La mobilité des étudiants d'Afrique sub-saharienne et du Maghreb* found that:

"Of the 380,376 African students electing to study abroad in 2010 (representing roughly 10% of the world's international students), 29.2% went to France, allowing France to retain its position as the number 1 destination for African international students. However, South Africa,

the number 2 destination, has been gaining in market share relative to France since the last time the study was conducted. Its share of 15% of African students represents an increase of 28.8% since 2006, versus France's decrease of 1% in that time."

In the last decade, South Africa has emerged as the African continent's main hub for English-speaking students, and it is especially popular with students from Zimbabwe, Namibia, Botswana, and Lesotho (Rienties, Beausaert, Grohnert, Niemantsverdriet, & Kommers, 2012).

South Africa's universities are actively recruiting international students. The University of the Witwatersrand, for example, has launched a strategy to increase the number of international graduate students to 18% of the total student body. It is targeting students in the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC), as well as those in Ghana, Nigeria, Kenya, and other African nations.

As part of its efforts to attract top African graduate students, the University of the Witwatersrand is offering affordable accommodation, a special fund to support international students, better service delivery from its international office, and a "fee rebate system," which would see fees refunded if a degree is obtained within the minimum time. Perhaps most importantly, it is also reviewing its financial aid system and has set aside R90 million (US $8.7 million) for graduate bursaries.

South Africa is also attracting students from overseas. It is one of the world's top 20 destinations for students from the US. The number of American students studying in South Africa increased by 4.7% between 2010/11 and 2011/12.

Work to be done regarding international student integration

According to the ICEF Monitor (2013) South Africa may be courting international students, but some reports claim it could do better at integrating them well once they are enrolled at university. Conceptual research undertaken by the University of Witwatersrand's Dr Yasmine Dominguez-Whitehead and Nevensha Sing found that South African universities typically did not provide sufficient support for international students and were trapped by a discriminatory policy that differentiated between African students and those from the rest of the world…". Indeed, the researchers found that "non-academic challenges" – like prejudice, discrimination,

homesickness, and financial assistance – were not receiving adequate attention (ICEF Monitor ,2013).

1.1.5. PUBLIC INSTITUTION OF HIGHER LEARNING IN JOHANNESBURG

For the purposes of this paper, a university is defined as an accredited, degree-granting, post-secondary institution (Patsika, 2015). In 2004, South Africa started reforming its higher education system, merging and incorporating small universities into larger institutions, and renaming all higher education institutions "university" (previously there had been several types of higher education institution). The University of Johannesburg (UJ) came into existence on 1 January 2005 as the result of a merger between the Rand Afrikaans University (RAU), the Technikon Witwatersrand (TWR) and the Soweto and East Rand campuses of Vista University. Prior to the merger, the Daveyton and Soweto campuses of the former Vista University had been incorporated into RAU. As a result of the merger of Rand Afrikaans University (RAU), it is common for alumni to refer to the university as RAU (Goldman, & Van Tonder, 2006).

Public TVET colleges try as far as possible to facilitate job shadowing and practical workplace opportunities for top performing students. Many campuses also operate simulated enterprises to augment the need for practical exposure related to the course of study.

Ekurhuleni West TVET College

Central Johannesburg TVET College

Ekurhuleni East TVET College

South West TVET College

Western TVET College

1.1.6. WHY INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS CHOOSE WITS

According to Times Higher Education World University Ranking (2015-2016), rankings indicated that South Africa's university system was the strongest in the continent; Wits University was ranked number two in the continent. The rankings are mainly based on the research, a strong international outlook and the institution's ability to attract large sums of money from industry. The University of the Witwatersrand (Wits University) Alumni include a long list of global leaders in politics, such as the icon Nelson Mandela who studied a Law degree and industry leaders, such as Patrice Motsepe. In 2015, Wits University announced the discovery of a new species of human relative which was named "Homo Naledi" which is indicative of Wits University's continued research.These dimensions play an important role with regards to

Wits University's brand equity as it creates competitive advantages.The concept of brand as organisation as alluded to by (Edwards, 2009)in his study, identifies that brand as organisation perspective considers the organisation as the whole (people, value, and programmes). The corporate brand can play an important role, and it can represent something beyond merely being known by its products or services, which is exactly what Wits University represents. According to the Times Higher Education Alma Mater Index which ranks the real-world success of a University's alumni by ranking the universities according to the number of their graduates that are currently CEOs of Fortune Global 500 companies and based on 2013 data, Wits University was ranked number 1 in the country (Times, 2013).As academic systems become more similar and academic degrees more widely accepted internationally, as immigration rules are tailored to people with high skill levels, Wits University has been more open to hiring the best talent worldwide.

Research universities, such as Wits University, are at the pinnacle of the academic system and are key drivers of the global knowledge network. They require major expenditures to build and are expensive to maintain. Their facilities including laboratories, libraries, and information and technology infrastructures must be maintained to the highest international standards. Research production in key areas, such as information technology and the life sciences, has become extremely important, not just to the prestige of individual institutions but also to national development agendas.

Acting President of the SRC, Shaeera Kalla, indicated that "the SRC aims to create a platform for international students to feel comfortable enough to speak about their issues without feeling it is just going to be dismissed". The SRC has an international student's officer, which encourages international students to voice their concerns as well as 15 international student associations on campus.

1.1.7. STUDY DEMARCATION AREA: JOHANNESBURG

The City of Johannesburg is the largest and most populous city in South Africa. The city is affectionately known as "Jo'burg", "Jozi" and "JHB" by South Africans. Johannesburg is the provincial capital of Gauteng Province, the wealthiest province in South Africa, and fourth largest economy in Sub-Saharan Africa (Chinomona, & Maziriri, 2015). The city is one of the 40 largest metropolitan areas in the world, and Africa's only officially designated global city. Johannesburg houses the Constitutional Court, the highest court in South Africa. Johannesburg

is also served by O. R. Tambo International Airport, the largest and busiest airport in Africa and a gateway for international air travel to and from the rest of Southern Africa (Ejoke& Ani, 2017). Johannesburg has all the modern amenities of a large metropolitan region (population over 7 million), including fascinating cultural attractions, art galleries, museums, shopping, and restaurants. The city's vibrancy is a reflection of the diversity of its people and its often turbulent history (Callaghan & Venter 2011). There are a number of tourist attractions in Johannesburg which includes a number of diverse museums, outdoor spaces and nature reserves, sport and extreme sports, markets and shopping centers, etc(Chinomona & Maziriri, 2015).

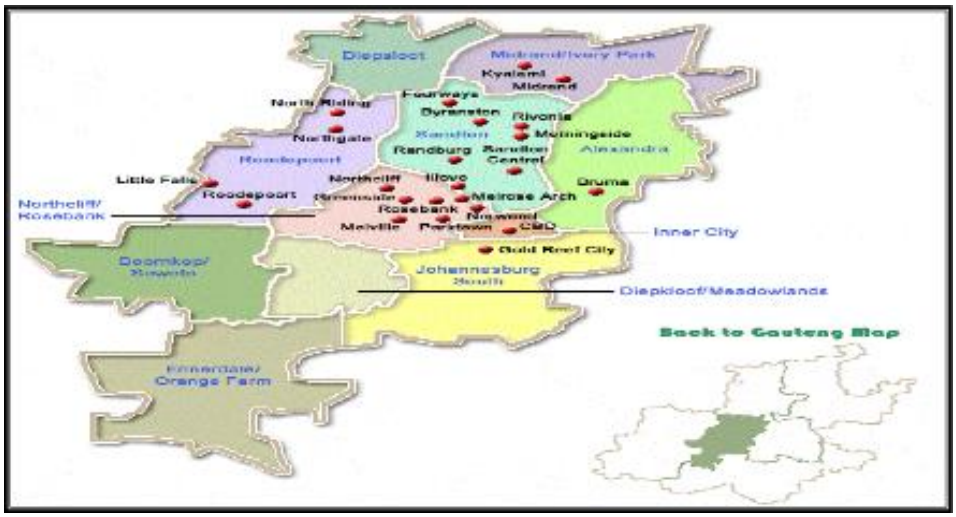


Figure 2: Map of Johannesburg

Source: Chinomona and Maziriri, (2015)

1.1.8. TOURISM IN SOUTH AFRICA

The reason for this is the tourism industry continues to play an important role in the South African economy as a whole. According to the Statistics South Africa (2015) report, in 2013 Tourism direct GDP was R103, 6 billion in 2013, rising from R93, 5 billion in 2012. The industry's contribution to total GDP remained stable at 2,9% for both years. Domestic visitors contributed 57% (R124,7 billion) of total tourism spending in 2013, while international visitors contributed 43% (R94,2 billion) (Statistics South Africa, 2015). The report furthermore states that total tourism spending in 2013 was R218, 9 billion, a rise of 9, 7% from R199, 4 billion in 2012. International and domestic visitors have different spending habits (Visser & Hoogendoorn, 2015). For every R100 spent by an international visitor in 2013, R27 was spent on non-specific products, R15 on tourism-connected products, R14 on accommodation, R12 on road transport and R12 on air transport; and R20 was spent on other products (Statistics South Africa, 2015). The major expenditure items for domestic visitors, for every R100 spent,

were for road transport (R29), non-specific products (R19), accommodation (R15), air transport (R14), and tourism-connected products (R10), R13 was spent on other products. During 2013, 14,3 million non-resident visitors visited South Africa, increasing from 13,1 million in 2012 and 12,1 million in 2011 (Cornelissen,2017). Rising visitor numbers and increased spending is bound to influence employment within the industry. The number of persons employed in the tourism industry increased by 9 854, from 645 755 persons in 2012 to 655 609 persons in 2013. The tourism industry employs about 4, 4% of all employed persons in South Africa (Statistics South Africa, 2015).

1.1.9. TOURISM IN ASIA

Specifically focusing on tourism in India, this is economically important and is growing rapidly. The World Travel & Tourism Council (2016) calculated that tourism generated US$220 billion or 9.6% of the nation's GDP in 2016 and supported 40.343 million jobs, 9.3% of its total employment. The sector is predicted to grow at an annual rate of 6.8% to US$440 billion by 2027 (10% of GDP). In October 2015, India's medical tourism sector was estimated to be worth US$3 billion. It is projected to grow to $7–8 billion by 2020. In 2014, 184,298 foreign patients travelled to India to seek medical treatment (The World Travel & Tourism Council, 2016).

About 8.89 million foreign tourists arrived in India in 2016 compared to 8.027 million in 2015, recording a growth of 10.7%. Domestic tourist visits to all states and Union Territories numbered 1,036.35 million in 2012, an increase of 16.5% from 2011. In 2014, Tamil Nadu, Maharashtra and Uttar Pradesh were the most popular states for tourists. Delhi, Mumbai, Chennai, Agra and Jaipur have been the five most visited cities of India by foreign tourists during the year 2015 (Dwyer, Čorak, & Tomljenović, 2017). Worldwide, Delhi is ranked at 28 by the number of foreign tourist arrivals, while Mumbai is ranked at 30, Chennai at 43, Agra at 45, Jaipur at 52 and Kolkata at 90. According to the Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Report (2017), India is ranked 40th out of 136 countries overall. The report ranks the price competitiveness of India's tourism sector 10th out of 136 countries. It mentions that India has quite good air transport (ranked 32nd), particularly given the country’s stage of development, and reasonable ground transport infrastructure (ranked 29th) (Dwyer *et al.*, 2017). The country also scores high on natural and cultural resources (ranked 9th). The World Tourism Organisation (2012) reported that India's receipts from tourism during 2012 ranked 16th in the world, and 7th among Asian and Pacific countries.

The Ministry of Tourism designs national policies for the development and promotion of tourism. In the process, the Ministry consults and collaborates with other stakeholders in the sector, including various Central Ministries/agencies, state governments, Union Territories and the representatives of the private sector (Leung & Baloglu, 2013).Concerted efforts are being made to promote new forms of tourism, such as rural, cruise, medical and eco-tourism. The Ministry also maintains the Incredible India campaign. Despite the rich cultural and natural heritage which India possesses, the security issues and crime, especially against female visitors, form a persisting problem that has plagued the Indian tourism industry (Claveria & Poluzzi, 2017).

1.1.10. TOURISM IN THE USA

Tourism in the United States is a large industry that serves millions of international and domestic tourists yearly. Tourists visit the US to see natural wonders, cities, historic landmarks, and entertainment venues. Americans seek similar attractions, as well as recreation and vacation areas (Stowe, 2017).

Tourism in the United States grew rapidly in the form of urban tourism during the late nineteenth and early twentieth century's (Antoniadis, Vrana, & Zafiropoulos, 2014). By the 1850s, tourism in the United States was well established, both as a cultural activity and as an industry (Antoniadis *et al.*, 2014). New York, Chicago, Boston, Philadelphia, Washington, D.C., and San Francisco, all major US cities, attracted a large number of tourists by the 1890s. By 1915, city touring had marked significant shifts in the way Americans perceived, organised, and moved (Antoniadis *et al*., 2014)

Democratisation of travel occurred during the early twentieth century when the automobile revolutionised travel. Similarly, air travel revolutionised travel during 1945–1969, contributing greatly to tourism in the United States. Purchases of travel and tourism-related goods and services by international visitors travelling in the United States totalled $10.9 billion during February 2013 (Mariani, Di Felice & Mura, 2016). The travel and tourism industry in the United States was among the first commercial casualties of the September 11, 2001 attacks, a series of terrorist attacks on the US. Terrorists used four commercial airliners as weapons of destruction, all of which were destroyed in the attacks (Mariani *et al*.,2016).In the US, tourism is either the first, second, or third largest employer in 29 states, employing 7.3 million in 2004, to take care of 1.19 billion trips tourists took in the US in 2005. As of 2007, there are 2,462 registered National Historic Landmarks (NHL) recognised by the United States government.

As of 2016, Orlando is the most visited destination in the United States (Munar, Gyimóthy& Cai, 2013).

Tourists spend more money in the United States than any other country, while attracting the second-highest number of tourists after France. The discrepancy may be explained by longer stays in the US (Munar *et al*.,2013).

1.1.11. TOURISM IN THE UK

The United Kingdom is the world's 8th biggest tourist destination, with 36.115 million visiting in 2015. US$22.072 billion was spent in the UK by foreign tourists. According to VisitBritain (2017), data shows that the U.S. remains the most valuable inbound market, with American visitors spending £2.1 billion in 2010. Nevertheless, the number of travellers originating from Europe is larger than those travelling from North America - 21.5 million compared to 3.5 million American/Canadian visitors. The country's principal tourist destinations are in London, with the Tower of London being the single most visited attraction in the country (Schegg & Stangl, 2017).

Domestic tourism remains the biggest component of tourist spending in the UK, with 2008 expenditures totalling £21,881 million, according to VisitBritain (2017).The national statistical agency also estimates that there were 126 million trips made in 2009. The busiest period for domestic travel in the UK is during bank holidays and the summer months, with August being the busiest (Hjalager, 2010).

There is a longstanding history in the UK of travel to coastal resorts such as Blackpool, Lancashire and Swansea, Wales, with many families staying at accommodation called holiday camps (Mendes-Filho & Tan, 2009). This tradition has faded significantly due to competition from overseas package holiday operators, rising operational costs, and rapidly changing demand which forced many holiday camps to close in the 1980s and 1990s (Gibson, 2017).

1.1.12. 2.3 THEORATICAL FRAMEWORK

1.1.1.1. 2.3.1 THEORY OF DESTINATION IMAGE

The theory of destination image can be explained by either the internal motivation of tourists or the external motivation originating from the destination (Li & Stepchenkova,2012). The evaluation and analysis of destination image has been the subject of much attention in related

academic literature, and has made a significant contribution to a greater understanding of tourist behaviour. Martin and Del Bosque (2008) include terms such as impression and perception of tourists to describe the concept of destination image.

Recent authors, Chen and Tsai (2007) consider image as a concept formed by the consumer's reasoned and emotional interpretation as the consequence of two closely interrelated components: perceptive/cognitive evaluations referring to the individual's own knowledge and beliefs about the object (an evaluation of the perceived attributes of the object), and affective appraisals relating to an individual's feelings towards the object (Govers & Kumar, 2007).

From a theoretical point of view, there is general agreement that the cognitive component is an antecedent of the affective component and that the evaluative responses of consumers stem from their knowledge of the objects (Prayag & Ryan, 2012). In addition, the combination of these two factors produces an overall, or compound, image relating to the positive, or negative, evaluation of the product or brand. In the context of tourism, Chen and Tsai, (2007) state that past authors show empirically that these perceptual/cognitive and affective evaluations have a direct influence on the overall image, and also that the former, through the latter, has an indirect influence on that image (Govers & Kumar, 2007).

This lack of a universally accepted, valid, and reliable scale for the measurement of image led to the proposal of a frame incorporating every aspect of a destination which could potentially be used as an instrument of measurement (Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010). To that end, and following a review of the attractions and attributes included in the existing scales, all factors influencing the image assessments made by individuals were incorporated and classified into nine dimensions (Prayag, 2009)(Table 1). The selection of the attributes used in designing a scale will depend largely on the attractions of each destination, on its positioning, and on the objectives of the assessment of perceived image, which will also determine whether specific or more general attributes are chosen.

Tourism Environmental Resources (TENV)		Tourism-Created Resources (TCRE)	
Natural	Cultural and Social	Tourism Infrastructure	Tourism Super-structure
General topography	Music	Accommodation facilities	Accommodation services
Scenery and nature	Traditions	F&B facilities	F&B services
Flora, fauna, and biodiversity	Gastronomy	Recreational facilities	Entertainment (nightlife, bars, discos, and danc clubs)
Beaches	Traditional arts and handwork	Sport facilities	
Mountains	History	Amusement/theme parks	Other entertainment (theaters, galleries, and cinemas)
Rivers, lakes, sea, oceans, and waterfalls	Architectural attractions	Health resorts, spas	
Climate	Clothing	Casinos	Recreational services
Sun, snow, and wind	Language	Other built tourism infrastructures	Health services for visitors
Cleanliness/ sanitation	Hospitality	Etc.	Wellness and thermal spa offer
Space	Friendliness		Events
Etc.	Openness		Shopping
	Religion		Tourist guidance, information, and programs fc visitors
	Safety		Other tourist services
	Etc.		Etc.

Table 1: List of Resources

Source: Chen and Tsai, (2007) adopted from Dwyer and Kim (2003).

1.1.1.2. DIMENSIONS/ATTRIBUTES DETERMINING DESTINATION IMAGE

According to Byon and Zhang (2009), personal and stimulus factors acted as forces upon the destination image. The personal factors comprised psychological factors, such as consumers' values, motivations, and personality; and the social factors which are the consumers' age, marital status, and others (Prayag, Hosany, Muskat, & Del Chiappa, 2017).The stimulus factors referred to information sources, the consumers' previous experience, and the distribution channels. When these two different factors are applied to the destination image, it creates different evaluations of the image (Kastenholz, 2010). The perceptual/cognitive evaluation is based on the beliefs or knowledge about the destination, while the affective evaluation refers to the consumers' emotions towards a destination image (Prayag *et al*., 2017). Further, the perceptual cognitive evaluation and the affective evaluation create a global image of the destination. Moreover, researchers also found that the affective component is formed, based on a function of the cognitive component (Veasna, Wu, & Huang, 2013). The combination of the two components results in an overall image which is related to positive or negative evaluation of a destination (Tasci & Gartner, 2007).

1.3. THEORY OF DESTINATION BRANDING

The theory of destination branding basically looks at tourist behaviours that are influenced by the total impressions of the destination, which is the combination of the cognitive, unique, and affective image components (García, Gómez, & Molina, 2012).

Destination marketing which is an important aspect when defining the concept of destination branding is defined "a*s the process of matching destination resources with environment opportunities with the wider interests of society in mind"* (Pike &Page, p.219, 2014).

Pike (2009) defines "*Destination branding is the set of marketing activities that (1) support the creation of a name, symbol, logo, word mark or other graphic that readily identifies and differentiates a destination; that (2) consistently convey the expectation of a memorable travel experience that is uniquely associated with the destination; that (3) serve to consolidate and reinforce the emotional connection between the visitor and the destination; and that (4) reduce consumer search costs and perceived risk. Collectively, these activities serve to create a destination image that positively influences consumer destination choice"* (Pike, p.860, 2009).

It is said to possess the natural comparative advantages such as a salubrious climate, pristine coral reefs, compelling architectural heritage, a smorgasbord of culinary offerings, rich and vibrant cultures and friendly and welcoming people; many small countries have deliberately chosen tourism as a development option (Pike, 2014).

Two of the most important factors influencing the competitiveness of destruction are destination governance and destination branding (Hudson & Ritchie, 2009). Destination branding is instrumental in managing the fragmented and complex nature of tourist destination effectively, while destination branding is important because it enhances a destination's positioning and exerts considerable influence over tourists' choices and their satisfaction (Balakrishnan, 2009).

Broadly speaking, destination branding can be defined "*as the dynamic process of drawing support and cooperation from different stakeholders so that the brand will be accepted communicated and manifested through official and unofficial publicity and products*" (García *et al*., p 656, 2012).

Another conceptual framework that more directly relates to destination branding has been enunciated by Jetter and Chen (2011). Their proposed framework is built around the concept of *brand networks* in which place branding performs four main functions. These are (1) brands

as communicators, where brands "represent a mark of ownership, and a means of product differentiation manifested in legally protected names, logos, and trademarks"; (2) brands as perceptual entities, "which appeal to the consumer senses, reasons, and emotions; (3) "brands as value enhancers," which has led to the concept of *brand equity*; and (4) "brands as relationships," where the brand is construed as having a personality which enables it to form a relationship with the consumer.

Mariani, Buhalis, Longhi, and Vitouladiti's (2014) general model of the place brand, postulates place as "relational brand networks" in which the place brand is represented by a core brand and four categories of brand relationships (consumer relationships, primary service relationships, brand infrastructure relationships, and media relationships) that enhance the brand reality and the brand experience.

Further to the foregoing, branding provides numerous additional functions for both buyers and sellers. Since brands ultimately serve as "symbol(s) around which relationships are built" (Fyall, Garrod, & Wang, 2012), it follows that logo design can be considered a key component of branding. While the brand symbol may encompass a distinguishing name, logo, trademark, or package design, logos often become a central brand image representation of products, services, or destinations.

For tourism destinations, we strongly support the idea that the concept of the visitor *experience* (Chen, & Tsai, 2007) needs to be incorporated into the process of branding. Research has demonstrated that although visitors purchase individual tourism services, the entire visitor experience is what is effectively being bought (Fyall *et al*., 2012). In an attempt to incorporate the importance of the symbolic representation of the brand, we note further that Zmyslony and Zmyślony (2014) quoted Morgan, Pritchard and Pride, (2011) have defined a "destination brand as

"a name, symbol, logo, word mark or other graphic that both identifies and differentiates the destination; furthermore, it conveys the promise of a memorable travel experience that is uniquely associated with the destination; it also serves to consolidate and reinforce the recollection of pleasurable memories of the destination experience" (Morgan, et al.,p.9, 2011).

Brand identity reflects the contribution of all brand elements to awareness and image (Pike & Page, 2014). It provides a direction, purpose, and meaning for the brand and is central to a brand's strategic vision and the driver of brand associations (Ashworth & Page, 2011).

On the other hand, brand image can be defined "*as consumer perceptions of a brand as reflected by the brand associations held in the consumer's memory"* (Mariani, p.274, 2014).

To brand a destination, the sender (i.e., destination marketers) projects a destination brand identity through all the features and activities that differentiate the destination from other competing destinations (Williams, Williams & Omar, 2014).

1.4. EMPIRICAL REVIEW

1.1.1. CITY BRAND IDENTITY

The literature offers various definitions of the term "brand", the key being the understanding of what one wishes to achieve with a particular brand. The American Marketing Association defines a brand as a name, term, design, symbol or any other feature that identifies one seller's goods or service as distinct from those of another (Hudson & Ritchie, 2009).

A brand is defined *as a set of physical attributes of a product or service, together with the beliefs and expectations surrounding it – a unique combination which the name or logo of the product or service should evoke in the mind of the audience* (Bui & Perez, p.9,2010).

Govers and Go (2009) state that what is essential in place branding is 'the link between identity, experience and image'. It is widely believed that if the brand is not based on identity, then the branding effort can only lead to a brand alien to the place, particularly to its internal audiences (Hudson & Ritchie, 2009). It is thus the contention of this article by (Morgan, *et al.*,p.9, 2011) that in order to advance the theory of place branding, a clearer link has to be established to place identity. This is neither easy nor straightforward as identity is a particularly complex construct.

Creswell and Hoskins,p.398 (2008) defined "*place identity as a substructure of self-identity, consisting of cognitions about the physical world. They clarify that these cognitions evolve through a person's 'selective engagement with the environment, that 'other people are important in shaping the place identity', and that 'place identity will be modified over the course of an individual's lifecycle"*

Kalandides (2011) draws upon the work of Massey (1994) to show that place is absolutely not a static construct, that boundaries are not necessary for the conceptualisation of places, and that places do not have single fixed identities as they are full of internal conflicts. Importantly for our approach to place branding, Massey (1994) has convincingly argued against the depiction

of places as having single, essential identities, which leads to the drawing of boundaries that separate the inside from the outside. Kalandides (2011) identifies five elements of place identity: place image (which is thought of as a non-evaluated reputation), materiality (buildings, streets, squares, etc.), institutions (laws, regulations, organisations, etc.), relations (of power, class, gender, production, etc.), and people and their practices (i.e. traditions, repetitive actions, every-day life, etc.). Kalandides (2011) comments that all these signify that place identities are processes rather than outcomes, which is essential for our identity-based place branding approach.

Kavaratzis and Hatch, (2013) drew their process-based approach **(Figure 3)** from Hatch and Schultz (2002); this approach attempts to transfer the understanding of places as "continually produced and reproduced in interaction with their surroundings" to the place brand level. The model offers an explanation of identity that resonates significantly with the place identity literature while integrating co-creation of brands and offering itself to a description of the role of branding within the identity process.

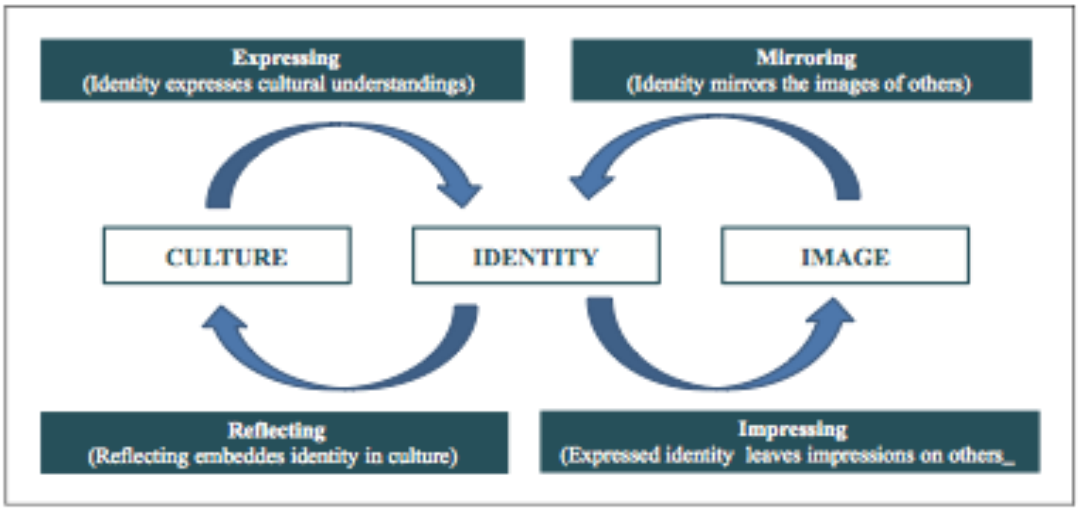


Figure 3: Figure showing dynamics of organisation identity model

Source: Kavaratzis and Hatch, (2013)

The dynamics of organisation identity model (Figure 3) describes identity as a dynamic process that consists of four sub-processes that take place simultaneously. Interplay between the three elements of culture, identity, and image lies at the heart of the model, so it is necessary first to examine their definitions (Kavaratzis& Kalandides, 2015). In fact, the definition of identity is what initially inspired our approach to place branding. As mentioned earlier, a common view of identity is that it is internal to the place. Kalandides (2012) maintains that culture is the context of internal definitions of identity while image is the site of external definitions of identity and how these two definitions influence each other is the process of identity. This clearly goes against current place branding practice and much of place branding theory in that it defines identity not as internal, but as arising from interaction between the two. In essence, image and identity should be thought of as two sides of the same coin, neither of which has meaning without the other. In fact, similar to the argument developed here, Aitken and Campelo (2011) proposed a re-examination of the meaning of the term 'image' from the common 'sum of individual perceptions' to 'a shared reality, dynamically constructed through social interaction'.

Kavaratzis and Hatch (2013) then describe the links between culture, identity, and image. They argue that these three basic elements are connected through four parallel sub-processes (Figure 3). In their view, identity is an ongoing conversation between culture and image/images that implicates interplay between the sub-processes. The first link is the process of expressing by which identity expresses cultural understandings or the process by which culture 'makes itself known through identity claims' (Kalandides, 2012). The second link is the process of impressing by which the 'expressed identity leaves impressions on others'. The third link is the process of mirroring by which 'identity mirrors the images of others' (Creswell & Hoskins, 2008). The fourth link is the process of reflecting by which 'identity is embedded in cultural understandings' (Campelo, Aitken, Thyne, & Gnoth, 2014). To put it differently, the internally informed aspect of identity (culture) is expressed by and expresses facets of the culture of the place, while this new round of internally formed and expressed identity leaves impressions on external stakeholders (images), which return the favour by informing the internally shaped aspects of identity by 'holding a mirror' to them. As the conversation continues, identity is enriched and the enriched identity is absorbed back into the culture through reflection (Kavaratzis & Hatch, 2013). Culture thereby changes such that any new cultural understandings will be expressed on the next round of expression from within the place to reframe and additionally inform the identity. The process is not a linear one and repeats itself, so one can never form a complete understanding of what an identity is. As Campelo (2014) put it: the interplay among

the four processes of expressing, impressing, mirroring constructs identity, 'which then becomes an ongoing conversation or dance between culture and images' (Campelo*et al*., 2014).

1.1.2. CITY REJUVENATION

There can be little doubt that tourist areas are dynamic, that they evolve and change over time. This evolution is brought about by a variety of factors including changes in the preferences and needs of visitors, the gradual deterioration and possible replacement of physical plant and facilities, and the change (or even disappearance) of the original natural and cultural attractions which were responsible for the initial popularity of the area (Butler, 2009). The pattern which is put forward here is based upon the product cycle concept, whereby sales of a product proceed slowly at first, experience a rapid rate of growth, stabilise, and subsequently decline; in other words, a basic asymptotic curve is followed (Hudson & Ritchie, 2009). As the attractiveness of the area declines relative to other areas, because of overuse and the impacts of visitors, the actual number of visitors may also eventually decline.

On the other hand, rejuvenation may occur, although it is almost certain that this stage will never be reached without a complete change in the attractions on which tourism is based. Two ways of accomplishing this goal can be seen at present. One is the addition of a man-made attraction. Obviously, though, if neighbouring and competing areas follow suit, the effectiveness of the measure will be reduced (Sanz-Ibáñez & Clavé, 2014). According to Chow and Healey (2008), an alternative approach to rejuvenation is to take advantage of previously untapped natural resources. The development of new facilities becomes economically feasible, and simultaneously serves to revitalise the tourist attraction. As new forms of recreation appear, it is not impossible that other tourist areas will find previously unappreciated natural resources to develop.

In many cases, combined government and private efforts are necessary, and the new market may be not the allocentric section of the population (which would suggest a recommencement of the complete cycle), but rather a specific interest or activity group. Ultimately, however, it can be expected that even the attractions of the rejuvenated tourist area will lose their competitiveness (Qu, Kim & Im, 2011).

Tier 3 presents the identified upper level process components of public policy, resources, operating environment, and corporate governance reinforcing the linkages between regeneration and business strategies with competitiveness. Public Policy explains the effect of good govern-

ance by public authorities to enhance the sustainability and competitiveness of cities. Resources relate to building up of human resources and social environment with funding arrangements to facilitate the delivery of regeneration and business strategies for competitiveness. Operating environment relates to the macro and micro economic conditions in a city to attract socially and environmentally responsible investment. Corporate governance refers to maintaining a balance between economic, social and environmental goals by employing the social responsibility of business sector, in partnership with government and community.

The six identified operational components of physical environment, social capital, finance, development, investment and use/occupier's potential is further discussed.

Each operational component is defined through a set of critical factors identified from regeneration and a property related business perspective. A total of 32 factors have been identified from the literature and subsequently defined and verified through the expert opinion (eight physical environment, four social capital, three finance, seven development, four investment, and six use/occupier's potential). Each factor is further defined through a set of one or more criteria considered necessary for a city seeking to promote its competitiveness through regeneration and property linked business strategies.

As an example, the factor (relating to physical environment component) 'responsive quality-led built environment' is defined through the criteria (i) creating necessary additional floor space for urban use through reclamation of brownfields; (ii) encouraging occupancy of new spaces through mixed use developments, maximising the usage of commercial and residential activities; and (iii) increasing investment by the public and private sector to create successful and sustainable mixed use developments. Likewise, the factor (relating to development component) 'creating synergy within the commercial sector' is defined through the criteria (i) promoting diversity within the commercial sector providing vitality and viability, and strengthening the economic capacity of the commercial core of the city; (ii) promoting positive impacts of large stores by increasing footfall, enhancing retail expenditure patterns and attracting other retail operators; and (iii) managing impact of market concentration by large stores on small businesses, suppliers, consumer choice and traffic congestion.

1.1.3. DESTINATION IMAGE

Destinations have certain features, which can be called destination attributes. These attributes can be classified as attractions, amenities and the accessibility. Byon and Zhang (2010) state that there are many types of destinations e.g. base destination from where tourists visit various

attractions, centred destination, which may have all the attractions within, urban destination, natural destination, man-made destinations (Stylos, Bellou, Andronikidis & Vassiliadis, 2017). The definition adopted by this research is that destination is a location which has attractions, tourism infrastructure and accessibility (Stylos *et al*., 2017).

Lorena *et al*.,(2013) define destination's image as a mental image, the total sum of beliefs and impressions that people have of certain places; it is under the influence of the perception of all target groups, their culture, economic development, the product's quality, and other products for which the destination is famous. A study done by Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009) confirm that the image of the whole destination not only influences the assessment of existing products within the destination, but it transfers parts of its own image onto new products. Gomezelj and Mihalic (2008) have concluded that consumers transfer their own beliefs from the original brand onto secondary products, and the level of similarity with new products influences the success of the image transfer.

Destination image is defined as an individual's mental representation of knowledge (beliefs), feelings and overall perception of a particular destination (Nadeau, O'Reilly & Luk, 2008). Destination image plays two important roles in behaviours: (1) to influence the destination choice decision-making process and (2) to condition the after-decision-making behaviours including participation (on-site experience), evaluation (satisfaction) and future behavioural intentions (intention to revisit and willingness to recommend) (Lee, Scott & Kim, 2008). On-site experience can be mainly represented as the perceived trip quality based upon the comparison between expectation and actual performance. However, the influence of destination image on after-decision-making behaviours has been neglected in previous studies except for (Byon, & Zhang, 2010). Following the marketing perspective, Pan and Li (2011) say that individuals having a favorable destination image would perceive their on-site experiences (i.e. trip quality) positively, which in turn, would lead to greater satisfaction levels and behavioural intentions (Kastenholz, 2010).

Due to the aforementioned role of image, for destinations, it represents an important factor which needs to be managed. First of all, the perceived image should be stated, as stated by Kavaratzis and Hatch (2013), as the perceived image will enable the destination to compare the perceived image with the desired, ideal image and move forward with building and improving the desired image of the destination (Pan & Li 2011). Therefore, creating a positive image

and image management are especially significant in today's time of crisis and growing competition, since positive destination image can lead to an increase in demand for this destination (Zhang & Zhao, 2009).

This research focuses on research made on the process of destination image formation, one of the least studied areas in this field of research. To this end, and based on the limited literature, the starting point of this work is a conceptual model (Figure 4), to be validated using path models. The model was developed in a way that differentiates between first-time and repeat tourists, for several reasons. One, certain differences may exist between the image perceived by each group of individuals that have an effect on the results. Two, the relationship between secondary information sources and perceived image can only be analysed in the case of first-timers since repeat tourists could have difficulty recalling the sources of information used before visiting the place for the first time. Three, there may be differences between the two groups in terms of their level of knowledge of the destination and in their motivations, depending on whether they had previously visited

1.1.1.1. FACTORS INFLUENCING DESTINATION IMAGE FORMATION

A review of the literature reveals the existence of a set of factors that influence image formation which, following the model proposed by Stern and Krakover (1993) as indicated in Chen and Tsai (2007) involve both information obtained from different sources and the characteristics of the individual. According to this model, the characteristics of both the information and the individual have an effect on the system of interrelationships governing the perceived stimuli of the environment, producing a compound image. This system reflects the cognitive organisation that screens the perception. Stepchenkova and Mills (2010), in their meta-analysis, proposed a general theoretical model of image-formation factors by Baloglu and McCleary (1999) which differentiates between stimulus factors (information sources, previous experience, and distribution) and personal factors (psychological and social).

Information Sources

Information sources arealso known as stimulus factors (Veasna, Wu & Huang, 2013) or image forming agents (Stylos *et al*., 2017) and the forces which influence the forming of perceptions and evaluations. They refer to the amount and diverse nature of information sources to which individuals are exposed, including destination information acquired as a result of having visited the place. From the perspective of behaviour in the choice of a destination, various authors as

cited by Wang and Hsu (2010) and Veasna *et al*., (2013) have proposed models that attempt to explain this behaviour. They establish that, together with a number of other factors, the information sources to which the individuals are exposed determine that certain destinations are considered possible alternative choices (Govers *et al*., 2007).

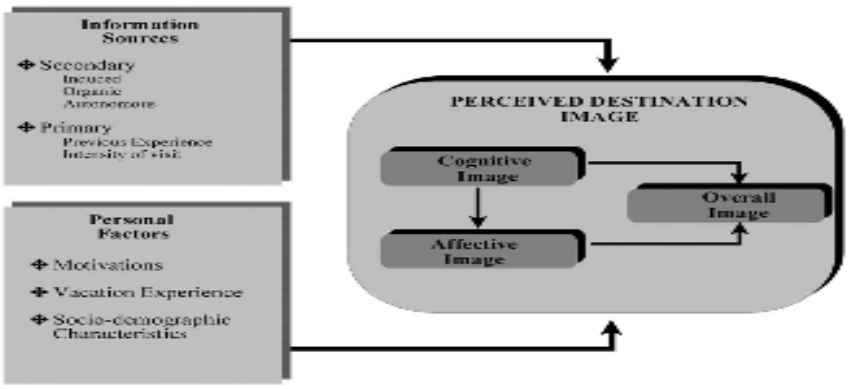


Figure 4: Model of the Formation of Destination Image

Source: San Martín and Del Bosque (2008)

As cited by San Martín and Del Bosque (2008), the image forming process can be regarded as a continuum of different agents or information sources which act independently to form one single image in the mind of the individual. He classifies the different agents as:

(a) overt induced, found in conventional advertising in the mass media, from information delivered by the relevant institutions in the destination or by tour operators and wholesalers;

(b) covert induced, using celebrities in the destination's promotion activities or destination reports or articles;

(c) autonomous, including mass-media broadcasting news, documentaries, films, television programmes about the place;

(d) organic, involving such people as friends and relatives, giving information about places, based on their own knowledge or experience, whether the information was requested or volunteered; and

(e) a visit to the destination, the end point of the continuum of the forming process (San Martín & Del Bosque, 2008).

The information acquired through personal experience or by visiting the destination forms the primary image, which may differ from the secondary image. Indeed, some authors, such as Gomezelj and Mihalič (2008) point out that when individuals actually visit a place, the image that they form after the visit tends to be more realistic, complex, and different from the one formed through secondary sources of information.

Roth and Diamantopoulos(2009) believe that those more familiar with the destination have images that are more holistic, psychological, and unique, while those less familiar have images based more on attributes, functional aspects, and common features. A number of empirical works in academic literature (Byon & Zhang, 2010) demonstrate that familiarity with, the number of visits to, and the length of stay at a destination all influence the perceived image.

Tasci and Gartner (2007) mention that one of the factors related to personal experience is the intensity of the visit, or, in other words, the extent of an individual's interaction with the place. Although no research work has as yet, been discovered, covering the effect of visit intensity on the image, it would seem only logical to assume that this varies in line with tourists' experiences: they may be exposed to different dimensions of the destination by developing contacts and relationships; when the place is visited, they adopt different behavioural patterns related to the intensity of interaction with the destination (Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010).

Therefore, the primary source of information formed by personal experience or visits will influence the perceived image, depending on the number of visits and their duration, or on the degree of involvement with the place during the stay (Chen & Tsai, 2007). However, it is necessary to differentiate between first-timers and repeaters since, to measure the latter's degree of experience, the number of previous visits to the destination must be included (Govers, *et al*., 2007).

Personal Factors

An individual's personal characteristics, or internal factors, also affect the formation of an image, since, as Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009) state, beliefs about the attributes of a destination are formed by individuals being exposed to external stimuli, but the nature of those beliefs will vary, depending on the internal factors of the individuals. Therefore, the perceived image will be formed through the image projected by the destination and the individual's own needs, motivations, prior knowledge, preferences, and other personal characteristics (Pan & Li, 2011).

In this way, individuals build their own mental picture of the place, which in turn, produces their own, personal perceived images (Gomezelj & Mihalič, 2008).

Byon and Zhang (2010)suggest that from the perspective of consumer behaviour, personal factors refer to internal determinants, in other words, the sociodemographic characteristics of the individuals (gender, age, level of education, family lifecycle, social class, place of residence, etc.), as well as those of a psychological nature (motivations, values, personality, lifestyle, etc.). These personal factors affect one's cognitive organisation of perceptions, thus also influencing the perceptions of the environment and the resulting image.

Various authors state that motivations influence the image forming process and the choice of destination. Tasci and Gartner (2007) and Yao, Chen, and Liu (2009) suggest that motivation exerts a direct influence on its affective component. Insofar as affective images refer to the feelings aroused by a place, people with different motives may assess a destination in similar ways if its perception satisfies their needs. In the end, as Gartner points out, the affective component is the value that individuals attach to destinations based on motivations. Moreover, since the affective dimension influences the overall image, motivations may also influence, either directly or indirectly, that overall image (Lee, Scott & Kim, 2008).

Experience may also influence the post-visit perceived image of the destination, since, as Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009) suggest, present situations are interpreted in comparison with past experiences, due to the connection between information coming from past experiences and the subjective interpretation of a leisure trip. In the tourism context, past experience may be more important than information obtained from external sources (Gomezelj & Mihalič, 2008), since individuals tend to place more weight on the former. This is because, when there is past experience, the criteria for decisions are strengthened, while the need to receive information becomes weaker. Although no empirical evidence was found that directly shows how tourists' levels of past experience influence the perceived image, this variable has attracted great interest among researchers insofar as it is a good indicator of their needs, motivations, and satisfaction, and may be of great use in segmenting the markets (Nadeau, Heslop, O'Reilly & Luk, 2008).

1.1.4 CITY PERCEPTION

City perception is a multifaceted and complex phenomenon that incorporates different aspects of people-place bonding and involves the interplay of affect and emotions, knowledge and beliefs, and behaviours and actions in reference to a place (Chow & Healey, 2008). It encourages greater freedom of behaviour, exploration, confidence and affective responsiveness within the local community (Raymond, Brown & Weber, 2010). City perception can be defined as the affective link that people establish with specific environments, where they have a propensity to remain and where they feel comfortable and safe (Ramkissoon, Smith, & Weiler, 2013). Following these considerations, we assume that the relationship between individuals and their environment has two linked but different aspects: an affective dimension, that is the emotional bond toward places (city perception), and a cognitive dimension, related to the cognitions about the self as a member of a physical space (Rollero & De Piccoli, 2010).

According to Rollero and De Piccoli's (2010) definition, city perception can be understood in terms of a deeper meaning of experiencing close, local relationships with people and, by extension, to places of relational interaction. The relational dimension forms the basis of the concept, moving the focus from the strictly physical environment to the social environment (Ramkissoon *et al.,* 2013). In line with this conception, Najafi and Shariff (2011) argued that the presence of friendship relations in the environment is a constitutive aspect of the concept of place attachment. For Raymond, Brown and Weber (2010), social bonds are associated to the feeling of being at home in one's neighbourhood: the more local relationships increase in intensity, the greater the proportion of people who feel entirely at home. When a causal approach is adopted, the influence direction of the link between place attachment and social bonds is not always the same.

Several studies have shown the link between the attachment to a place and its perception and evaluation. The exploration of such issue seems to be particularly relevant. As Felonneau (2004) argues cited by Lewicka, (2011), while representations of the place are grounded in social experiences and acquire different values, they also constitute a deep expression of the subjectivity of the person. Regardless of their valence, they need to be included in the analysis to measure their influence on the relationship between people and their environment.

Some authors have focused their research on the relation between the perception of negative physical characteristics and the affective link toward the environment. Dinnie, (2004), was cited Baker and Cameron, (2008) indicated that place attachment was higher for residents who

perceived fewer incivilities and less physical decline on their block. Referring to the concept of place identity, Félonneau (2004) provided similar evidence in Lewicka ,(2011) research paper: those subjects who identified with their city of residence and with its inhabitants perceived incivilities encountered in their daily environment as less salient. A strong bond with a place can also favour positive images in terms of pleasantness, health and safety (Lewicka, 2011) Persons highly place attached, in fact, can perceive it as less polluted then people less affectively linked or less risky, as showed in the Gaza region, where Jews more place attached were less likely to believe that living in Gaza was dangerous (Scannell & Gifford, 2010)

Raymond *et al*., (2010) cited Mesch and Manor (1998) that place attachment is related to the evaluation of the environment as a good place to live: the higher people evaluate characteristics of the physical and social environment, the higher the likelihood of attachment to place. Similarly, a study carried out by Kyle, Graefe, Manning, and Bacon (2004) indicated by Scannell and Gifford (2010) that place identified respondents were more pleased about the social and environmental conditions existent in a natural setting, but they were also more critical toward depreciative behaviours and human encroachment. Prayag and Ryan (2012) that place attachment is based not only on the affective bond, but also on cognitions and meanings attributed to the spatial setting: people ascribe meaning to landscapes and places and in turn, become attached to the meaning.

1.1.4. INTENTION TO RECOMMEND

To understand the topic of intention to recommend, tourist researchers often look at the tourist satisfaction as an attribute that influences future tourist behaviour, such as intention to recommend (Engeset & Elvekrok, 2015). Satisfaction is viewed as a central consumer behaviour construct because the extent to which consumers are satisfied, influences future organisational performance in the form of, for example, profits, market image and market share (Su, Huang, van der Veen & Chen, 2014). By researching satisfaction and its mechanisms, marketers can obtain valuable information they can use in their attempt to influence satisfaction, either through strategic decisions, such as segmentation and targeting or through manipulation of the marketing mix (Yuksel, Yuksel& Bilim, 2010). Correia, Moital, Oliveira and Costa (2009) argue that researchers appear to agree on the (more abstract) constitutive definition of satisfaction, which defines it as an evaluation of, or a judgment about, a consumption event or its constituent parts.

Emotions arising from consumption experiences deposit affective memory traces which consumers process and integrate to form post-consumption evaluations of satisfaction (Westbrook & Oliver, 1991) as cited (Chen & Chen, 2010). Studies in marketing (del Bosque & San Martin, 2008; Yuksel & Yuksel, 2007) confirm a relationship between emotions and satisfaction. Satisfaction is a key outcome of positive emotional responses such as pleasure, interest and joy. In tourism, positive emotions such as joy (Faullant, Matzler & Mooradian, 2011), happiness, excitement and pleasure (Grappi & Montanari, 2011) have a favorable influence on satisfaction. In a heritage tourism context, Prayag *et al*., (2013) show that joy, love and positive surprise can generate satisfaction. Positive emotions are also related to the formation of satisfaction in the context of tourist services, such as restaurants (Lin & Mattila, 2010).

Destination image plays a significant role in predicting tourists' behaviours (Castro, Armario, & Ruiz, 2007). The effects of overall image on tourist satisfaction are well established (Prayag, 2009; Wang & Hsu, 2010).Generally, favourable assessment of a destination's overall image positively influences tourist satisfaction (Prayag, 2009; Wang & Hsu, 2010).

Satisfied tourists are more likely to recommend the destination to others (Chen & Tsai,2007). Dissatisfied tourists are unlikely to return to the destination (Alegre & Garau, 2010) and will engage in negative word-of-mouth (Chen & Chen, 2010). More recently, Dolnicar, Coltman and Sharma (2015) challenge the link between satisfaction and behavioural intention. Inconsistency in construct operationalisation, i.e., loyalty and behavioural intention measured using similar items,and the frequent omission of causal factors, impede theoretical advancements on the nature of this relationship. However, previous studies confirm a positive relationship between satisfactory tourist experiences and intention to recommend (Grappi & Montanari, 2011).

It was hypothesised that behavioural intentions for word of mouth and repurchase intentions are influenced by overall satisfaction, which in turn, depends on specific attributes, including satisfaction regarding packing, the driver, timing and damage, as well as the process attribute of service after delivery (Litvin, Goldsmith & Pan, 2008). To understand the intention to recommend, the researcher explored word-of-mouth literature.

According to Sweeney, Soutar and Mazzarol (2008), word-of-mouth intention has been of importance to researchers for at least the past thirty years. More recently, however, the focus has

shifted to recommendations and customer advocacy (Chu & Kim, 2011).Word-of-mouth has been acknowledged for many years as a major influence on what people know, feel and do. Kumar, Aksoy, Donkers, Venkatesan, Wiesel and Tillmanns (2010) indicated that the influence of word-of-mouth on consumer behaviour characterised it as oral, person-to-person communication between a receiver and a communicator whom the receiver perceives as non-commercial, regarding a brand, product or service (Kumar, *et al.,* 2010).

Chu and Kim (2011) defined word-of-mouth by drawing on its distinctiveness from advertising. They indicated that word-of-mouth differs from advertising in its lack of boundaries. Word-of-mouth involves the exchange of ephemeral oral or spoken messages between a contiguous source and a recipient who communicate directly in real life (Chu & Kim, 2011). Consumers are not assumed to create, revise and record pre-written conversational exchanges about products and services. Corer *et al.,* (2009) documented recommendations as one of four unique dialogues taking place. As noted earlier, loyalty experts, Hosany and Witham (2010), argue that recommending intention is the best metric at predicting not only customers' recommending behaviour, but also their purchasing behaviour.

Qu, Kim and Im (2011) confirm that destinations must establish a positive and strong brand image, derived from the cognitive, unique, and affective image associations, to increase repeat visitors and to attract new tourists to the destination.

1.5. SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 2

Chapter 2 was divided into three main sections. The first section discussed the theoretical grounding of the study that comprised two theories; the Theory of Destination Branding and the Theory of Destination Image. The second main section explored the study's empirical literature review of the research constructs in great detail. The research constructs included intention to recommend, city brand identity,city perception,city rejuvenation. The relationships and links among all the above-mentioned constructs were also explored in great detail.

3. CHAPTER 3: CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

1.1. INTRODUCTION

Drawing from the literature review explored in Chapter 2, in particular the theoretical and empirical literature, a research model was conceptualised. Hypothesised relationships between research constructs were developed for further empirical examination thereafter. In the conceptualised research model, city rejuvenation is the predictor variable, city brand identity, city perception and destination image are the mediator variables, and intention to recommend (Figure 2below) illustrates the proposed conceptual model.

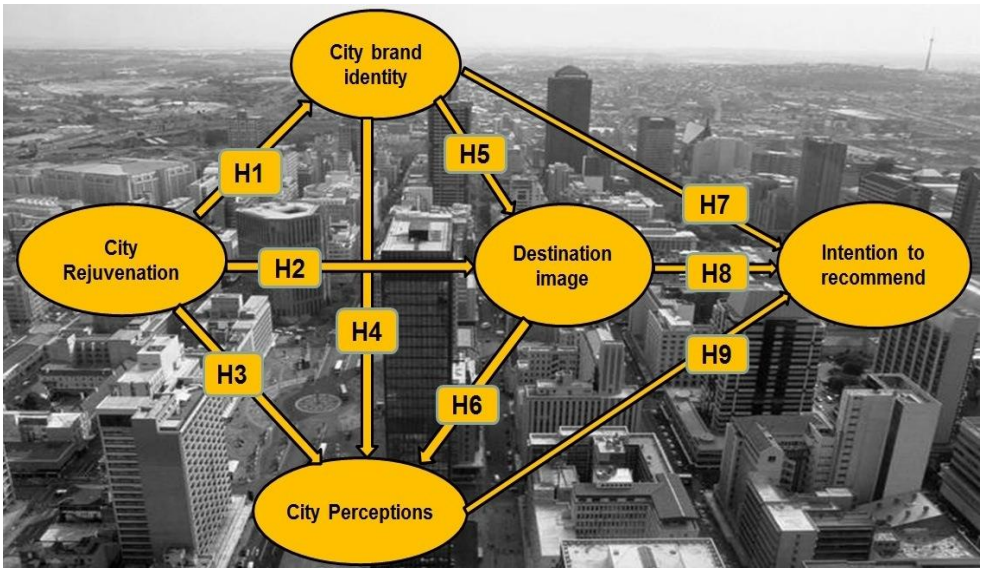


Figure 5: Conceptual Model

1.2. HYPOTHESES STATEMENT

H1: City Rejuvenation has a positive effect on city brand identity

H2: City Rejuvenation has a positive effect on destination image

H3: City Rejuvenation has a positive effect on city perception

H4: City Brand Identity has a positive effect on city perception

H5: City Brand Identity has a positive effect on destination image

H6: Destination Image has a positive effect on city perception

H7: City Brand Identity has a positive effect on intention to recommend

H8: Destination Image has a positive effect on intention to recommend

H9: City Perception has a positive effect on intention to recommend

1.3. HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

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

1.1.1. CITY REJUVENATION, CITY BRAND IDENTITY AND DESTINATION IMAGE

For making the image of global cities, according to Moilanen and Rainisto (2009), there are several types of development and construction which can be regarded as formulas that shape the urban landscape as the formal factor. The first type is the new urban center, normally the financial and business one, with a cluster of high-rise towers and at least one landmark structure or skyscraper. This is probably the most wanted if the city has the economic condition, business space demand and ideal land for development. The second type is the other mega-projects, which usually consist of multiple uses (commercial, residential) and can make dramatic changes to the city. The chief developer of these projects may be the government, but is mainly the private sector or a public-private-partnership. The third type is the urban cultural facilities, including museums, galleries, theatres, stadia and the other civil and educational buildings of large scale. The fourth type is the urban infrastructure, which covers widely from airport, main railway station, seaport, urban metro to bridges (Moilanen & Rainisto, 2009).

Braun, Eshuis and Klijn,(2014) state that image is important to a city when trying to promote itself and compete with the other cities and reach a higher status in the networks of the global economy. Meanwhile, architecture is one of the key elements for building the city image, which truly needs some visual and concrete factors to catch people's attentions and make them believe (Braun, Kavaratzis & Zenker, 2013). Among the architectural elements, the urban infrastructure, by being built as architectural attracting objects in the city, can play a significant role for urban architecture and shape the city form as the spatial framework for urban landscape that includes the airport, main railway station, seaport, urban metro and bridges (Braun *et al*., 2013).

Having some types of urban infrastructure is important to a global city, because that is the fundamental requirement for the economic flows. However, it is more important to make these projects visible if considering the city image.

Unlike a company where this would apply to the logo, stationery, uniforms and integrated marketing communications; this would be significant to the regional equivalents, such as infrastructure, transport options and heritage sites, amongst other elements (Brodie, Whittome & Brush, 2009). Braun *et al*.,(2013) echo these sentiments, insisting that investment in the pre-

sented city brand that goes beyond the marketing communications (especially mere advertisements and slogans) will result in a favourable city brand image. As such, one can intuitively conclude that the presented city brand rejuvenation has a positive influence on the city brand image.

H1: City Rejuvenation has a positive effect on City Brand Identity

H2: City Rejuvenation has a positive effect on Destination Image

1.1.2. CITY BRAND IDENTITY, CITY PERCEPTION AND CITY REJUVENATION

According to Braun *et al*., (2013), city rejuvenation has a direct positive impact on city brand image. Destination image refers to an individual's mental representations of knowledge, impressions, emotional thoughts, prejudices and overall perception of a particular place (Shani & Wang, 2011). Based on this definition, a positive City perception has a positive effect on Destination Image (Lee & Xie, 2011). It can be concluded that both Destination Image and City Rejuvenation have a positive effect on City Perception. Tung and Ritchie (2011) stated that emotions are ubiquitous in tourism, play a central role in defining memorable experience, and are fundamental determinants of post-consumption evaluations (Soscia, 2007).

For example, Biel (1993), from whom recent authors draw their work, such as Brakus, Schmitt and Zarantonello, (2009) interprets destination identity to be tourists' emotional attachment to the destination. Stylidis, Sit and Biran (2016) also indicate that a well-established destination identity projects strong affection of tourists. This strong affection shapes the tourist perception of the city (Stylidis *et al.,* 2016).

Due to the aforementioned role of image, for destinations, it represents an important factor which needs to be managed. First of all, the perceived image should be stated, as stated by Kavaratzis and Hatch (2013) that perceived image will enable the destination to compare the perceived image with the desired, ideal image and move forward with building and improving the desired image of the destination (Wang & Hsu, 2010.). Therefore, creating a positive image and therefore a positive city perception and image management are especially significant in today's time of crisis and growing competition, since positive destination image and city perception can lead to an increase in demand for this destination (Zhang & Zhao, 2009).

H3: City Rejuvenation has a positive effect on City Perception

H4: City Brand Identity has a positive effect on City Perception

1.1.3. BRAND IDENTITY, CITY PERCEPTION AND DESTINATION IMAGE

Destination image refers to an individual's mental representations of knowledge, impressions, emotional thoughts, prejudices and overall perception of a particular place (Shani & Wang, 2011). Based on this definition, a positive City perception has a positive effect on Destination Image (Lee & Xie, 2011). Destination Identity is an affective construct because its definition is consistent with the meaning of affection. For example, Biel (1993) interprets destination identity to be tourists' emotional attachment to the destination as cited by Stylidis *et al*., (2016) indicate that a well-established destination identity projects strong affection of tourists. According to Moilanen and Rainisto (2009), cognitive knowledge induces affective response. Hence, cognitive destination image is conceived to directly affect the affection-based destination identity. This posit gains credibility in Palatkova's (2012) work where a distinctive and emotionally attractive destination identity is found to be reflected by perceived image of a place.

H5: City Brand Identity has a positive effect on Destination Image

H6: Destination Image has a positive effect on City Perception

1.1.4. BRAND IDENTITY AND INTENTION TO RECOMMEND

Destination personality brings the destination alive and intimate, and thus forms a clear destination identity in tourists' mind. Also, destination personality appears to be emerging as a compelling tool to differentiate the destination from its rivals (Murphy, Benckendorff & Moscardo, 2007). The impact of destination identity on tourists' behavioural intentions is documented in quite a few admirable studies, finding are not without inconsistency. For example, Murphy *et al*. (2007) contend that destination identity positively influences tourists' behavioural intentions, specifically intentions to recommend. Murphy *et al*., (2007) state that destination identity is a reasonable antecedent of behavioural intentions; direct and positive links are mainly found from competence and sophistication. This was also highlighted by Spike (2009) in his research that indicated that host community should generally be regarded as active participants of local tourism, both as hosts of visiting friends or relatives, and as occasional local tourists. Furthermore to what extent does the tourism brand identity represent local residents' 'sense of place'. After all, it is critical that a brand identity is truthful. This issue has been raised by Henderson (2007), whose analyses of Singapore's destination branding found a disconnect between the Direct Marketing Organizations's new theme and the views of the local community.

H7: City Brand Identity has a positive effect on Intention to Recommend

1.1.4. IMAGE, INTENTION TO RECOMMEND AND CITY PERCEPTION

Destination image plays an important role in tourists' destination choice processes, post- travel evaluations, and future behaviours (Tasci & Gartner, 2007; Wang & Leou, 2015). A rich body of research models the interrelationships between destination image, tourist satisfaction and behavioural intentions (Chi & Qu, 2008; Eusébio & Vieira, 2013). However, Assaker and Hallak (2013) note that previous studies examining the relationships between destination image, satisfaction, and behavioural intentions have presented contradictory findings. For example, while some studies show that destination image directly influences behavioural intentions (Choi, Tkachenko & Sil, 2011; Nadeau, Heslop, O'Reilly & Luk, 2008) reveal an indirect relationship via the satisfaction construct. In addition, destination image exerts both direct and indirect influence on tourists' behavioural intentions (Wang & Leou, 2015).

Tourism scholars (such as Chen & Phou, 2013; del Bosque & San Martin, 2008; Zhang *et al.*, 2014) have thus called for research on 'global' or 'integrative' models of destination image, satisfaction and loyalty. Specifically, when modelling destination image, satisfaction and loyalty, there is a need to include tourists' emotional experiences. Emotions are ubiquitous in tourism (Wang & Leou, 2015), play a central role in defining memorable experiences (Tung & Ritchie, 2011), and are fundamental determinants of post-consumption evaluations. Emotions are important precursors to satisfaction as it is through emotions where tourists perceive the value tourist experiences and behavioural intentions (Grappi & Montanari, 2011).

Wang and Leou (2015) predict that there is a significant positive relationship between perceived value and destination loyalty intention. In their study, Wang and Leou (2015) state that "revisiting intention" and "willingness to recommend" are used as measures of destination loyalty intention.

The improvement of these services is important and worthwhile because, as this study shows, tourists experiencing higher satisfaction levels reveal favourable intentional behaviour, that is, the willingness to return and to recommend it to others. Tourism motivation show that tourists' perceived value, which contains three dimensions: scenic value, knowledge value, and social value. These dimensions can be considered as the primary indicators of perceived value which

positively influence tourists' destination loyalty (Chen & Phou, 2013; Zhang *et al*., 2014; Wang & Leou, 2015).

H8: Destination Image has a positive effect on Intention to Recommend

H9: City Perception has a positive effect on Intention to Recommend

1.4. SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 3

Chapter 3 provided the conceptualised model for the research study that constituted this thesis. Further to that, the research hypotheses for the research study were developed. The aim of this chapter was to illustrate the framework forming the basis of this study, as well as to formulate the proposed hypotheses, while supporting them with existing literature. The chapter comprised two sections. In the first section, the research model was depicted and the hypothesised relationships indicated. In the second section, the hypothesised relationships were developed and further substantiated.

4. CHAPTER 4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

1.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter first explains the research philosophy, research methodology, and sample design used to address the aims of this paper. It is followed by a data collection discussion and lastly, the researcher judges the validity and reliability of the study.

The research design is outlined, and the steps and actions taken to ensure good validity and reliability are also explained. In addition, the procedures used to collect, capture and process the data as well as the techniques implemented to analyse the data are discussed in this chapter.

1.2. RESEARCH PARADIGM/PHILOSOPHY

Research methodology refers to a system of clear rules and procedures upon which a study is based, and against which claims for knowledge are evaluated (Richards &Morse, 2012). It denotes the techniques used to acquire and analyse data to generate new knowledge (Petty, Thomson & Stew, 2012). Research methodologies have an influence on the validity and overview of a study and play a crucial part in knowledge development (Sinkovics, Penz & Ghauri, 2008). According to Malhotra and Birks (2007), research design refers to a plan for carrying out a marketing research project. It maps out procedures for gathering information that are used to answer questions and solve problems (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). The research design establishes the foundation for the entire research project (Malhotra & Birks, 2007).

There are three different research frameworks that researchers can choose from when conducting a study and they are; qualitative design, quantitative design, and mixed methods (Bryman, 2012; Zulu, 2015). The main differences that have been identified between quantitative and qualitative design are that quantitative design applies measurement whilst qualitative design cannot quantify the outcomes of the study (Bryman, 2012).The design of this study will be quantitative in nature. Five-point Likert scales were used to collect data from respondents.

The research design discusses the following areas in full detail:

a) The information required in the study.

b) Help in determining whether the entire design is descriptive, exploratory or causal.

c) It designs the order in which all measurements will follow.

d) The research design is also involved in the construction of the questionnaire that was used for the research.

e)It clarifies the qualitative or quantitative procedures in sampling and the sample size.

f)Finally, the research design is also key in developing the plan for the quantitative data analysis to be applied in this study (Malhotra & Birks, 2007).

Understanding and use of relevant methodology for this study is essential in order to identify the unit of analysis and employ compatible methods that will provide intended results.

1.1.1. RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY: POSITIVIST PARADIGM

According to Chuchu, (2015), research philosophy refers to the advance and nature of knowledge. The concept of the paradigm is fundamental to the research process in all areas of study (Woo, Pettit, Kwak & Beresford, 2011). The positivist paradigm is a philosophy in agreement with the empiricist view that knowledge stems from human experience (Collins, 2010). Collins (2010) stated that positivism is an atomistic, ontological view (nature of reality) of the world comprising discrete, observable elements and events that interact in an observable, determined and regular manner.

The primary objective of the post-positivism paradigm is to create unbiased knowledge through the use of reliable research processes that increase the accuracy, validity, reliability and generalisability of the outcome (Zulu, 2015).

1.1.2. QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH

A quantitative research approach was conducted for the purpose of this study. According to Wayhuni (2012), a quantitative approach utilises an organised procedure and techniques to gather information under controlled conditions and highlights objectivity through statistical analysis. As such, a quantitative approach is appropriate given the nature of the current study. The rationale in picking a quantitative method was to be able to enhance the accuracy of results through detailed statistical analysis (Chuchu, 2015). Moreover, the impartiality and consistency that is necessary to address the objectives of the study are catered for within the procedure. This method has an added advantage of minimising the element of subjectivity in research (Woo *et al*., 2011). Considering that it is to simplify, adjust and extend what is meant by the thoughts regarding the phenomena being investigated, a quantitative approach becomes useful in that it utilises measurement procedures that incorporate concrete specifications of the particular phenomena of interest (Westerman, 2014). It is an approach that uses organised procedures and techniques to collect data or information and does so under controlled conditions, together with highlighting objectivity through statistical analysis (Ryan-Nicholls & Will,

2009).Research methods are what researchers propose to utilise for sampling design, questionnaire design and data collection (Creswell, 2009).The usefulness of a quantitative research lies in its ability to determine how the strength of reciprocal causal relationships alters over time (Zulu, 2015). A quantitative approach seeks to eliminate irrelevant factors within the internal make-up of the study and data that comes out can also be checked using a consistent testing method (Ryan-Nicholls & Will, 2009).In this study, the variables whose relationship was tested are city rejuvenation, city perception, city brand identity, destination image and intention to recommend.

The variables were measured and analysed using statistical tools as suggested by researchers. (Creswell, 2009; Bryman, 2012). It is also appropriate for this study to apply a deductive approach with a quantitative method as it will allow for the outcomes to be generalisable. Research methods are what researchers propose to utilise for sampling design, questionnaire design and data collection (Creswell, 2009).

1.1.3. SAMPLING DESIGN

A sampling design should be simple to implement, efficient and cover various approaches to measure the sample to be generally applicable (Grafström, 2010).

1.1.4. TARGET POPULATION

The target population refers to the entire group under study (Maronick, 2009). When deciding on the target population, a researcher needs to clearly put forward the characteristics of the population that relate to the study. As defined by researchers, a population needed to represent a universe of units used to select a sample (Bryman, 2012; Creswell, 2009).There are 30 000 international students at the University of the Witwatersrand; this study surveyed 375 as the target population.

1.1.5. SAMPLE FRAME

A sample frame refers to the researched environment and the subjects used in a study (Sinkovics *et al.,* 2008). For purposes of the current study the sample frame was taken from international students studying at the University of the Witwatersrand, Braamfontein.

1.1.6. SAMPLE SIZE

Sample size determination is crucial in planning a statistical study and challenging as well (Chuchu, 2015). The sample size was determined using the Raosoft© sample size calculator.

Raosoft© is statistical software that is used to calculate sample size. Raosoft© takes into account the following factors; account for the margin of error, the confidence level, the population size and the response distribution. The researcher chose the default settings on Raosoft© which had a margin of error at 5%, confidence level at 95% population size at **30 000** and a response distribution of 50%. Raosoft then calculated that the sample size needed for the survey would be 375 respondents.

1.1.7. SAMPLE METHOD

Convenience sampling, a form of non-probability sampling was adopted in selecting participants. Research questionnaires were distributed to willing respondents at different intervals during the day to ensure that the sample was a true reflection of all the students at the University of the Witwatersrand (Lubbe, Douglas & Zambellis, 2011). According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007), the purpose of any sampling method is to extract a sample from the population in order to generalise the results back to the population.

In probability sampling, the rules of selection guide the researcher so that they are in a position to relate findings to the entire population from which the sample was drawn (Tansey, 2007).

1.3. QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN (MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENT)

A questionnaire is defined as a document containing questions and other items that are put together with the intention of obtaining information applicable to the study for further analysis by the researcher (Punch, 2013). It is popular because it offers certain advantages like self-administration, practicality, the ability to collect large amount information, and many more (Bryman, 2012).

The questionnaire was adopted from Qu, *et al*.,(2011) research which explored models of destination branding by Integrating the concepts of the branding and destination image. The questionnaire was also adopted from Usakli and Baloglu (2011) which focused on dimensions that have a positive influence on tourists' intention to return and intention to recommend.

The questionnaire was developed by the researcher and was self-administered to international students currently enrolled at the University of the Witwatersrand, Braamfontein. The researcher made the decision to use a questionnaire to collect data from respondents as this was seen to be the most appropriate tool for collecting the data. The questionnaire was designed, based on the study's research model. As suggested by researchers, the strength of the study is

influenced by the measurement items that are employed (Bryman, 2012). Other authors identify reliability, validity and responsiveness as key (Scholtes, Terwee & Poolman, 2011). The questionnaire had two sections; section 1 and 2. Section 1 required the respondents to fill in their background information which include age, year of study and the highest level of education. Sections 2 had questions that were intended to measure City rejuvenation, City Brand Identity, Destination image, Intention to recommend, City Perception.

1.1.1. DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUES

The data collection technique that was used for purposes of this research included primary and secondary data collection techniques. Primary data refers to original data that is collected for a specific research purpose (Richards & Morse, 2012). Secondary data is data that is collected for a purpose different to its originally intended purpose and reused for another research question (Richards & Morse, 2012). The survey questionnaire was distributed to international students currently enrolled at the University of the Witwatersrand, Braamfontein.

The truthfulness and reliability of the information being collected about the subject being studied is of great importance. Questions, observation sessions and other activities must be designed meticulously to ensure that the data to be collected is significant (Seaman, 2008).

According to Seaman (2008), the choice of the data collection technique should be informed by the research objectives or questions. It is said that three issues should be well thoughtout when selecting a technique i.e. the degree of access to data collection available to the researcher, quantity of data required and the type of research question (Seaman, 2008). The choice of method must be carefully thought out as it influences the answers that are to be acquired (Bernard, 2011). There are different types of data collection techniques which are outlined below applicable to both qualitative and quantitative research:

- Focus group, which is where groups of people, involving a moderator, sit in a room to discuss an issue the researcher wants to understand (Rudestam & Newton, 2014). In a focus group, participants interrelate with each other rather than with the interviewer, such that the opinions of the participants can become known instead of allowing the researcher's agenda to dominate (Cohen *et al*., 2007). Such interaction is said to elicit significant data and outcomes (Cohen *et al*., 2007).

- Observation, which is the method of collecting data through direct contact with an entity, which is normally another human being (Runeson & Höst, 2009). The researcher is said to

monitor the behaviour and to record the properties of the object or person (Runeson & Höst, 2009).

- Interviews, which are said to "produce first-person accounts of the experience" (Glazer & Stein, 2010). The rationale of an interview is to obtain a complete and detailed report directly from an informant of the experience under study (Glazer & Stein, 2010).
- A questionnaire, which is an instrument for gathering surveyed information. It gathers structured, often numerical, data that can be managed without the presence of a researcher and is typically relatively simple to analyse (Rudestam & Newton, 2014). When administering a questionnaire, it is important to be mindful of how questions are worded, how the questionnaire is designed, and the order in which the questions are asked as this is likely to affect validity and reliability of the results (Runeson & Höst, 2009).

Each data collection technique has an advantage and a disadvantage. Examples are provided in the table below

Technique	Advantage	Disadvantage
Focus groups	Quick data generation at low cost; data generation and examination from varying subgroups of a population.	Can become too unfocused; Thoughts and feelings may not be expressed truthfully by participants.
Observation	Identifies conduct otherwise overlooked; Yields authentic data through direct cognition.	Loss of perspective by the researcher may result due to too much involvement; limitation of data due to predefined categories in order to understand the environment under study
Interviews	Facilitates the use of multi- sensory channels; may identify relationships and variables when applied as an explanatory apparatus.	Time and cost inefficient; forces researchers to be too reliant on respondents' self- report of their behaviour or attitude which may deter the generation of meaningful data as a result of incoherent representation by the Respondents
Questionnaires	Can be administered quickly and without difficulty; facilitates the simple acquisition of data in remote locations.	May have vague and poorly worded questions which may be problematic; return rates can be low, thus having negative effects on the representativeness of the sample.

Table 2: Advantages and Disadvantages of Techniques Source: Cohen *et al*., (2007); Zulu (2015)

1.1.2. JUSTIFICATION FOR USING A SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

For purposes of this study, the survey method of data collection was adopted, and a self-administered questionnaire was designed and taken to the field. The method was selected as a result of its advantages. According to Cohen *et al.*,2007 there are two types of self-administered questionnaire: those that are completed in the company of the researcher and those that are attended to when the researcher is not present. In this study, the questionnaires were completed in the company of the researcher.

1.4. DATA ANALYSIS APPROACH

This section clearly explains the process that was followed to analyse the data after it was collected. The data analyses procedure was a step-by-step process and was conducted as explained in the section below.

1.1.1. STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELLING (SEM)

Structural equation modelling (SEM) was employed in the current study for the purpose of analysing data. Structural equation modelling has become an admired statistical technique to test theory in several fields of knowledge (Kline, 2015).

According to Guenole and Brown (2014), SEM is described as a multivariate, statistical technique generally used for studying relationships between latent variables or constructs and observed variables that constitute a model and this is further confirmed by numerous other researchers including Kline (2015) where she suggests that it is a statistical method with which a researcher can create theoretical concepts and validate proposed causal relationships through two or more structural equations. It is also seen as being similar to regression analysis but more accepted and frequently used because it assesses the casual relationships among constructs while concurrently accounting for measurement error (Byrne, 2013).

SEM's ability to deal with numerous modelling difficulties, the endogeneity among constructs and composite underlying data structures found in various phenomena can be assumed to be the main reason for its popularity (Byrne, 2013).

SEM is primarily a framework that helps the researchers solve the systems of linear equations and includes statistical procedures such as regression, factor analysis and path analysis.According to Beran and Violato (2010), structural equation modelling is carried out in a two-

staged approach: the first phase is conducted to evaluate the satisfactoriness of the measurement model. In this stage, both construct reliability and item reliability are examined (Nusair & Hua, 2010).

Once the reliability of the scale has been ensured, the construct validity using convergent validity and discriminant validity is tested prior to measurement model assessment and finalisation. The second stage involves the examination of the structural model (Beran & Violato, 2010).

The general model fit in both measurement and structural model is examined using goodness-of-fit indices including CFI, NFI, TLI, RFI, IFI and RMSEA (Kline, 2015).The first stage includes a procedure known as Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) while the second stage is known to include multiple regression and path analysis (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012).The function of CFA is to evaluate how well the latent variables are measured by the observed variables (Chen *et al*., 2011) while that of path analysis is to investigate causal relationships among unobserved variables (Nusair *et al*., 2010).

Researchers have put forward many advantages of SEM and they are listed below;

- SEM has the ability to tackle research questions related to intricate causal relationships between unobserved variables (Nusair *et al*., 2010) with empirical data
- SEM can extend explanatory power and statistical efficiency for model examination with one complete model (Hair , Hult, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2016)
- It can include latent constructs in the analysis while accounting for measurement errors in the estimation process (Hair, *et al*., 2016)
- SEM provides support for examining and validating hypotheses of causal relationships due not only to its ability to model measurement error, but also to its ability to do away with bias and distortion (Hair, *et al.,* 2016).

The justification for CFA is that it allows the researcher to generate a Composite Reliability value and standardised regression weights which can be used to assess convergent validity (Nusair *et al*., 2010). For both CFA and path modelling, SEM provides a model fit which evaluates whether the data collected fit the conceptual model. SEM also provides P-values used for

assessing the significance of the hypothesised relationships (Kline, 2015). Lastly, path modelling allows the research to generate path coefficients that are used to denote the strength of the relationship between variables in the conceptual model (Kline, 2015).

Data analysis is a statistical process in which raw data is prepared and structured so that valuable information can be extracted from it (Qudrat-Ullah & Seong, 2010). Firstly, the collected data was coded in an Excel spread sheet before analysis. To gain comprehension of the attributes of each variable, descriptive statistics analysis were utilised which showed the mean and standard deviation of each factor. The researcher was responsible for analysing the data. Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences (SPSS 24) was used to analyse the data (Qudrat-Ullah & Seong, 2010).

Data analysis is a statistical process in which raw data is prepared and structured so that valuable information can be extracted from it (Qudrat-Ullah & Seong, 2010). Firstly, the collected data was coded in an Excel spread sheet, before analysis. To gain comprehension of the attributes of each variable, descriptive statistics analysis were utilised and indicated by the mean and standard deviation of each factor. The researcher had the full responsibility of analysing the data. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) were employed to analyse the data. SPSS was used for Descriptive statistics, and AMOS was used to conduct confirmatory factor analysis and path modeling in order to check for reliability and validity of the data, as well as model fit of the data.

1.5. DATA PROCESSING AND ANALYSIS

Chuchu (2015) pointed out that most social research involves the data analysis that occurs in three main stages, which are usually carried out in the following order:

1.Cleaning and sorting out the data for analysis (data preparation)

2.Describing the data (descriptive statistics)

3.Testing hypotheses and models (inferential statistics)

4.Structural equation modelling

4.1 Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

4.2 Path modelling (PM)

1.1.2. DATA CLEANING AND CODING

Before the data collected from the study can be analysed, certain checks for the legitimacy of the data have to be conducted, and the researcher has to take this into consideration, so that if incorrect data was entered on the excel spread sheet it can be removed. Zulu (2015) has stated that immediately after receiving the collected data, the researcher must screen it for accuracy. This enables the researcher to identify any errors the sample might have. Byrne, (2016) has added that the following questions had to be asked by the researcher in order to successfully check for discrepancies and inconsistencies:

- Are the responses written clearly?
- Did the respondent answer all important questions?
- Did the respondent complete the questionnaire?
- Does the questionnaire contain all the relevant contextual information, such as data, time, place and the researcher's details?

1.1.3. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Guenole and Brown, (2014) has defined descriptive statistics as information that is used to describe the basic characteristics of the data in the study. Descriptive statistics are used to provide behavioural patterns of respondents in general (Hsu & Shine, 2007). Descriptive statistics involve simple summaries about the samples and the dimensions of the data. The descriptive statistics could take the form of pie charts, or tables, that show the basic data of the main components of the study, for example, demographic or biographical data. In the current study, descriptive statistics explored the demographic characteristics of the research data. The total number of participants were mentioned, and the distribution of gender, age, marital status, educational level and purchasing behaviour of participants was explored.

1.6. RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF MEASUREMENT SCALES

Reliability and validity both relate to the logic and accuracy of a test (Wilckens, 2010). Reliability requires better comparable experiments, while validity asks the question if the experiment is tailored to appropriately answer the questions being asked; i.e. if the experiment is valid in logic terms (Wilckens, 2010). In particular, the factor loadings, the Cronbach's alpha values and Composite Reliability (CR) values were determined using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 24) and Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS 24) software in

order to assess measurement items reliability. Convergent and discriminant validity of the research constructs were determined by checking the inter-correlation between the research constructs and by comparing the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and shared variance (discriminate validity). As for convergent validity, the item total correlation values, item loading and average variance extracted were utilised as indicators (Wilkens, 2010).

1.1.1. RELIABILITY TESTS

Three methods, namely Cronbach's alpha test (Cronbach α), the composite reliability test (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE) test, were used in this thesis to check on the reliability of the research measures (LoBiondo-Wood& Haber, 2014) Reliability refers to the extent to which the instruments consistently measure that which they ought to measure (Chuchu, 2015) and this is done numerically, with a coefficient greater than a Cronbach's alpha of 0.6, suggesting that the reliability of the research instrument is marginally acceptable. Hernon and Schwartz, (2009) stated that the term 'internal consistency' has been used extensively in classical psychometrics to refer to the reliability of a scale based on the degree of within-scale item inter-correlation, as measured by the split-half method, or more adequately, by Cronbach's alpha. According to Dunn, Baguley and Brunsden (2013), the coefficient alpha is the most commonly used measure of reliability, and certainly of internal consistency reliability reported in psychological research.

1.1.1.1 Cronbach's Alpha Test

The Cronbach's alpha was developed by Lee Cronbach in 1951 to offer a measure of the internal consistency of a test or scale and is expressed as a number between 0 and 1 (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). In this study, the internal reliability of each construct was assessed using the standardised Cronbach's coefficient alpha. Cronbach's coefficient α is one of the most common internal consistency approaches (Dunn et al., 2013). According to Chinomona (2011), a higher level of Cronbach's coefficient alpha indicates a higher reliability of the measurement scale For purposes of this research, the Cronbach's Alpha, Composite reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) were conducted so as to assess the reliability of the measures.

1.1.1.2 Composite Reliability

According to Yang and Lai (2010), in reliability analysis, an acceptable CR value must exceed 0.7. The internal reliability of each construct was also evaluated using the Composite Reliability (CR) index test. It is calculated using the following formula:

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

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

The resultant coefficient is similar to that of Cronbach's α. The threshold for Composite Reliability (CR) index of 0.5 for basic research and 0.6 for exploratory research are suggested by Nunnally (Chinomona, 2011). The value was later adjusted to 0.7, and is recommended by Hair et al., (2006). According to the broader literature, a Composite Reliability index that is greater than 0.7 depicts an adequate internal consistency of the construct (Hair *et al*., 2006).

1.7. VALIDITY TESTS

Validity refers to the degree to which a test or instrument measures the attributes that it is supposed to measure (Demerjian, Lev & McVay, 2012). Its primary concern is with the accuracy of measurement. This section of the chapter is concerned with testing construct validity.

1.1.2. CONSTRUCT VALIDITY

Construct validity is a type of validity that has attracted the greatest amount of attention in social science (Chi & Qu, 2008). To establish this type of validity, two categories of construct validity normally need to be determined, namely: convergent validity and discriminant validity.

1.1.3. CONVERGENT VALIDITY

According to Sarstedt, Ringle, Smith, Reams and Hair (2014), convergent validity measures the degree to which a construct comes together in its indicators by explaining the items' variance. Convergent validity is considered sufficient when the AVE value of each construct exceeds 0.5 (Yang & Lai, 2010). Sarstedt *et al*., (2014) stated that ideally, an item is expected to be related to other items that measure the same constructs (convergent validity), but to differ from items which measure different constructs (discriminant validity).

1.1.4. DISCRIMINANT VALIDITY

Discriminant validity refers to the degree to which a measure is distinct from other measures, i.e. it shows heterogeneity between different constructs (Malhotra, 1996). According to Venkatesh, Brown, Maruping and Bala (2008), discriminant validity can be assessed using the

average variance extracted (AVE). To confirm discriminant validity, the average variance extracted for each construct should be greater than the squared correlations between the construct and all other constructs in the model (Nusair & Hua, 2010).

1.1.5. INTER-CONSTRUCT CORRELATION MATRIX

One of the methods used to check on the discriminant validity of the research constructs was the evaluation of whether the correlations among latent constructs were less than 1.0. A correlation value between constructs of less than 0.7 is recommended in the empirical literature to confirm the existence of discriminant validity (Brown, 2014).

1.1.1.1. Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and Shared Variance (SV)

Discriminant validity was also established by checking if the average variance extracted (AVE) was greater than the highest shared variance (HSV) (Byrne, 2016).

1.8. MODEL FIT/ACCEPTABILITY

According to Little, (2013), CFA and SEM fit indices have no sole statistical test of significance that identifies a correct model given the sample data, especially alternative models can exist that yield exactly the same data to model fit. It is recommended that various model fit criteria be used in combination to assess model fit as global fit measures (Loehlin & Beaujean, 2016).

1.1.1. CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

Confirmatory factor analysis is an analytical tool that allows the researcher to explore hypotheses about what constructs the test in question is measuring and provides an empirical basis for clinical interpretation (Harrington, 2009)). A confirmatory factor analysis was performed to obtain the standard regression weights. Model fit indicators such as Chi-square/degrees of freedom, Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Normed Fit Index (NFI), Incremental Fit Index (IFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), Composite Fit Index (CFI) and the Random Measure of Standard Error Approximation (RMSEA) were used to assess the model fit (Holdnack, Zhou, Larrabee, Millis & Salthouse, 2011)For purposes of this research, the Cronbach's Alpha, Composite reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) were conducted in order to assess the reliability of the measures.

1.1.1.2. Chi-square (χ^2 /DF)

According to Loehlin and Beaujean,(2016) the chi square fit statistic tests an hypothesis of precise fit of the proposed model in the population. A chi-square value below three (3) is considered to be an acceptable model fit (Chinomona, 2011).

1.1.1.3. Goodness-of-fit Index (GFI)

The Goodness of Fit is one of many criterion values for indicating satisfactory model fit suggested by researchers (Byrne, 2016). GFI varies from 0-1, but theoretically can yield meaningless negative values. Through general consensus, GFI should be equal to or greater than 0.90 to accept the model (Hooper, Coughlan & Mullen, 2008).

1.1.1.4. Normed Fit Index (NFI)

The Normed Fit Index (NFI) assesses the inconsistency between the chi-squared value of the hypothesised model and the chi-squared value of the null model (Cohen, Cohen, West,& Aiken, 2013). It is generally agreed upon that NFI values below 0.90 indicate a need to re-specify the model (Cohen *et al*.,2013).

1.1.1.5. Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)

The Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) uses simple models and is known to address the issue of sample size associated with the Normed Fit Index (NFI). Recommended value must meet or exceed 0.9 (Hooper *et al*., 2008; Chinomona, 2011).

1.1.1.6. Incremental Fit Index (IFI)

Bollen (1989) as cited by Byrne,(2016)introduced the IFI in order to address the issue of parsimony and sample size, which was known to be associated with the NFI. Chinomona (2011) stated that the recommended IFI should be equal to or greater than 0.9 in order to accept the model.

1.1.1.7. Comparative Fit Index (CFI)

According to Gatignon (2010), the comparative fit index (CFI) analyses the model fit through assessing the discrepancy between the data and the hypothesised model. The CFI is a revised version of the normed fit index (NFI), which is responsible for the sample size (Byrne, 2016). The CFI also addresses sample size issues normally associated with the chi-square test and the normed fit index , and functions well, even when the sample size being used for the study is small (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). According to Chinomona (2011), a value equal or greater than 0.9 is an indication of acceptable model fit.

1.1.1.8. Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)

The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) fit index was introduced by (Byrne, 2013) for evaluating covariance structure models. It reduces problems and inconsistencies commonly found in testing models with large sample sizes, and has therefore become a helpful tool for guiding complex judgements about model utility, rather than functioning as a replacement for such judgements (Byrne, 2013). A good model fit is when RMSEA is considered to be less than or equal to 0.5 and an adequate fit if RMSEA is less than or equal to 0.8 (Chinomona, 2011).

1.9. PATH MODELLING

Path modelling describes the relationships between observed or measured variables and theoretical constructs (Roche, Duffield & White, 2011) and tests the structural paths of the conceptualised research model. Once the model fit was assessed using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), this study proceeded to perform path modeling using the AMOS 24 software package. The structural equation modelling (SEM) technique demonstrates and tests the theoretical underpinnings of a proposed study, and the significance of the relationships between models constructs (Sarstedt, 2008) SEM stipulates a technique where separate relationships are allowed for each set of dependent variables and provides an estimation technique for a series of separate multi-regression equations to be estimated concurrently. It further contains two mechanisms, namely the structural model, which is the path where independent and dependent variables are linked, and the measurement model, which enables this study to use several indicators for a single independent variable (Roche *et al.,* 2011).

1.10. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

An ethics clearance form was applied for and obtained as it is one of the requirements of the research. This is so because a human element was involved in the study therefore measures have to be put in place that ensure the protection of peoples' privacy as well as the reputation of the University of the Witwatersrand. The University of the Witwatersrand ethics committee decide on granting ethical clearance for the research and if any fabrication, falsifying or misrepresenting of research data occurs the committee takes appropriate action. No participant were forced to take part in the study and no incentives such as money were used into luring participants into taking part. Participants were free to pull out of the study at any given stage. All the procedures as far as ethical conduct throughout the research were adhered to by the researcher. The researcher kept all collected data as confidential and did not use it for any other purposes other than those of the research.

1.11. SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 4

Chapter 4 explored the research methodology and design used in this study and defined this as a quantitative study. A self-administered questionnaire was used in order to assess if international students would recommend Johannesburg as a tourist destination. In total, 375 questionnaires were collected, and 375 usable questionnaires were captured, cleaned and analysed. The chapter was divided into 12 sections. The first section was the introduction, the second, a discussion of quantitative research, in the third, a sampling design was presented, and the fourth explored the sample size. In the fifth section, the sample method was also discussed. Chapter 5 explores the data analysis process as well as discusses the results of the study. Chapter 5 also includes the interpretation of the results and ends with a summary of the entire chapter.

5. CHAPTER 5: DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

1.1. INTRODUCTION

Chapter 4 explored the methods and procedures that were used to obtain the findings that are represented in this chapter. This chapter presents and discusses the findings that were obtained through empirical investigation. This chapter presents statistical analysis of data that was collected through the data collection tool (research questionnaire). To analyse the data, the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 24) was utilised. In this chapter, descriptive statistics are discussed, and the reliability of all the constructs in the model used to develop the questionnaire is also discussed. Structural Equation Modelling was also conducted, where Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Path Modelling were conducted. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted in order to check for Model Fit, Reliability and Validity of the scales used in the research questionnaire. To check the validity of the scales, shared variance was compared to average variance extracted (AVE). Path Modelling (PM) was conducted to check for model fit, and to test the hypotheses of the study.

1.2. DESCRIPTIVES

1.1.1.1 BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION OF THE SAMPLE

Demographic data indicates socio-economic descriptors of the participants involved in the survey, which is referred to as the classification of information (Malhotra, 2010). The information obtained is presented by means of pie charts. Section A of the questionnaire relates to the demographic information of the total sample, which refers to the participants' gender, age, highest level of education and length of stay in Johannesburg. Each of these characteristics is discussed in the following subsections.

1.1.1.2 GENDER

Table 5.1 reports the demographical information pertaining to the participants' gender. The majority of the respondents were female with 49.5 percent (n=147), followed by those who identified themselves as male with 47.8 percent (n=142). Moreover, there are those who preferred not to say, and they represented a small portion of this sample which is 2.7 percent (n=8).

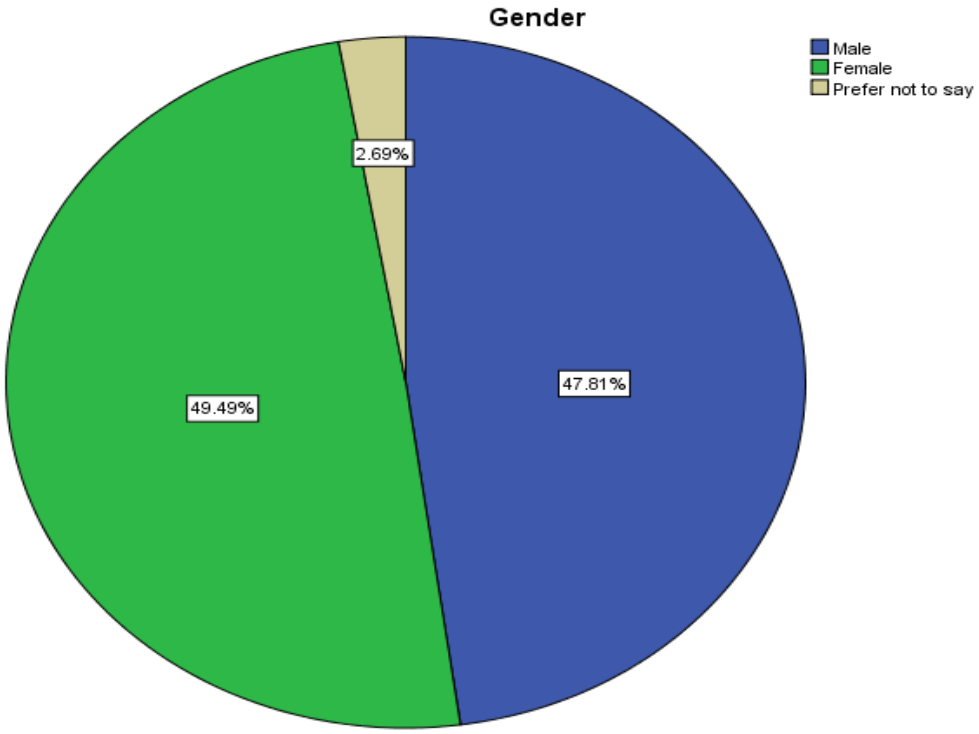


Figure 6: Pie chart showing the gender of the respondents

Table 3: Frequency of Gender of participants

GENDER					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	142	47.8	47.8	47.8
	Female	147	49.5	49.5	97.3
	Prefer not to say	8	2.7	2.7	100.0
	Total	297	100.0	100.0	

1.1.1.3 AGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE RESPONDENTS

The majority of the participants indicated that 55.6 percent (n=165) of the respondents were 18-21 years of age, closely followed by 33.3 percent (n=99) who indicated being 26-35 years of age, then followed by 10.1 percent (n=30) who were 36-45 years of age. For the remaining respondents, 1.0 percent (n=3) indicated that they were over 46 years of age.

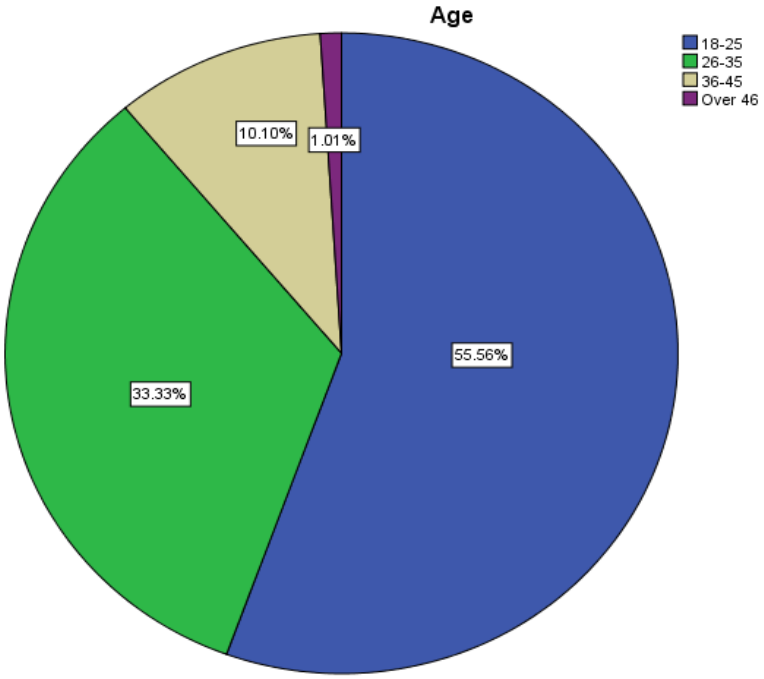


Figure 7: Pie chart of the ages of respondents

Table 4: Frequency of ages of respondents

AGE						
			Frequency	Percent	Valid Per-cent	Cumulative Percent
Valid		18-25	165	55.6	55.6	55.6
		26-35	99	33.3	33.3	88.9
		36-45	30	10.1	10.1	99.0
		Over 46	3	1.0	1.0	100.0
		Total	297	100.0	100.0	

1.1.1.4 HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION

Table 5.3 presented the classification of information related to the participants' highest level of education. According to table 5.3, 61.6 percent (n=183) were students with bachelors degree, 19.2 percent (n=57) were students who had honours degrees, 16.2 percent (n=48) were students who had masters degrees as their highest level of education. The remainder (small portion) of the respondents, 3.0 percent (n=9) were holders of doctoral degrees.

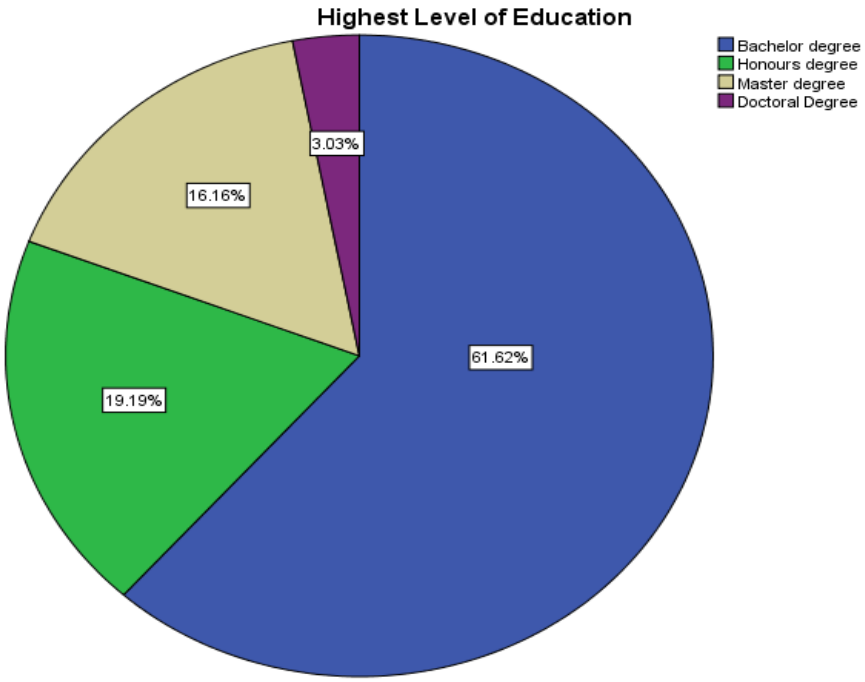


Figure 8: Pie chart of the highest level of education of respondents

Table 5: Highest level of education

Highest Level of Education					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Bachelor degree	183	61.6	61.6	61.6
	Honours degree	57	19.2	19.2	80.8
	Master degree	48	16.2	16.2	97.0

	Doctoral Degree	9	3.0	3.0	100.0
	Total	297	100.0	100.0	

1.1.2. LENGTH OF STAY IN JOHANNESBURG

The majority of the participants indicated that 28.3 percent (n=84) of the respondents had stayed in Johannesburg for a period of 5-6 years, closely followed by 21.2 percent (n=63) who indicated that they had stayed in Johannesburg for a period which is less than one year, then followed by 19.2 percent (n=57) who indicated that they had stayed in Johannesburg for a period which is over seven years. In addition, 16.2 (n=48) of the respondents had stayed in Johannesburg for a period of 3-4 years. For the remaining respondents, 15.2 percent (n=45) indicated that they had stayed in Johannesburg for a period of 1-2 years

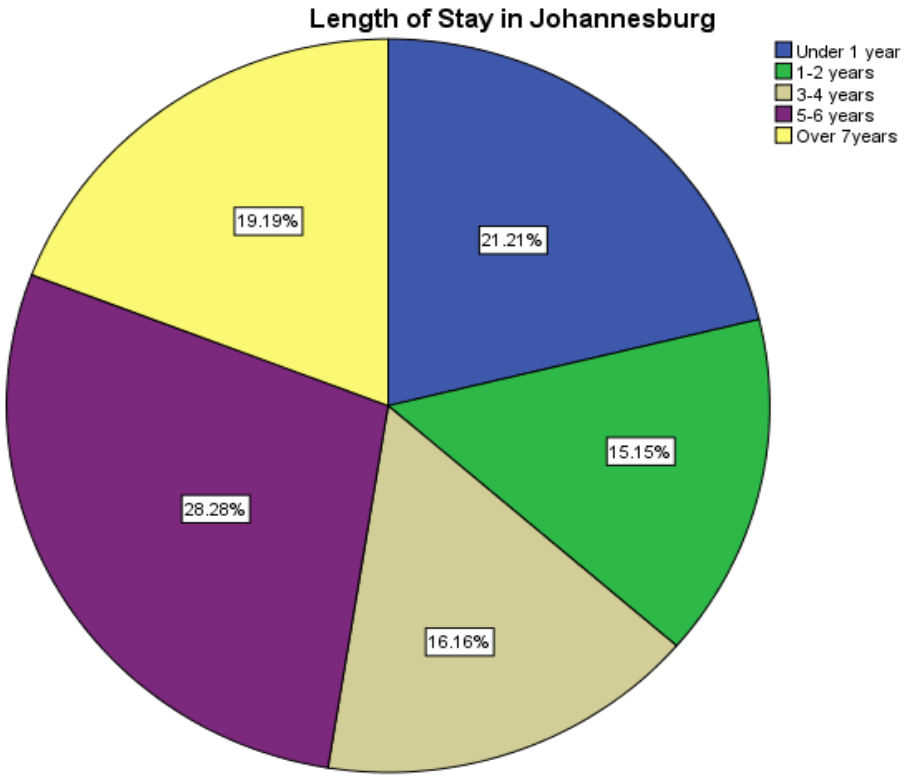


Figure 9: Pie chart of the length of stay in Johannesburg

Table 6: Length of stay in Johannesburg

Length of Stay in Johannesburg					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Under 1 year	63	21.2	21.2	21.2
	1-2 years	45	15.2	15.2	36.4
	3-4 years	48	16.2	16.2	52.5
	5-6 years	84	28.3	28.3	80.8
	Over 7years	57	19.2	19.2	100.0
	Total	297	100.0	100.0	

Table 7: Accuracy analysis statistics

Research Construct		Descriptive Statistics				Cronbach's Test		C.R. Value	AVE Value	Highest Shared Varience	Factor Loading
		Mean Value		Standard Deviation		Item-total	α value				
CR	CR1	4,175	4,125	0,685	0,683	0,777	0,918	0,809	0,468	0,176	0,575
	CR2	4,128		0,733		0,743					0,675
	CR3	4,084		0,566		0,907					0,632
	CR4	4,057		0,740		0,759					0,927
	CR5	4,182		0,693		0,805					0,544
CBI	CBI1	4,094	4,198	0,635	0,664	0,832	0,920	0,846	0,389	0,198	0,522
	CBI2	4,145		0,685		0,786					0,771
	CBI3	4,468		0,697		0,747					0,629
	CBI4	4,104		0,603		0,832					0,578
	CBI5	4,178		0,701		0,781					0,592
CP	CP1	4,468	4,182	0,697	0,707	0,691	0,896	0,705	0,324	0,202	0,578
	CP2	4,182		0,698		0,888					0,532
	CP3	4,162		0,698		0,847					0,607
	CP4	3,923		0,747		0,458					0,606
	CP5	4,178		0,696		0,886					0,519
DI	DI1	3,788	4,094	0,809	0,706	0,534	0,876	0,836	0,507	0,206	0,789
	DI2	4,172		0,703		0,799					0,729
	DI3	4,165		0,700		0,816					0,663
	DI4	4,104		0,641		0,706					0,773
	DI5	4,239		0,678		0,721					0,587
IR	IR1	4,088	4,094	0,687	0,719	0,776	0,920	0,767	0,357	0,206	0,661
	IR2	4,091		0,736		0,720					0,740
	IR3	4,088		0,788		0,659					0,619
	IR4	4,017		0,746		0,701					0,557
	IR5	4,178		0,696		0,755					0,592
	IR6	4,323		0,747		0,624					0,563
	IR7	4,094		0,676		0,801					0,682
	IR8	4,091		0,708		0,693					0,501
	IR9	3,785		0,722		0,614					0,571
	IR10	4,185		0,680		0,668					0,654

As observed in table 7, above all the items per construct had a mean that ranged from 4,094 to 4,198. In addition, the standard deviation values ranged from 0,683 to 0,719. It was also noted that in both cases (mean and standard deviation), the values were between -2 and +2 indicating that data was fairly distributed. As for reliability, the Cronbach's alpha (α), was shown to be above 0.6 for all the constructs, indicating robust reliability. Composite reliability (CR) values were also above 0.6, further supporting the existence of reliability of the data. In order to test for validity of the data the average variance extracted (AVE) values were above 0.5 indicating validity of the data. The highest shared variances (HSV) were lower than the AVE for all constructs, indicating the presence of discriminant validity. Most of the item to total values were at 0.5 or close to 0.5 indicating that there was sufficient reliability of the data. These values

ranged from 0.176 to 0.206. Lastly table 8 showed factors loadings reaching 0.5 or exceeding 0.5 in some instance proving that the data was indeed reliable.

Table 8: Diagrammatic Representation of Composite Reliability Calculations

				Composite reliability (CR)			
					summation of error terms		**CRη=(Σλyi)2/[(Σλyi)2+(Σεi)]**
				(∑λYi)²	έi	∑έi	CR
CR	<---	CR1	0,575	11,243	0,669	2,659	0,809
	<---	CR2	0,675		0,544		
	<---	CR3	0,632		0,601		
	<---	CR4	0,927		0,141		
	<---	CR5	0,544		0,704		
CBI	<---	CBI1	0,522	9,560	0,728	1,737	0,846
	<---	CBI2	0,771		0,406		
	<---	CBI3	0,629		0,604		
	<---	CBI4	0,578		0,666		
	<---	CBI5	0,592		0,650		
CP	<---	CP1	0,578	8,077	0,666	3,378	0,705
	<---	CP2	0,532		0,717		
	<---	CP3	0,607		0,632		
	<---	CP4	0,606		0,633		
	<---	CP5	0,519		0,731		
DI	<---	DI1	0,789	12,5387	0,377	2,464	0,836
	<---	DI2	0,729		0,469		
	<---	DI3	0,663		0,560		
	<---	DI4	0,773		0,402		
	<---	DI5	0,587		0,655		
IR	<---	IR1	0,661	12,6950	0,563	3,863	0,767
	<---	IR2	0,740		0,452		
	<---	IR3	0,619		0,617		
	<---	IR4	0,557		0,690		

	<---	IR5	0,592		0,650		
	<---	IR6	0,563		0,683		
	<---	IR7	0,682		0,535		
	<---	IR8	0,501		0,749		
	<---	IR9	0,571		0,674		
	<---	IR10	0,654		0,572		

According to Yang and Lai (2010), in reliability analysis, an acceptable CR value must exceed 0.7. The internal reliability of each construct was also evaluated using the Composite Reliability (CR) index test. It is calculated using the following formula:

(CR): $CR_\eta = (\Sigma\lambda yi)_2 / [(\Sigma\lambda yi)_2 + (\Sigma\varepsilon i)]$

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

The results in Table 8 above indicate that composite reliability (CR) indexes were between 0.705 and 0.846 These values surpassed the estimate criteria used by past literature.

Using the results of the construct "City Rejuvenation" to demonstrate, the calculation for Composite Reliability was conducted as follows :

Step1: $(\Sigma\lambda yi)^2 = (0.575+0.675+0.632+0.927+0.544)^2$

= 11,242609

Step2: $\Sigma\varepsilon i = (1-0.575)^2 + (1-0.675)^2 + (1-0.632)^2 + (1-0.927)^2 + (1-0.544)^2$

= 0,63961

Step3: $CR_\eta = 11,242609 / (11,242609 + 2, 659)$

= 0,8087271768

Table 9: Diagrammatic Representation of Average Variance Extracted Calculations

			Esti-mate	λyi²	∑λyi²	ε̇i	∑ε̇i	∑λyi² / (∑λyi² + ∑ε̇i)
CR	<---	CR1	0,575	0,331	2,341	0,669	2,659	0,468
	<---	CR2	0,675	0,456		0,544		
	<---	CR3	0,632	0,399		0,601		
	<---	CR4	0,927	0,859		0,141		
	<---	CR5	0,544	0,296		0,704		
CBI	<---	CBI1	0,522	0,272	1,947	0,728	3,053	0,389
	<---	CBI2	0,771	0,594		0,406		
	<---	CBI3	0,629	0,396		0,604		
	<---	CBI4	0,578	0,334		0,666		
	<---	CBI5	0,592	0,350		0,650		
CP	<---	CP1	0,578	0,334	1,622	0,666	3,378	0,324
	<---	CP2	0,532	0,283		0,717		
	<---	CP3	0,607	0,368		0,632		
	<---	CP4	0,606	0,367		0,633		
	<---	CP5	0,519	0,269		0,731		
DI	<---	DI1	0,789	0,623	2,536	0,377	2,464	0,507
	<---	DI2	0,729	0,531		0,469		
	<---	DI3	0,663	0,440		0,560		

	<---	DI4	0,773	0,598		0,402		
	<---	DI5	0,587	0,345		0,655		
IR	<---	IR1	0,661	0,437	1,787	0,563	3,213	0,357
	<---	IR2	0,740	0,548		0,452		
	<---	IR3	0,619	0,383		0,617		
	<---	IR4	0,557	0,310		0,690		
	<---	IR5	0,592	0,350		0,650		
	<---	IR6	0,563	0,317		0,683		
	<---	IR7	0,682	0,465		0,535		
	<---	IR8	0,501	0,251		0,749		
	<---	IR9	0,571	0,326		0,674		
	<---	IR10	0,654	0,428		0,572		

The average variance extracted estimate reveals the overall amount of variance in the indicators accounted for by the latent construct (Henseler, Ringle & Sinkovics, 2009). Higher values for the variance extracted estimate (greater than 0.50) reveal that the indicators well represent the latent construct (Henseler *et al*., 2009).

The formula below is used to calculate Average Variance Extracted (AVE):

$$\mathbf{V_\eta = \Sigma\lambda yi^2 / (\Sigma\lambda yi^2 + \Sigma\varepsilon i)}$$

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

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

Step 1: $\Sigma\lambda yi^2 = (0.575^2+0.675^2+0.632^2+0.927^2+0.544^2)$

$= 2{,}340939$

Step 2: $\Sigma\varepsilon i = (1-0.575)^2 + (1-0.675)^2 + (1-0.632)^2 + (1-0.927)^2 + (1-0.544)^2$

$= 0{,}63961$

Step 3: $V_\eta = 2{,}340939 / (2{,}340939+2{,}659)$

$= 0{,}468193512$

The above demonstrated steps were carried out when calculating the AVE of each of the research constructs. As indicated in Table 8, a good representation of the latent construct by the item is identified when the variance extracted estimate is above 0.5 (Byrne, 2013). The results of AVE range from 0.324 to 0.507 in Table 8 thereby confirm an acceptable representation of the latent construct by the items.

Altogether, the construct reliabilities and the average variance extracted estimates suggest the scales are internally consistent. In this study, the average variance extracted estimate revealed that the overall amount of variance in the indicators was accounted for by the latent construct. All average variance explained (AVE) values ranged from 0.324 to 0.507, and were thus acceptable, if following from (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) As indicated in Table 8, all the average value extracted (AVE) are above the shared values (SV) for all the research.

Table 10: Interconstruct correlation matrix

	CR	CB	CP	DI	IR
CR	1				
CB	0.420**	1			
CP	0.162**	0.431**	1		
DI	0.165**	0.361**	0.449**	1	
IR	0.235**	0.445**	0.284**	0.454**	1

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

As indicated in **table 10** above, all correlation values were below 1 showing that each construct measured completely distinct aspects from the other. Furthermore, all correlation values were close to 1 indicating that they were fairly strong. The inter-construct correlation matrix was used to check for discriminant validity of the research constructs. Correlations among latent constructs were evaluated in order to see if they were lower than 1.0. A value lower than 0.7 for research constructs is recommended to confirm discriminant validity (Chuchu, 2015). The values for the constructs presented below are marginally accepted as they range from 0.6 to 0.7 highest shared variance.

Table 11: Variance

	CR	CBI	CP	DI	IR
CR	1	0,176	0,026	0,027	0,055
CBI	0,176	1	0,186	0,130	0,198
CP	0,026	0,186	1	0,202	0,081
DI	0,027	0,130	0,202	1	0,206
IR	0,055	0,198	0,081	0,206	1

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

Obtained by squaring correlations; highest construct value on vertical

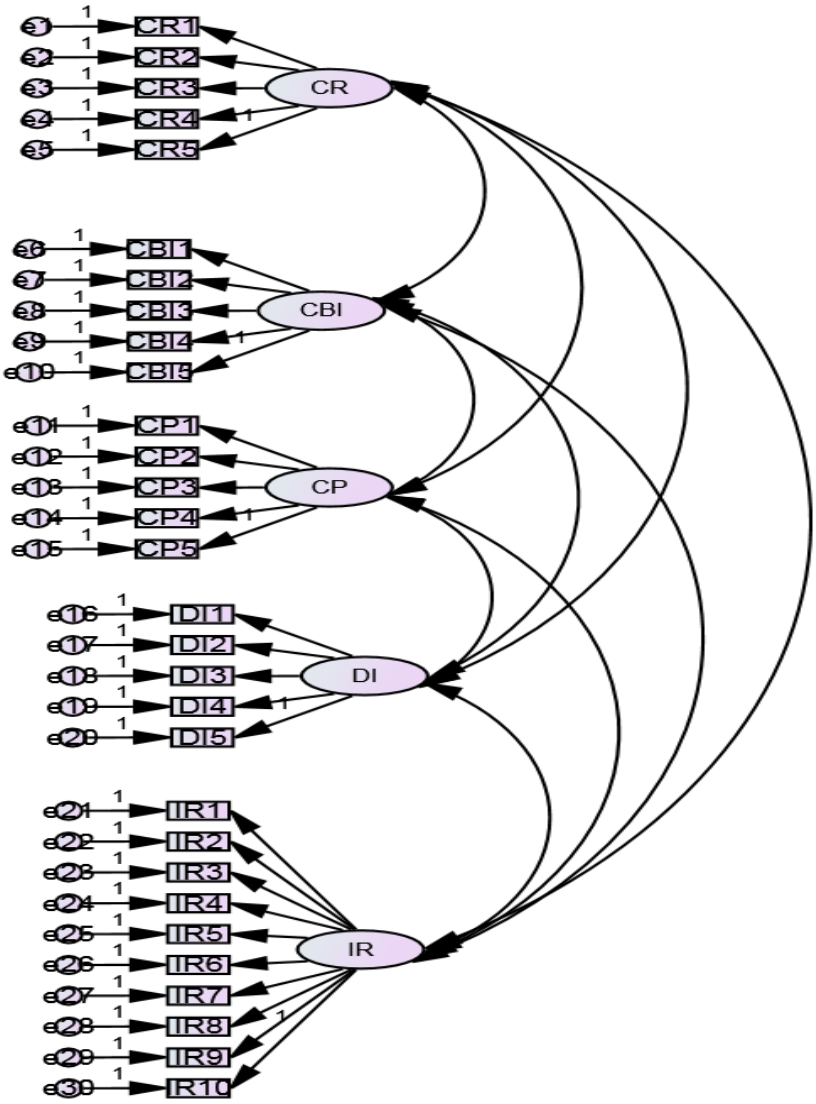


Figure 10: Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) Model

Note:

CR: City Rejuvenation,

CBI: City Brand Identity,

CP: City Perception,

DI: Destination Image,

IR: Intention to Recommend

Table 12: CFA MODEL FIT INDICES

Model fit criteria	Chi-square (χ^2 /DF)	GFI	CFI	TLI	IFI	RFI	NFI	RMSEA
Indicator value	1,118	0,926	0,871	0,831	0,985	0,979	0,984	0,02

The research model was run and had the following results:

Chi-square (£q2/df) = 1,118 Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = 0,926Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0,871, Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) =0, 831,Incremental Fit Index (IFI) =0,985, Relative Fit Index (RFI) = 0,979 Norm Fit Index (NFI) = 0,984, Random Measure of Standard Error Approximation (RMSEA) =0,02. All these values exceeded the recommended thresholds.

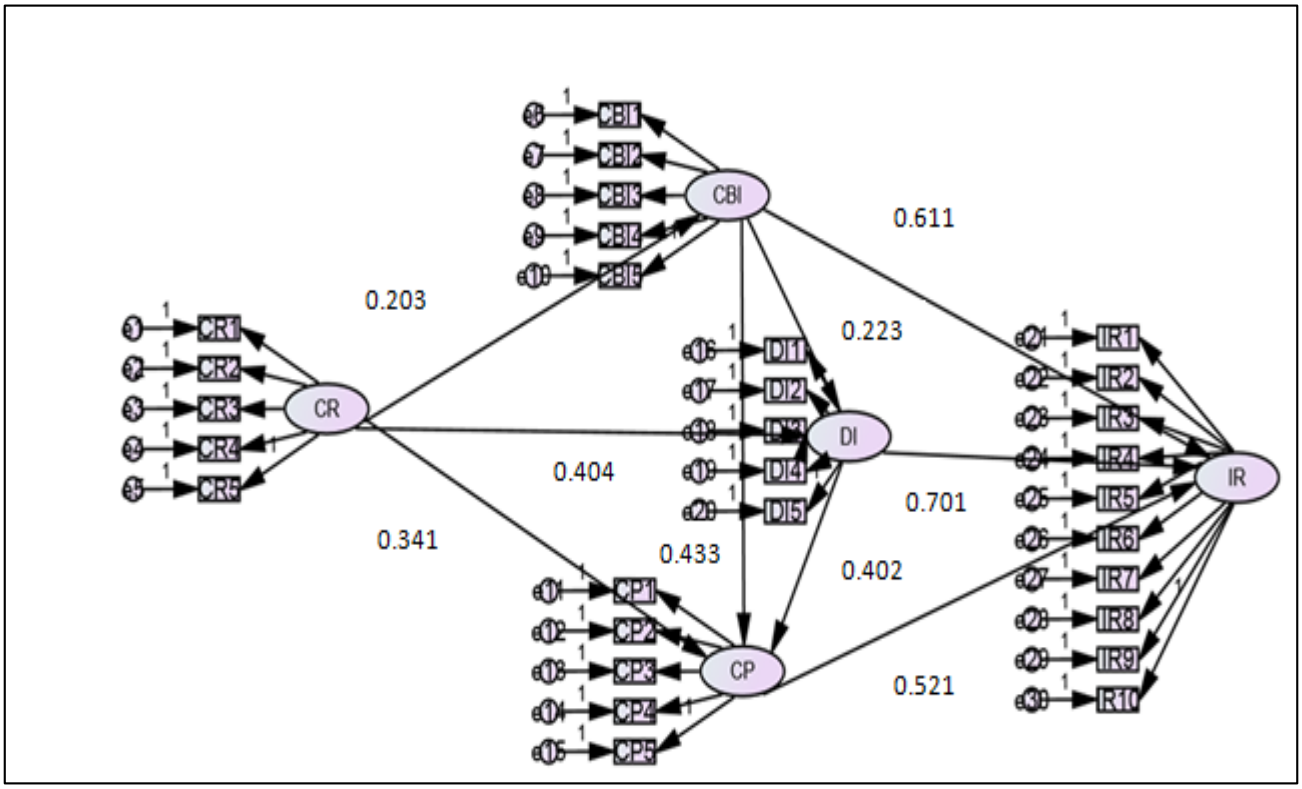


Figure 11: Structural Model

CR: City Rejuvenation, CBI: City Brand Identity, CP: City Perception,DI: Destination Image, IR: Intention to Recommend

Table 13: Hypothesis table

Relationship	Hypothesis	P Value	Estimate	Outcome
CR &CBI	H1	***	0.203	Supported & Significant
CR & DI	H2	0.002	0.404	Supported & Significant
CR & CP	H3	0.001	0.341	Supported & Significant
CBI & CP	H4	***	0.433	Supported & Significant
CBI & DI	H5	0.105	0.223	Supported but not significant
DI & CP	H6	***	0.402	Supported & Significant
CBI & IR	H7	0.02	0.611	Supported & Significant
ID & IR	H8	***	0.701	Supported & Significant
CP & IR	H9	0.003	0.521	Supported & Significant

Structural model fits: χ^2/df= 1.118; GFI= 0.926; CFI= 0.871; TLI= 0.831; IFI= 0.985; RFI= 0.979; NFI= 0.984;RMSEA= 0.02

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

1.3. MODEL FIT RESULTS

The assessment of the proposed conceptual model proceeded using the same data set. The ratio of chi-square over degree-of-freedom was 1,118. This value is less than the recommended threshold of less than 3.0 and therefore, confirms the model fit (Chinomona, 2011). The GFI, CFI, TLI, IFI, RFI, NFI and RMSEA values were 0.926, 0.871, 0.831, 0.985, 0.979, 0.984 and 0.02. The model fit measures exceeded the recommended acceptable threshold of than 0.8 for GFI, CFI, TLI and for RMSEA the model fit was lower the recommended threshold of 0.08 (Hooper *et al*.,2008; Chinomona, 2011). These results suggest that the proposed research conceptual model converged satisfactorily and could represent the underlying empirical data structure collected at the Universtiy of the Witwaterwatersrand. The model fit was acceptable and the study proceeded to test the research hypotheses.

1.4. DISCUSSION OF HYPOTHESIS TESTING RESULTS

As seen in table 5 all hypotheses coefficients were at least at a significant level of $p< 0.01$. The purpose of this research was to test the positive relationship of the hypotheses listed in CHAPTER 3 and below is the results and outcomes as indicated in table 13:

H1: City Rejuvenation has a positive effect on City Brand Identity

H2: City Rejuvenation has a positive effect on Destination Image

H3: City Rejuvenation has a positive effect on City Perception

H1, H2 and H3 posited that city rejuvenation had a positive and direct relationship with city brand identity, destination image and city perceptions. All these three hypotheses were supported, therefore, indicating that city rejuvenation has an important and significant impact on city brand identity, destination image and city perceptions. This supports Moilanen and Rainisto (2009), research that there are several types of development and construction which can be regarded as formulas that shape the urban landscape as the formal factor. These as explored in the research include new urban centres, financial and business one, with a cluster of high-rise towers and at least one landmark structure or skyscraper as well as mega-projects, which usually consist of multiple uses (commercial, residential) and can make dramatic changes to the city. The other 2 development and constructions urban cultural facilities, including museums, galleries, theatres, stadia and the other civil and educational buildings of large scale as

well as f airport, main railway station, seaport, urban metro to bridges as stated by (Zulu ,2015)
.

H4: City Brand Identity has a positive effect on City Perception

H5: City Brand Identity has a positive effect on Destination Image

H7: City Brand Identity has a positive effect on Intention to Recommend

H4, H5 and H7 posited that city brand identity had a positive and direct relationship to city perception, destination image and intention to recommend. These hypotheses were supported, therefore indicating that an improvement or deterioration in city brand identity will have an important and significant impact on city perception, destination image and intention to recommend. This supports Murphy *et al*.,(2007) statement that destination identity is a reasonable antecedent of behavioural intentions; direct and positive links are mainly found from competence and sophistication. This was also highlighted by Spike (2009) in his research that indicated that host community should generally be regarded as active participants of local tourism, both as hosts of visiting friends or relatives, and as occasional local tourists. While destination Identity is an affective construct because its definition is consistent with the meaning of affection. For example, Biel (1993) interprets destination identity to be tourists' emotional attachment to the destination as cited by Stylidis *et al*., (2016) who indicates that a well-established destination identity projects strong affection of tourists. Moilanen and Rainisto (2009), statement is supported by these findings that cognitive knowledge induces affective response. Hence, cognitive destination image is conceived to directly affect the affection-based destination identity. This posit gains credibility in Palatkova's (2012) work where a distinctive and emotionally attractive destination identity is found to be reflected by perceived image of a place.

H6: Destination Image has a positive effect on City Perception

H8: Destination Image has a positive effect on Intention to Recommend

H9: City Perception has a positive effect on Intention to Recommend

Hypothesis six and eight (H6, H8 and H9) posited that destination image had direct and positive relationships with city perception and intention to recommend. These hypotheses were

supported, therefore indicating that there are significant relationships that exist between destination image and city perception as well as destination image and intention to recommend. These hypotheses support the statement that "Destination image plays an important role in tourists' destination choice processes, post- travel evaluations, and future behaviours" as indicated by (Tasci & Gartner, 2007; Wang & Leou, 2015). A rich body of research models the interrelationships between destination image, tourist satisfaction and behavioural intentions (Chi & Qu, 2008; Eusébio & Vieira, 2013). While some studies show that destination image directly influences behavioural intentions (Choi, Tkachenko & Sil, 2011; Nadeau, Heslop, O'Reilly & Luk, 2008) reveal an indirect relationship via the satisfaction construct. In addition, destination image exerts both direct and indirect influence on tourists' behavioural intentions (Wang & Leou, 2015).

1.5. CHAPTER 5 SUMMARY

Chapter 5 is divided into six sections. The chapter provided the empirical results drawn from the study. The first section is the introduction which begins with a brief overview of chapter 4 and then proceeds to explore the data screening process followed by the data analytics procedures. The second section explores the descriptive statistics of the current study, which includes a detailed description of the sample, together with a diagrammatic illustration of the sample profile. Thereafter, in the third section, the reliability tests are discussed, including a diagrammatic illustration of the reliability tests. Initial and final analysis accuracy statistics are also illustrated diagrammatically in the third section. The forth section is comprised of the reliability test; the Cronbach's alpha (α), Composite reliability (CR) and the Average variance extracted (AVE). The fifth section is comprised of the validity tests, construct validity, convergent validity and discriminant validity. Also included in the fifth section is a diagrammatic illustration of the inter-construct correlation matrix, a comparison of the average variance extracted (AVE) and the shared variance (SV). Model fit is explored include a diagrammatic representation of model fit criteria and acceptable fit level. The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) model is illustrated and discussed. Thereafter, the model fit results are discussed and

illustrated diagrammatically. An introduction to structural equation modelling is provided, followed by a diagrammatic illustration of the structural model. The structural model is followed by hypothesis testing and a discussion of results of structural equation model analysis. In Chapter 5, the proposed hypothesis for the study was a test requiring conducting structural equation modelling (SEM) using the AMOS 24 software program and then discussion of the research findings. The study investigated the direct effects of city rejuvenation and city perception, city rejuvenation and city brand identity, city brand identity and destination image, city rejuvenation and destination image, destination image and city perception, city perception and intention to recommend and lastly, city brand identity and intention to recommend. In a nutshell, all nine posited hypotheses were supported, as expected. Finally, the sixth section is made up of the summary of Chapter 5 and a brief discussion of Chapter 6.

6 CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS IMPLICATIONS & SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

1.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter explores the findings of the study, limitations, implications and possible future research. This chapter also provides a comprehensive conclusion of the entire study. The aim of this study was to examine factors that influence the intention to recommend Johannesburg as a tourist destination from an international student's perspective. Structural equation modelling (SEM) was applied to assess the proposed research model and hypothesis. The analytical results implied that all the proposed hypotheses were supported. It was observed that the relationship between destination image (DI) and intention to recommend (IR) was the most important relationship, as it had the highest factor loading, indicated by 0.701 (see Table 13).

1.2. OVERVIEW AND THE OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The researcher used the inputs obtained over the previous five chapters in the study in order to draw the relevant recommendations and conclusion on this study. The primary objective of this study as stated in Chapter 1, followed by the theoretical objectives reviewed and the empirical objectives. The primary purpose of Chapter 1 was to lay out the background of the study, problem definition, formulate research objectives and outline research methods. The proposed research model and hypotheses development were also presented .These were followed by the statistical analysis techniques employed and then ethical principles adhered to in this study. The theoretical objectives formulated in Chapter 1 were used in structuring Chapter 2 (literature review).

Chapter 2 started with an overview of International students and globalisation, tourism as well Institutes of Higher learning in South Africa, followed by the theories used in destination image and destination branding. The theoretical objectives dictated the discussions on city perception, city brand identity, city rejuvenation, destination image and intention to recommend.

The theoretical and empirical objectives are revisited in the next section in order to demonstrate the attainment of the objectives within the framework of the study.

1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The purpose of this study is to investigate the Factors that Influence the intention to Recommend Johannesburg as Tourist Destination based on International Student's Perspectives.

1.3.1 Theoretical objectives

The theoretical objectives, as set out in Chapter 1 are outlined and reviewed. For tourism scholars and researchers to make informed decisions and derive value from this study, all research objectives have to be addressed based on the data generated from survey in order to ensure that the initial purposes of the study were achieved.

To review the theory of destination image and destination branding

Extensive literature review was undertaken to understand intention to recommend a city. A combination of academic journal articles, textbooks, and online sources were used as literature sources. The theory of Destination Image has been used to explore relationships between city brand identity, city perception, city rejuvenation and the intention to recommend. The theory of destination branding was also used to understand intention to recommend ,destination image and city perception.

To review literature on City Brand identity

This objective is achieved in Section 2.4.1 of Chapter 2 dedicated to the important factors to be considered to brand a city and the role they have in a city's identity. The chapter covers definitions of city brand identity, city personality and culture and the role infrastructure plays.

To review literature on City Rejuvenation

This objective was covered under Section 2.4.2 this section explained the concept of city rejuvenation and how the development of new facilities becomes economically feasible, and simultaneously serves to revitalise the tourist attraction.

To review literature on Destination Image

This theoretical objective was dealt with under Section 2.3.1 and 2.4.3 this section provided the definition, explanation and the discussion of destination image.

To review literature on City Perception

This theoretical objective was dealt with under Section 2.4.4 this section provided the definition, explanation and the discussion of city perception.

To review literature on Intention to Recommend

This theoretical objective was dealt with under Section 2.4.5. This section provided the definition, explanation and the discussion of determinants of intentions to recommend a tourist destination.

Empirical objectives

The empirical objectives, as set out in Chapter 1 of this study are revisited in the next sections. Thus, Chapter 5 presents the empirical findings of the data analysis.

To investigate the influence of City Rejuvenation on City Brand Identity

The relationship between City Rejuvenation and City Brand Identity is illustrated in Table 13 under Section 5 (hypotheses table) and the statistical indicators of the impact for the dataset for this study are indicated. This objective was achieved as the results indicated that City Rejuvenation does have is a significant and positive effect on City Brand Identity.

To investigate the influence of City Rejuvenation on Destination Image

This objective was achieved as the results indicated that City Rejuvenation does have is a significant and positive effect on Destination Image.

To investigate the influence of City Rejuvenation on City Perception

This objective was achieved as the results indicated that City Rejuvenation does have is a significant and positive effect on City Perception.

To investigate the influence of City Brand Identity on City Perception

This objective was achieved as the results indicated that City Brand Identity does have is a significant and positive effect on City Perception.

To investigate the influence of City Brand Identity on Destination Image

This objective was achieved as the results indicated that City Brand Identity does have is a significant and positive effect on Destination Image.

To investigate the influence of Destination Image on City Perception

This objective was achieved as the results indicated that Destination Image does have is a significant and positive effect on City Perception.

To investigate the influence of City Brand Identity on Intention to Recommend

This objective was achieved as the results indicated that City Brand Identity does have is a significant and positive effect on Intention to Recommend.

To investigate the influence of Destination Image on Intention to Recommend

This objective was achieved as the results indicated that Destination Image does have is a significant and positive effect on Intention to Recommend.

To investigate the influence of City Perception on Intention to Recommend

This objective was achieved as the results indicated that City Perception does have is a significant and positive effect on Intention to Recommend.

1.2. IMPLICATIONS

The current research has both academic and practical implications. Academically, the current study contributes to existing literature on the relationship between city rejuvenation and city brand identity. The implication of this relationship is that marketers can predict that an improvement in city rejuvenation will lead to an improvement in the city's brand identity. Still on the academic front, it was observed that the relationship between city rejuvenation and destination image was positive. This implied that marketers can predict that an improvement in city rejuvenation will lead to an improvement in the city's brand identity that is held by the students. City brand identity has a lot to do with the city's personality which includes the culture, and entertainment, therefore city marketers have to increase the city rejuvenation which includes transport infrastructure and crime statistics, amongst other things, in order to make Johannesburg attractive.

The relationship between city brand identity and intention to recommend was also positive. This relationship implied that the constant increase in the number of international students at the University of the Witwatersrand was a result of the relationship that exists between city brand identity and intention to recommend and thus city marketers and local city government need to keep crime statistics at a low, amongst other things. This is supported by Murphy *et al*.

(2007) who indicated that destination identity is a reasonable antecedent of behavioural intentions, direct and positive links are mainly found from competence and sophistication. The relationship between destination image and city perception was also positive. This implied that the image of a destination that the students had before arriving in Johannesburg was heavily impacted by their perception of the city upon arrival.

The relationship between city perception and intent to recommend was also positive. This implied that when the students have a positive perception of Johannesburg during their studies, they are more likely to recommend it as a tourist destination. This means that city marketers must ensure that they anticipate increased tourist volume as the number of international students increases annually.

On the practical front, the current study also has some implications for marketing practitioners in South Africa. According to the findings, the impact that city rejuvenation has on a city cannot and should not be ignored by city marketers and local governments.

1.3. FUTURE RESEARCH AND LIMITATIONS

The current study leaves room for further future research in the field of destination marketing. There are opportunities for researchers to either explore the same variables of this study in greater depth, or to add new variables that could potentially predict international students' intention to recommend Johannesburg as a tourist destination. The fact that respondents were all registered students implied that they had access to financial resources and education, which may have created a bias in their own perceptions about Johannesburg. Their views can furthermore be generalised to the greater Johannesburg region. The researcher would recommend that similar studies be conducted on a larger scale, that is, with a larger sample size and within larger geographic regions, so as not to be limited to respondents of a certain demographic profile. For instance, the current study only used students from one university, and recommendations for future research would be for researchers to consider larger populations, possibly surveying respondents from more than one university, city or province. This would allow for more diversity in the sample and for more informed results. The study suffered greatly from financial and time constraints, and if this could be addressed in futures studies, the possibility of producing more informed results would be greater.

1.4. OVERALL RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION

The current study makes a contribution to literature on the destination marketing intention to recommend. Based on the findings of the study, city perception, destination image and city brand identity all have a positive impact on student's intention to recommend Johannesburg as a tourist destination. Another contribution to the literature made here was to confirm that city rejuvenation and city brand identity both have a direct and positive impact on destination image, as suggested by the opening hypotheses. This was confirmed by what Braun, Kavaratzis and Zenker, (2013) stated that in building the city's image, architecture is one of the key elements for building the city image, which truly needs some visual and concrete factors to catch people's attentions and make them believe. Finally, the last contribution to the literature of destination marketing made by the current study is that destination image has a positive relationship on the students' city perception. This supported Lee and Xie's (2011) statement that destination image has a positive effect on city perception.

1.5. SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 6

The purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship of the following variable: "city rejuvenation" to the following variables: "city brand identity"; "city perception" and "destination image". This was done in an attempt to establish whether the latter were predictors of the "intention to recommend". Based on the above-mentioned variables, a conceptual research model was developed (see Figure 5). This final chapter provided four concluding sections, presenting a conclusion for the study that made up this thesis, noting the implications of these findings for study. The chapter then suggested directions of future studies in the field of destination marketing and closed with an overall conclusion, noting the contributions made to broader enquiry.

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