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THE INFLUENCE OF CITY BRANDING ON PERCEIVED IMAGE:

THE CASE OF BRAAMFONTEIN

By

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Abstract

Tourism has become one of the most significant export sectors in many developing countries and is purported to be the most viable and sustainable economic option, and in some of these (developing) nations, the main source of foreign exchange returns. It is therefore incumbent on destinations to effectively differentiate themselves especially when considering the increasingly competitive nature of tourism markets and an environment where many places that present similar features are becoming substitutionable. Contemporary urban development literature stresses the significance of place branding as an asset in the effective differentiation and positioning of places. It is noted that while many sources viewed the three main target markets for place branding as companies, visitors and residents, the role of the resident was limited to passive beneficiary as opposed to one of active engagement. Given the pervasion of the "staycation" and the concurrent rise in popularity of the Braamfontein Precinct, this paper will investigate the influence that place branding has had on the region's perceived image by those within the precinct. Self-administered structured surveys were distributed electronically and using the street-intercept method to individuals aged 18 – 35, who were in the Braamfontein Precinct. Descriptive statistics and inferential statistics were examined. Path Modeling, Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Structural Equation Modeling were also carried out in order to further analyse the data. The findings with regard to presented city brand, city brand equity and city brand meaning having a positive relationship with city brand image were both supported and significant at a 5% level of confidence. The findings with regard to city brand awareness having a positive relationship with city brand image were insignificant and consequently rejected. The study presents that investment in the presented city brand that goes beyond marketing communications to include city brand properties such as facilities, scenery, heritage and transport (amongst other amenities) will result in a favourable city brand image. It is also important that regional managers do not take a unilateral approach on deciding on a brand meaning but rather a consultative one that will result in involvement and ultimately investment from the various stakeholders. Additionally, the generation of curiosity and interest in the city brand is vital to encouraging customer involvement with the precinct. Digital marketing tools can be employed in this regard; online and search advertising can be used to raise awareness. Finally, social media can be used for customer generated content, allowing for both participation on the consumers' part and insights on the part of the regional management. This allows for engagement with consumers and provides branding opportunities for the region.

Keywords: Place Branding; Staycation; Braamfontein.

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Chapter One: Overview of the Study

1.1 Introduction

This study aims to ascertain the influence of place branding initiatives in the Braamfontein Precinct on its perceived image by those within the region. Below, chapter one provides a brief background of the study and outlines the problem statement and the consequent objectives. Thereafter, a succinct literature overview of the concepts will be provided and the research model, the accompanying hypotheses as well as the research design and methodology will be included. The chapter will conclude with the ethical considerations of the study and a guide as to the structure of the rest of the paper.

1.2 Background

Tourism is the world's largest service sector industry, in terms of international trade, with a business volume that equals and often outperforms the agriculture, petroleum and automobile industries (Lovelock & Wirtz, 2013; United Nations World Tourism Organisation, 2015). Tourism has become one of the most significant export sectors in many developing countries and is purported to be the most viable and sustainable economic option, and in some of these (developing) nations, the main source of foreign exchange returns (UNWTO, 2015). Given the supporting statistics from the United Nations World Tourism Organisation with regard to the impact of tourism in 2015 (Figure 1) it is unsurprising that tourism development has become a key area of focus for these governments (Lovelock & Wirtz, 2013).

Figure 1: Why Tourism Matters.



Source: United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) 2015

Further analysis reveals two key trends that have emerged from the tourism sector in recent years. The first; is the amalgamation of traditional tourism destinations such as Northern America and Western Europe (UNWTO, 2015) – evidenced by vacation packages and bundles provided by establishments such as Contiki Holidays, Student Flights and STA Travel (Contiki, 2015; Student Flights, 2015, STA Travel, 2015). The second trend, also referred to as "modern tourism", is the diversification in destinations which has resulted in a significant increase of tourists in developing countries and an accompanying growth in competition (Pike, 2008; UNWTO, 2014). Nevertheless roughly 70% of international travellers still only visit ten countries, which leave national tourism offices to compete for 30% of the total international arrivals (Morgan, Prichard & Piggot, 2003; Pike 2008).

Furthermore, where destinations were traditionally viewed as distinct parameters that were artificially divided by political and geographical boundaries, there is an increasing regard of

destinations as perceptual concepts (Morgan, Prichard & Piggot, 2003). Destinations are thus interpreted subjectively by virtue of consumers' preferences, cultural backgrounds, past experiences, educational level, purpose of the visit and travel itinerary (Pike, 2009). It is therefore incumbent on destinations to effectively differentiate themselves especially when considering the increasingly competitive nature of tourism markets and an environment where many places that present similar features are becoming substitutionable (Pike, 2005, The Editorial Team, 2015b). In this context characterised by rapid globalization and technological advancements, countries, cities and regions are forced to compete with every other for their share of tourists, business, entrepreneurs, investment, capital, consumers, students, cultural and sporting events as well as the respect and attention of other governments and international media (CEOs for Cities, 2006; Anholt, 2007; Qu, Kim & Im, 2010)

It is worth noting, however that the knowledge about a destination – and consequent desire to visit, do business or even relocate there - may be acquired in a school environment, from purchases, from journeys, contact with former residents and current citizens, news coverage and media sources (Iversen & Hem, 2008; Pike, 2008). Moreover, popular entertainment should not be discounted as a further avenue to provide significant information about a place (Iversen & Hem, 2008). However, given the nature of the marketplace, which is characterised by information fatigue and a constraint of time to create informed, balanced and complete assessments of nearly two hundred countries and over seven billion inhabitants (CIA, 2015), the complexities of destination choice is often overcome through the use of mental short-cuts (Anholt, 2006, Kalandides, 2011). International place branding authority Simon Anholt (2007) expands on this by highlighting pervasive clichés, for example; Paris = Style; Japan = Technology; Switzerland = Wealth and Precision, Rio = Carnival and Football; Tuscany =

The Good Life; most African nations = poverty, corruption, war, famine and disease. These stereotypes fundamentally affect behaviour towards a place, its people and its products. For these reasons, it is vital for places, in all scales, to provide a place narrative that will encourage tourism (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2006a; Anholt, 2007). This narrative should be derived from a system of qualities, attributes and promises that stories can be created around in order to persuade people in other parts of the world to go beyond simple images and start to understand the rich complexities that lie behind them (Anholt, 2007, Kalandides, 2011). This is termed "place branding."

Contemporary urban development literature stresses the significance of place branding as an asset in the effective differentiation and positioning of places (Keller, 2003; Hankinson, 2007; Ashworth & Kavartis, 2008). The central tenet of the place branding principle follows that; in the same way that branding can be used by products, services and companies as an effective tool to achieve competitive strength in the marketplace (Keller, 2003), so too can the concept be extended to places, persons and even ideologies (Aaker, 2006; Hankinson, 2004; Trueman, Cornelius & Killingbeck-Widdup, 2007). As a place brand narrative forms a foundation that impacts on the decision to frequent, conduct business or to ultimately relocate to a particular destination; the purpose of place branding is thus to "make consumers fully aware of a place's distinct advantages" (Kotler & Armstrong, 2008) and create a customer perception that will deliver a sustainable competitive advantage (CEOs for Cities, 2006). Place branding may vary in scale ranging from nation branding, urban branding, city branding, town branding to region branding (Hanna & Rowley, 2008). Nevertheless, place branding is by no means simple. Unlike product branding, place branding is seldom under the control of a central authority and it involves multiple stakeholders (Pryor & Grossbart, 2007, Kavaratzis, 2012).

Moreover, contemporary place branding practice focuses on three main target groups, namely; companies, visitors and residents (Zenker, Knubben & Beckman, 2010). Braun, Kavaratzis and Zenker (2013) assert that this view limits the role of the resident to that of a passive beneficiary as opposed to one of active engagement. This is particularly salient when one considers that after the Global Financial Crisis 2007-2008 many consumers found themselves overextended and thus making overseas holidays significantly more costly (Wixon, 2009). This inability to frequent tourist destinations gave rise to the practice of and neologism "staycation". That is; "the activity of making a vacation out of staying at home" or visiting local attractions (Sharma, 2009). This essentially refers to using the mind-frame of tourism while travelling to destinations within a delineated radius from the home (Kay & Wang, 2010). South Africans are not exempt from this phenomenon (van Schalk Wyk, 2013). At any given time, three quarters of tourists in South Africa are South African, with domestic tourists having contributed R101 billion to the economy in 2011 (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 2013).

The region of Braamfontein has also become one such "staycation" destination. A decade after the inception of the Braamfontein Improvement District (BID) the precinct has flourished, attracting the attention of locals as/and tourists. Established to address the urban decay within the precinct, the BID is the city branding efforts that have resulted in the region's trendy nature and anchoring as part of the cultural arc of Johannesburg (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 2013). However, it is not uncommon that while cities may successfully make aesthetic and infrastructural changes, the public is not effectively made aware of these developments (Walsh, 2013). The ineffective communication of the

improvements of a region may cause or allow for a continued poor perception, hindering the precinct from future prosperity (Trueman, Klemm & Giroud, 2004). The aim of this study is therefore to investigate the influence of place branding on the region's perceived image, with specific reference to Braamfontein.

1.3 Problem Definition

The practice of place branding has a long history (Kavaratzis & Ashwoth, 2006; Anholt, 2010; Kavaratzis, 2005) nonetheless it was only identified as a key field of future studies in 1976 by O'Leary and Iredal (Braun & Zenker, 2010). In addition to regional economics, the first publications with regard to the matter were in the fields of geography and other social sciences (Braun, 2008). Place branding later gained considerable traction as a focal area for marketers (Kavartis and Ashworth, 2006a); however, the majority of the literature was rooted in the fields of tourism and destination marketing (Morgan, 2003; Hankinson, 2004; Echtner & Ritchie, 2003). Moreover, many of these focused on the marketing of the promotional elements of places such as the local attractions as opposed to the region holistically (Braun & Zenker, 2010, Hankinson, 2007; Skinner, 2008).

In the early 90s, Kotler strongly asserted that in order to adequately respond to threats of globalization and urban decay, places should be viewed and run like businesses. This lay the foundation for the contemporary view of place branding (Ashwoth & Kavaratzis, 2007; Braun & Zenker, 2010). While there has been a lack of consistency in industry as well as academia as to what constitutes place branding (Blain, Levy & Ritchie, 2005; Park & Petrick, 2006, Tasci & Kozak, 2006; Skinner, 2008), the result is consistent. That is; to positively influence consumer destination choice (Pike, 2008).

Moreover, it is noted that while many sources viewed the three main target markets for place branding as companies, visitors and residents (Braun & Zenker, 2010; Ashwoth & Kavaratzis, 2007; Hankinson, 2006; Tasci & Kozak, 2006; etc.), the role of the resident was limited. While Braun, Kavaratzis and Zenker (2013) did engage with the role of the resident (viewing them as an (i) integrated part of the place, (ii) an ambassador and (iii) a citizen), the researcher contends that the role of the resident as a tourist has been overlooked. This is particularly salient given the pervasion of the "staycation" and the concurrent rise in popularity of the Braamfontein precinct. This paper will therefore investigate the influence that place branding has had on the region's perceived image.

Therefore, the research question that follows is: *What impact has the place branding of Braamfontein had on the region's perceived image?*

1.4 Primary Objective

The purpose of this study is to investigate the influence of presented city brand, city brand awareness, city brand meaning and city brand equity on city brand image in the case of Braamfontein. By extension the research aims to promote place branded communications for locals as/and tourists.

1.5 Secondary Objectives

The theoretical and empirical objectives of this study serve to expand upon the topic at hand (Gerber-Nel, Nel, Kotze, 2005). However, these secondary objectives facilitate different

aspects in the development of this paper. Where theoretical objectives expand upon the literature that provides the grounding theories of the study (Holden & Lynch, 2004); empirical objectives allow for a statistical analysis of the relationship between the the construct variables in order to support the arguments of the research (Kumar, 2005; Myers, Well & Lorch, 2010).

1.5.1. Theoretical Objectives

The following theoretical objectives were developed

- To review literature on brand image,
- To review literature on brand equity,
- To review literature on brand awareness
- To review literature on presented brand, and
- To review literature on brand meaning.

1.5.2 Empirical Objectives

The following empirical objectives were developed

- To investigate the influence of presented city brand on city brand image,
- To investigate the influence of city brand awareness on city brand image
- To investigate the influence of city brand equity on city brand image , and
- To investigate the influence of city brand meaning on city brand image

1.6 Literature Overeview

1.6.1. Theoretical Framework

a) Place Branding

Place branding is conceptualized as a manner by which a destination can communicate and differentiate itself from competitive offerings (Kavaratzis, & Ashworth, 2006a; Skinner, 2008, Place Brand Observer, 2015). By definition place branding is broad in that it encompasses region branding, town branding, urban branding and even nation branding (Hanna & Rowley, 2008). The place "product" comprises of a combination of architecture, landscape and scenery, facilities, venues and culture. The "consumers" element can be described as individuals who frequent the area for business, residential, luxury or entertainment purposes (Hankinson, 2004; Skinner, 2008).

1.6.2. Empirical Framework

a) Presented Brand

This element involves the controlled communications of a company's identity and purpose. It is the brand message conceptualized and circulated by the corporation through the logo, slogan, advertising and other tools found in an integrated marketing communication mix (O'Cass & Grace, 2004). The presented brand is the primary source of brand awareness. One must however remember that external influences such as word-of-mouth/mouse also have an influence on brand awareness (Keller, 2003).

b) Brand Awareness

Formally defined brand awareness is the strength of a brand's presence in the consumers mind (Aaker, 2006). Brand awareness consists of and can be measured through brand recognition and brand recall (Franzen and Moriarty, 2009). Brand awareness is also aligned to the strength of brand remembrance, illustrated by the consumer being able to identify a brand in different situations (Keller, 2003).

c) Brand Equity

Brand equity refers to the intangible elements of the brand that are not explained by its objective attributes. These appraisals tend to be relatively subjective and emotionally informed (Kotler & Armstrong, 2008). A thorough understanding of brand equity from the consumers' perspective equity and its constituent parts will provide a firm with a framework for an effective strategy. This framework will identify the strategic measures that will have the greatest impact on the long-term profitability of a firm's customer equity (Aaker, 2009). It is however argued that in light of the imminent threat of commoditisation, limitations are placed on value equity; this paper argues that a firms brand is its best weapon and as such brand adoption should be a central to a firms marketing strategy.

d) Brand Meaning

Keller (2008) defines brand meaning as the strength, favourability and uniqueness of perceived attributes and benefits of the brand. Brand meanings contain the associations of brands for consumers, by linking information about the product attributes and perceived benefits to the consumer's memory (O'Cass and Lim, 2002). Personal relevance and

consistency with which a brand is presented over time are factors that will ultimately strengthen the brand over time (Keller, 2008). Favourability of brand association is largely dependent on the attributes and benefits that satisfy the consumers' needs and wants (Keller, 2008). While the uniqueness of the brand association is based on the unique selling proposition that gives consumers convincing reasons to buy these products (Aaker, 2006). The advantage of a brands association over others largely depends on the associations consumers have with the brand (O'Cass and Grace, 2004).

e) Brand Image

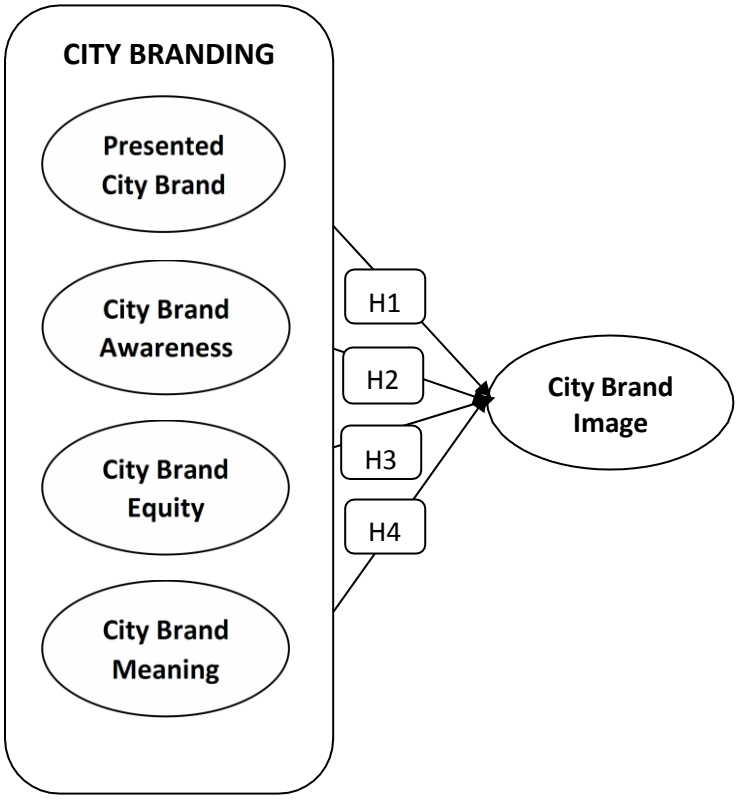
Brand image speaks to the intangible elements of the brand. As opposed to the observable reality of the brand, brand image is the associations and formed beliefs that a consumer holds with regards to the brand (Keller, 2008; Aaker, 2006, The Editorial Team, 2015a). Although the concepts of brand and brand image have been used interchangeably, this is inaccurate (Braun, Kavaratzis and Zenker, 2013). The key differential of the concepts is that a brand speaks to the domain and control of the producer whereas the brand image is within the mind and perceptions of the consumer and therefore outside of the direct control of the producer (Anholt, 2010)

1.7 Conceptual Model

Drawing from the literature review, in particular the theoretical and empirical literature mentioned below, a research model was conceptualized. Hypothesized relationships between research constructs are stated thereafter. In the conceptualized research model, presented city brand, city brand awareness, city brand equity and city brand meaning are the predictor variables, while the city brand image is the sole outcome variable. The model is sourced from

Garcia, Gomez and Molina's (2012) Destination-Branding Model. Figure 2 illustrates the proposed conceptual model.

Figure 2: Destination-Branding Model



Hypothesis statement

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

H1: Presented city brand has a positive influence on the city brand image.

H2: City brand awareness has a positive influence on the city brand image.

H3: City brand equity has a positive influence on the city brand image.

H4: City brand meaning has a positive influence on the city brand image.

1.8 Research Methodology and Design

1.8.1. Research Methodology

Research methodology may be defined as a system of explicit rules and procedures upon which research is based and against which claims for knowledge are evaluated (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1997; Gerber-Nel, Nel, Kotze, 2005). Research methodologies directly impact the validity and generalization of a study (McGrath & Brinberg, 1983; Myers, Well & Lorch, 2010), and in turn, play a vital role in knowledge development of international business (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Lowe, 2002; Gerber-Nel, Nel, Kotze, 2005).

a) Research Philosophy

The difference between the quantitative and qualitative methods is based in paradigms that make different assumptions about the social world, about how science should be conducted, and what constitutes legitimate problems, solutions, and criteria of proof (Myers, Well & Lorch, 2010). Quantitative research is based on a positivist philosophy which assumes that there are social facts with an objective reality apart from the beliefs of individuals. Qualitative research is rooted in a phenomenological paradigm which holds that reality is socially constructed through individual or collective definitions of the situation (Galpin & Krommenhoek, 2012).

This study is a quantitative study. With quantitative research, the methodology seeks to quantify data and typically applies some form of statistical analysis. Hair, Wolfinbarger, Ortinau and Bush (2008) emphasise that quantitative research methods are most often used

with descriptive and causal research designs. Quantitative research findings are usually expressed in numbers, and it is often possible (depending on the sampling method) to estimate how reliable a project's findings are (Galpin & Krommenhoek, 2012). As such, this research study will make use of a quantitative research technique that generally involves the collection of primary data from the city of Braamfontein in Johannesburg.

1.8.2 Research Design

This section on research design will focus on sampling design, questionnaire design and data collection technique.

a) Sampling Design

A sampling design should be easy to implement, efficient and have large entropy to be generally applicable (Myers, Well & Lorch, 2010). Sampling design according to Galpin & Krommenhoek (2012) is defined as the basis for selection of the survey sample that represents the population of interest. The sampling design section will consist of target population, sampling frame, sample size and sampling method.

b) Target Population

The identification of the study population is necessary for the formulation and running of any trial (Zikmund, 2010). When defining a target population, a researcher should indicate clearly the characteristics of the target population that apply directly to the study, this is importance as it ensures a level of accuracy when testing. In this study the target population comprises of individuals who fall within a cohort Richard Florida (2003) labelled the Creative Class.

"People in science and engineering, architecture and design, education, arts, music and entertainment whose function is to create new ideas, new technology and new creative content" of the Gauteng province, South Africa, will form the unit of analysis.

c) Sample Frame

A sample frame refers to the researched environment and the subjects used in a study (Zikmund, 2010). In this study the sampling frame will consist of individuals regarded as the creative class in the City of Braamfontein. Furthermore this group was further refined to individuals between the ages of eighteen and thirty-three as these individuals have a strong influence on trends as well as parental purchases.

d) Sample Size

The sample size refers to the number of elements to be included in the study. The sample size influences the accuracy of estimation but in general however a large sample size can help minimize sampling errors and improve generalizability of research findings (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002). A good sample has two properties: representativeness and adequacy (Zikmund, 2010). In this study the sample size was about 300 respondents.

e) Sample Method

The researcher employed cluster sampling. This method requires for the target under review to be segmented into groups within which straight-forward random sampling is carried out thereafter. As such each member of the target has an equal probability of being selected to

participate in the study as part of the sample frame being studied, but are limited to only participating once (Malhotra, 2006; Galpin & Krommenhoek, 2015). The segments can be identified as "Weekday Braamfontein", "Weekend Braamfontein", "West of Melle Street" and "East of Melle Street".

f) Data Collection Technique

Electronic distribution mediums and the street intercept approach which employed personal direct distribution methods were used to distribute and collect the questionnaires. The value of a questionnaire is that it tends to be more reliable because it is anonymous, it encourages greater honesty (though of course, dishonesty and falsification might not be able to be discovered in a questionnaire), it is more economical than the interview in terms of time and money and there is the possibility that it can be mailed (Cohen, Manion & Marrison 2007). The self-administered technique was chosen because it usually yields a high response rate. Thereafter, the collected data was coded in Excel spreadsheet before analysis.

1.8.3. Data Analysis Approach

To gain comprehension of the attributes of each variable and generate descriptive statistics, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences SPSS) was used. In addition, a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Path Modeling were performed for structural equation model (SEM). However, the reliability and validity of the measurement instrument is paramount in order for the results of the study to be widely accepted. As such these will be discussed first in the subsection below.

a) Reliability and Validity of Measurement Scales

Both reliability and validity relate to the logic and accuracy of a test (Hair et al., 2008). 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 (Hair et al., 2008; Myers et al., 2010). Factor Analysis was undertaken to check the reliability of the measurement items and the internal uniformity of the research constructs. In particular, the factor loadings, the Cronbach's Alpha values and composite reliability (CR) values were determined using SPSS 22.0 and AMOS 22.0 software in order to assess measurement items reliability. Convergent and discriminant validity of the research constructs was 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 was utilized as indicators.

b) Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory Factor Analysis is an analytical tool that allows the investigator to explore hypotheses about what constructs the test in question is measuring and provides an empirical basis for clinical interpretation (Burton, Ryan, Axelrod, Schellenberger & Richards, 2003). It involves the separation of a large number of variables into a smaller number of factors within which all variables are related to each other.

The purpose of Factor Analysis is to investigate the underlying variance structure of a set of correlation coefficients (Yang et al., 2006; Burton et al., 2003. 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), Augmented Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI), Normed Fit Index (NFI), Incremental Fit Index (IFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), Composite Fit Index (CFI) and RMSEA was used to assess the model fit.

c) Path Modeling

Once the model fit has been assessed using CFA, this study will proceed to perform Path Modeling using AMOS 21.0 software package. Path Modeling describes the relationships between observed or measured variables and theoretical constructs (Roche, Duffield & White, 2011) and tests the structural paths of the conceptualized research model.

SEM technique demonstrates and tests the theoretical underpinnings of a proposed study and the significance of the relationships between the model's constructs. 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 (Hair et al., 2008). It further contains two mechanisms namely the structural model, which is the path where independent, and dependent variables are being linked and the measurement model enables this study to use several indicators for a single independent variable (Yang et al., 2006). In this study several attributes are to be identified as having an effect on city brand image. The multi-item scales for each construct can be developed; thereby, assessing each relationship simultaneously rather than separately, by incorporating all the multi-item scales to account for measurement errors with each scale.

1.8.4. Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations are essential in research as there is always the potential for participants' rights to be violated, intentionally or unintentionally. As such, a strict system of moral guidelines and rules delineating an acceptable manner to conduct research was presented by the University and followed by the researcher.

1.9 Outline of Study

- **Chapter 1: Overview of the study**

  Chapter 1 will cover the overview of the entire study which includes the introduction, problem statement and purpose of the study, research objectives and research questions, justification of the study, scope of the study as well as the limitations of the study, ethical considerations and the definition of key concepts.

- **Chapter 2: Literature review**

  Chapter 2 will cover the literature review of the theory as well as that of the research constructs.

- **Chapter 3: Conceptual model and hypothesis development**

  Chapter 3 will be concerned with conceptualizing the research model as well as the hypothesis development.

- **Chapter 4: Research methodology and design**

  Chapter 4 will deal with the research methodology and design of the study.

- **Chapter 5: Data analysis and results**

  Chapter 5 will cover data analysis as well as the interpretation of the results.

- **Chapter 6: Conclusion and recommendations**

  Chapter 6 will deal with the discussion of the findings, formulating a conclusion as well as providing recommendations.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The following chapter outlines previous research, with the concept of place branding informing the theoretical framework. Thereafter the empirical framework will be reviewed. This will include a discussion of brands and branding as well as the clarification of brand awareness, brand equity, brand meaning and finally brand image in the context of place branding.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

a) Place Branding

While academic analysis of place branding is relatively novice, the practice of affirming the identity of places and promoting their image and attractions in the pursuit of various economic, socio-psycho and political interests is pervasive throughout history (Hankinson, 2004; Skinner, 2008). Governments specifically created place identities in deliberate attempts to attract settlers, traders, investors, customers, visitors and other "influencers" (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005; Anholt, 2010).

The increase in city "boosterism" in the 19th century, however, was as a response to growing competition which was prompted by globalisation and the rise of nationalism (Anholt 2010; Braunn & Zenker, 2010, Lucarelli & Berg, 2011, Gertner, 2011). Further drivers of the practice include the developments in the fields of image marketing, social marketing and non-

profit marketing (Hankinson, 2004, Gertner, 2011). However, the recently developed practice of corporate branding and the parallels drawn from herein allowed for places to maximise awareness, value and equity (The Editorial Team, 2015a). As the discipline of marketing sciences developed; haphazard city "boosterism" progressed into professional place branding (Skinner, 2008; Kavaratzis, 2005).

However, it was not until the late 1980s that governments and public sector agencies generally accepted that place branding (at the time oversimplified to advertising) was a worthy initiative (Skinner, 2008; Zenker & Beckman, 2013)). However, closer analyses highlighted that the activities were intuitively, if not randomly undertaken (Hankinson, 2004; Kavaratzis, 2005). Of late, the systematic application of marketing with a more strategic, integrated and focused outlook has been applied to places (Hankinson, 2004; Skinner, 2008).

Nevertheless, even with this outlook practitioners still face difficulties as unlike products, places do not "begin from a zero base" (Hankinson, 2004, The Editorial Team, 2015a). The built environment, local communities, the heritage as well as the infrastructure all form integral components of the place identity (Trueman, Cornelius & Killingbeck-Widdup, 2007, Place Brand Observer, 2015). As a result of these complex relationships and the various stakeholders involved, places bare a range of meanings and have diverse attractions to the varying target markets' and stakeholders' knowledge levels, demands, perspectives and interests (Kavaratzis, 2012). And given that the existing positive images of a place inform brand communication, it is vital that the existing brand associations of the different target groups are assessed (Skinner, 2008; Cakmak & Isaac, 2012, The Editorial Team, 2015b). Furthermore, the regions' distinct advantages must be highlighted in order to increase market

share, change minds, to win new customers and/or to affect the prospects of a country in a significant manner (Anholt, 2007, The Editorial Team, 2015c).

Place branding is "a network of associations in the consumers' mind based on visual, verbal and behavioural expression of a place, which is embodied through the aims, communications, values and general culture of the place's stakeholders and the overall place design" (Kavaratzis, & Ashworth, 2006a). In essence, place branding is not merely the process of creating a professional feel through the use of a logo, slogans, well designed promotional materials and place physics (Zenker & Beckman, 2013, The Editorial Team, 2015c, Kavaratzis, & Ashworth, 2006a). Although the aforementioned are integral parts of the process it is the perceptions of these elements in the minds of the consumers which are crucial (Kavaratzis, & Ashworth, 2006a; Zenker, Knubben & Beckmann, 2010; Zenker & Beckman, 2013).

b) A Public-Orientated Approach to Place Branding.

Modern society has an increasing influence on public affairs, resulting in public opinion being an essential component to achieving economic, psycho-social and political ideals. This has created environments that necessitate a more public-orientated approach to the branding of places (Braun & Zenker, 2010). Simon Anholt (2005) expands on this situation in his paper entitled “Some Important Distinctions in Place Branding”. Elements of this context include, but are not limited to:

Table 1: Current Context That Necessitates Practicing Public-Orientated Place Branding *(Anholt, 2005).*

Concept	Extension of concept
The Spread Of Democracy	(i) increase in egalitarian and democratic-type governments (ii) corresponding tendency towards transparency (iii) a growing awareness of international affairs amongst the public.
The Growing Power Of The Media	(i) driven by a more news-hungry and consequently more informed public (ii) a rise in the influence non-governmental organisations
The Decrease In International Travel Costs	(i) a decline in the cost of international travel (ii) growth in spending power of an increasing international middle class (iii) a desire for novel experience in a market saturated with similar products
The Closely Linked Global System And Scarcity Of International Investors	(i) Growing number of locations for industrial activities and services (ii) Offering parity
The Broader Pool Of Countries To Source Consumer Goods	(i) ecological and ethical considerations (ii) increased need to build trust in country of origin
The Intense Competition Amongst Developing Nations	(i) includes but is not limited to skills transfer, international funds, export markets and trade as well as technology transfer
The Intense And Wider Completion For Talented Immigrants	(i) foreign nationals may be seeking to return to the diaspora in efforts to reinvest in their country of origin (ii) foreign nations may alternatively be in pursuit of the ideal fiscal, social and cultural living conditions
The Growing Demand For Diverse Cultural Environment	(i) a richer, wider and ultimately more diverse cultural palette (ii) exposure to global market place such as never before enhanced by exponential growth of affordable communication and digital media. (iii) traditionally distinct locations now able to effectively communicate the richness of the society
The Depressed Popularity Of American Culture	(i) vacuum in global market places arising from disheartenment with popular American products, services, culture and even politics.

It is evident from the above that countries need to focus on the national parallels of product development and market those effectively. As such a long term approach to place branding should be taken where a clearly positioned, believable and economically sustainable brand strategy is essential.

c) *The Role of the resident in Place Branding*

While there is an abundance of literature on place branding, it is interesting to note that the concept is often viewed in terms of forging the global perceptions of a country's business climate, people, policies, culture, products and tourist attracts. Rarely, such as in the cases of Kavaratzis (2005), Freire (2009), Zenker et al. (2010) and Iversen and Hem (2008) is the role of existing place users cited as being of importance. Furthermore, Merrilees, Miller and Herington (2013) highlight how there is also a paucity of literature on residents' city brand attitudes. This is disconcerting as taking the assistance, agreement or support of the local people for granted can result in counter-branding movements; where residents rebel against official place branding campaigns. An example of this can be seen with the "I Amsterdam" campaign being flippantly termed "I Amsterdamned" (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2007b).

Although residents are acknowledged as target markets for place branding, their role is limited to that of passive place customers as opposed to active partners in the place branding process. Iversen and Hem (2008) however propose key roles of residents, namely:

i) Residents as an Integrated Part of the Place Brand.

This is the first and often inadvertent role of the resident, where one's experience of the locale is informed by the social fabric weaved by the residents, their interactions, their interactions with outsiders and the physical setting which in which this all takes place. Freier (2009) adds that residents may even be used to make evaluations of destination, be viewed as a justifiable reason for the consumption of a place brand and may be seen as a key distinguishing proponent between place brands.

ii) Residents As Ambassadors For Their Place Brand

The perceived credibility and authenticity of word-of-mouth by consumers - place or otherwise - emphasises the importance of the role of residents in the communication of the place brand (Braun, 2011). Where marketing communications are considered to be skewed to represent a particular version of events, external target markets consider the views of residents as authentic and trustworthy – giving insights on the destination. As such, involving residents in the place branding process may result in brand ambassadors a, where these strongly involved citizens would go above and beyond their socially normalised duties.

iii) Residents as Citizens

Place branding does not lend itself to the top down approach of branding commonly presented in corporations. In order for place branding to be effectively implemented, a balance need to be attained between the distinctive positioning strategy of the brand that differentiates the offering from that of competitors and the support of the greater place community.

It is the contention of the researcher that another key element of the resident has been overlooked; this being "Residents as Tourists". This is particularly salient when one considers that after the Global Financial Crisis 2007-2008 many found themselves overextended and thus making overseas holidays significantly more expensive (Wixon, 2009). This inability to frequent tourist destinations gave rise to the practice of making a vacation of staying at home and travelling to destinations within a delineated radius from the

home or briefly; the staycation (Kay & Wang, 2010; Sharma, 2009). This study was limited to the precinct of Braamfontein, which has recently gained popularity as such a destination.

d) Braamfontein

Anholt (2006) conceptualises cities as the economic and cultural powerhouses of nations; Richard Florida (2002) argues that "…volume breeds mediocrity and the sheer scale of today's cities prevents them from excellence in all but pockets, quarters and precincts". After the merger of five municipal areas in 2002 Johannesburg now spans over 1 644^2 with population of 3.2 million; having an average density of 1 962 persons per km^2. The continued growth of the city's populace can also be attributed to the migrations of individuals from other parts of the country (City of Johannesburg, 2014). Not only does this put pressure on the City's economic and social infrastructure (COJ, 2014) but it also breeds competition amongst the regions such as Braamfontein to attract funds, talent and fame (CEOs for Cities, 2006).

i) Neo-Apartheid Braamfontein

Neo- Apartheid Johannesburg is often described by the deterioration in quality of life. The Central Business District (CBD) and its surrounds (including Braamfontein) were characterised by dereliction, moreover petty crime, assault and muggings were rife (Beaven, 1998).. This resulted in occupants leaving prestigious buildings for the (northern) suburbs. By 1998 the 5-star Johannesburg Sun and the Carlton Hotel were closed down and the Carlton Office Tower, IBM Building and Diamond Building were mostly vacant (Beaven, 1998). Moreover, the University of the Witwatersrand created boarders between itself and the

Braamfontein Precinct and created retail and service retail on campus. In response, the Mayivuke: Johannesburg Awake initiative was launched by the deputy president at the time Mr Thabo Mbeki as an attempt to regenerate the city. Although progress was made in the form of the renovation of the railway station and the construction of taxi ranks as well as a promise of close circuit cameras to curb crime, the exodus of big business and the closure of prominent buildings persisted (Beaven, 1998).

ii) The Regeneration of Braamfontein

The Urban Futures Conference that was held in 2000 became the site of the concept for a Braamfontein Regeneration Initiative (Frasher, 2015). Here, the University, the private sector and the council concluded to join efforts in an initiative to "re-establish Braamfontein as an area that is well-managed, vibrant, physically attractive and well-lit with a growing evening economy offering an excellent public environment to the number of corporate head offices clustered in the area as well as to the commercial, residential, hotel and restaurant sectors" (Braamfontein.org, 2015). The total cost of the project is estimated to have cost in excess of R200 million (Frasher, 2015).

While the unveiling of the Nelson Mandela Bridge in 2003 and the opening of the Constitutional Court in 2004 are often cited as the regeneration catalysts, credence must also be given to the upgrading of the urban environment (Levy, 2015). This includes but is not limited to the closing of the alleyways to limit crime, the installation of street lights and planting of trees, well-known public artwork "The Eland" by Clive van den Berg, the bus rapid transport system, commercial spaces for franchises and businesses to occupy, the

investment of business in the area on their own buildings and the creation of parks (Frasher, 2015).

iii) Current Day Braamfontein

According to a recent MasterCard Global Destination Index (2014), Johannesburg is the continent's most-visited city averaging 4.3 million international overnight visitors while Cape Town, the second most frequented, had 1.6 million. Furthermore, Johannesburg is listed second to Hong Kong as the second most inspiring city in the world (Good City Index, 2014) and ranked first in the Rough Guide's Top Cities for 2015 (Wood, 2015).

Although Johannesburg is Africa's second largest city and can be typified as the economic hub of Southern Africa, it is in part due to the inner-city regeneration initiatives that the city has regained its prominence and drawn local as well as international admiration (Wood, 2015). The interesting, original and unique design allows for hubs of artisanal goods, design and creativity where "the city both explores and reinvents itself" (Wood, 2015). Wood (2015) further views the artistic and creative communities as the drivers of these urban renewals; with art and design pioneering the change and commerce following thereafter. Merrilees, Miller and Herington (2013) refer to this culmination of efforts from the public and private sectors as well as the arts and culture sectors as a synergic relationship between multiple stakeholders. In Johannesburg, this has resulted in instances of regeneration that can be found in Braamfontein, Milpark, Maboneng Precinct and most recently the inner city.

The study explored the district of Braamfontein and established the influence of city branding on perceived image of this region. This is salient as current day Braamfontein boasts an attractive precinct of mixed used where residential, lifestyle and office spaces are integrated (Levy, 2015). This includes (Braamfontein.org, 2015):

1. Offices of local creative hubs as well as those of multinational corporations.
2. The University of the Witwatersrand, one of Africa's premiere education institutions, an array of colleges and the National School of Arts.
3. The home to the Constitutional Court, not only the highest court in the land but a site of rich history and heritage
4. An array of avenues of entertainment, including: the Johannesburg Theatre, The Alex Theatre, Kitcheners Bar (the oldest bar in Johannesburg), Great Dane, the Beach and the Anti Establishment as well as the various art galleries.
5. The award-winning Neighbourgoods market, which is renowned for its assortment of merchandise, food, goods and the occasional live acts.
6. The wide range of eateries such as Vélo and Post and stores like Supremebeing and Dr and Mrs.

Although the history of Braamfontein is that of a region characterised by dereliction and danger on the periphery of the central business district (Wood, 2015); a decade after the inception of the Braamfontein Improvement District (BID) the precinct has flourished, attracting the attention of locals as/and tourists. Established to address the urban decay within the precinct, the BID is the foundation of the regions trendy nature and anchoring as part of the cultural arc of Johannesburg, garnering international and local interest, praise and admiration.

2.3 Empirical Framework

a) Brand and Branding

The earliest example of branding literature can be traced back the 1940s, however there is still dispute as to the delineation of a brand and branding as well as associated concepts such as brand image which are often used interchangeably. There is however a consensus that branding offers a means for differentiation in an environment characterised by an abundance of similar offerings (Gardner & Levy, 1955; Aaker, 2009; Keller 2003; Kotler, Brown, Adam, Burton & Armstrong, 2007). This is particularly pertinent in the context of place branding as where many places that present similar features and offerings are becoming substitutionable (Pike, 2005).

Braun, Kavaratzis and Zenker (2013) describe the terms brand and branding as specialist sector jargon that has been appropriated and incorrectly used thereafter. Attempts to define the term have been found to be variations of Aaker's (2009), which assert that "a brand is a distinguishing name and/or symbol (such as a logo, trademark or package design) intended to identify the goods and services of either one seller or group of sellers, and to identify those goods from those of competitors". The researcher would further add to this definition Anholt's (2006) view that a brand provides a context within which consumer beliefs and associations are forged.

Braun, Kavaratzis and Zenker (2013) further explain the three popular ways in which the words "brand" or "branding" has been used:

(i) The first being the popular view. This is the least precise yet most common outside of the field. Here, different marketing sub-disciplines such as public relations, advertising and sales promotions are used interchangeably as descriptors. Moreover, this views carries the aggressive and malicious connotation associated to the origin of the term; the use of a hot iron to identify livestock

(ii) The second is the simplistic view. This refers to the creation of a visual identity. This visual distinctiveness denotes the personality and nature of the item at hand, subsequently making it desirable for the consumer.

(iii) The advanced view embodies tangible and psycho-social elements while encompassing the broader areas of internal and external communications, corporate strategy, ethics and purpose as well as stakeholder motivation and behaviour.

Blain et al, (2005) follow the parameters of Braun et al, (2013) advanced definition of branding when defining place branding as "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."

b) *The Presented Brand*

This element involves the controlled communications of a company's identity and purpose. It is the brand message conceptualized and circulated by the corporation through the logo, slogan, advertising and other tools found in an integrated marketing communication mix (O'Cass & Grace, 2004; Lamb, Hair, McDaniel, Boshoff, & Terblanche, 2008).

The presented brand is the primary source of brand awareness. One must however remember that external influences such as word-of-mouth/mouse also have an influence on brand awareness (Keller, 2003; Lamb et al, 2008).

c) *Brand Awareness*

Brand awareness is aligned to the strength of brand remembrance, illustrated by the consumer being able to identity a brand in different situations (Keller, 2003). Formally defined brand awareness is the strength of a brand's presence in the consumers mind (Aaker, 2006). Brand awareness consists of and can be measured through Brand Recognition and Brand Recall (Franzen and Moriarty, 2009).

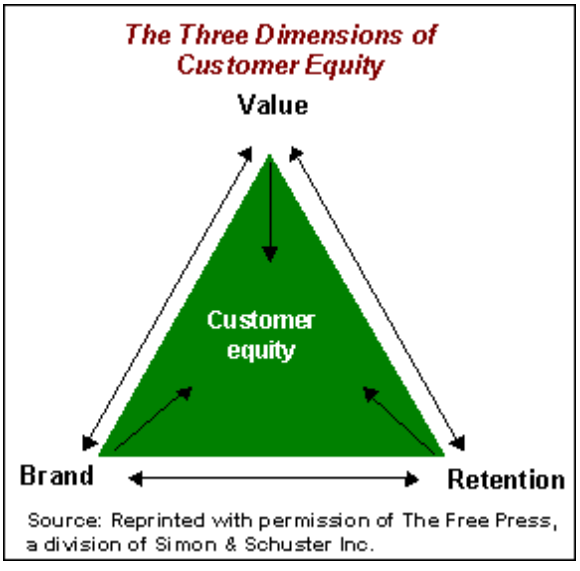
Brand recognition refers to the consumer's ability to confirm prior exposure to the brand when given the brand as a cue (Keller, 2008) and brand recall is understood as a consumers' ability to retrieve the brand when given a product category or any other cue on would relate with the brand (Franzen and Moriarty, 2009). Brand awareness affects consumer decision by influencing the formation and strength of brand associations in brand image, the brands included in ones' consideration set and the knowledge of a brand with regards to various product categories (Keller, 2008; Franzen and Moriarty, 2009).

d) Brand Equity

Rust and associates (2000) operationalise customer equity as the total of the discounted lifetime values of a firm's consumers. Essentially, the consumer is viewed in terms of both their current value in addition to the discounted value that the firm will realise over a protracted period. Rust et al (2000) propose three key drivers of customer equity, namely; value equity, brand equity and retention equity. Value equity refers to the perceptions of the utility of the brand. These assessments are primarily informed by factors such as price, convenience and quality and tend to be relatively objective, rational and cognitive.

Brand equity refers to the intangible elements of the brand that are not explained by its objective attributes. These appraisals tend to be relatively subjective and emotionally informed (Lamb et al., 2008). Finally retention equity is attained from the consumer's choice to continually do business with the brand. This also refers to the attraction of customers who did not previously engage with the brand as well as those that are new to the market.

Figure 3: The Three Dimensions of Customer Equity



A thorough understanding of customer equity and its constituent parts will provide a firm with a framework for an effective strategy. This framework will identify the strategic measures that will have the greatest impact on the long-term profitability of a firm's customer equity. It is however argued that in light of the imminent threat of commoditisation, limitations are placed on value equity. This paper argues that a firms brand is its best weapon and as such brand adoption should be a central to a firms marketing strategy.

Academics have found that only a minimal number of consumers display inelastic levels of brand adoption, asserting that the majority of consumers are in fact brand shifters (Arnould et al, 2004). Therefore communication strategies implemented should cause awareness and interest, resulting in the brand being favourably evaluated in comparison to competitors so as to move consumers towards one's brand. Marketing communications that effectively use sale promotions alongside advertising that symbolically draws associations with certain values or lifestyles enhance the likelihood of long term brand adoption (Lovelock and Wirtz, 2011).

e) Brand Meaning

Keller (2008) defines brand meaning as the strength, favourability and uniqueness of perceived attributes and benefits of the brand. Brand meanings contain the associations of brands for consumers, by linking information about the product attributes and perceived benefits to the consumer's memory (O'Cass and Lim, 2002). The impact of a consumer's brand associations on their evaluations of brands is determined by the favourability, strength, and uniqueness of the brand associations (Keller, 2003).

Personal relevance and consistency with which a brand is presented over time are factors that will ultimately strengthen the brand over time (Keller, 2008). Favourability of brand association is largely dependent on the attributes and benefits that satisfy the consumers' needs and wants (Keller, 2008). While the uniqueness of the brand association is based on the unique selling proposition that gives consumers convincing reasons to buy these products (Aaker, 2006). The advantage of a brands association over others largely depends on the associations consumers have with the brand (O'Cass and Lim, 2002).

Associations consumers have with a brand are classified into three major categories: Attributes, benefits and attitudes. The brands attributes are descriptive features which include what a consumer thinks a product or service is, and the perceived involvement with its purchase and consumption (Keller, 2003). These attributes can be categorised as product-related attributes and non-product related attributes (Keller, 2003). Product-related attributes refers to the core physical composition or a service's requirement of the product while non-product related attributes, refers to non-core, external aspects that relate to its purchase or consumption (Keller, 2003; O'Cass and Lim, 2002). Keller (2003) identifies the four main types of non-product related associations as:

- Price information according to Keller (2003) is important, because price doesn't reflect a product's performance or service's function, the price range describes the perceived value and quality.
- Packaging or product appearance information,
- User imagery which is a reflection of the type of person who uses the product or service.

- Usage imagery which considers the types of situations and where a product or service would be used.

f) Brand Image

Brand image speaks to the intangible elements of the brand. As opposed to the observable reality of the brand, brand image is the associations and formed beliefs that a consumer holds with regards to the brand. Although the concepts of brand and brand image have been interchangeable, this is inaccurate. The key differential of the concepts is that a brand speaks to the domain and control of the producer whereas the brand image is within the mind and perceptions of the consumer and therefore outside of the direct control of the producer (Anholt, 2010)

g) Brand Image and Self-congruence

The hypothesis of self-congruence was derived from literature in interpersonal attraction in social psychology (Hosany & Martin, 2011). de Chernatony, McDonald and Wallace (2010) expand upon this assertion with the premise that the personality of consumers can be inferred from their attitudes towards certain brands, the use thereof and the meanings inferred from them (Hasany & Martin, 2011; Patton, 2006).

The theory of self-congruence is comprised of two concepts, namely product/brand image and self –concept. Brand image is essentially the symbolic connotations (or personality) of the brand (Quester, Karunaratna & Goh, 2000; Sirgy, Lee & Tidwell, 2008). Self-concept is a multi-dimensional theory that comprises of the actual, ideal, social, ideal social, familial,

sexual and psychological self (Parker, 2009). The real and the ideal self (one's perception of self and one's aspirational self) was the focus of this research paper.

These concepts of self and product image are related to the idea of the perception of social meaning in various products by different people (Patterson, 2007). In essence, consumers symbolically attempt to convey an image or message based on traits perceived inherent in both the brand and themselves (Hasany & Martin, 2011; Quester, Karunaratna & Goh, 2000; Patton, 2006). Consequently, an individual's behaviour will be directed at furthering their concepts of self through the consumption of goods as symbols.

In summary the following propositions can be drawn in accordance with the self-congruence hypothesis:

h) Certain aspects are primarily expressive in nature, as consumers seek to convey and enhance their self-image

i) Brands convey a variety of messages to consumers. These messages are assumed to be in a similar cognitive context that encompasses a consumers' self-image

j) Thereafter, consumers select brands that are congruent with their self-image.

2.4 Chapter Summary

Even though the concept of place branding has a significant history, the practice thereof has been fraught with difficulty; primarily that of moving past mere advertising and public relations exercises, to creating a truly engaging environscape that appeals to the multiple stakeholders. Additionally, investment in place products such as infrastructure, service

delivery, public transport and safety is a key component of place branding, especially for residents and tourists alike. It is again noted that although mention has been given to the role of residents in place branding, the value of this research arises from the rise in prominence of the practice of the staycation, resulting in residents becoming tourists and thus understanding the consequent perceptions of the place branding of Braamfontein by those with in the specified region.

Chapter Three:

Conceptual Model and Hypothesis Development

3.1 Introduction

Where the previous chapter serves to outline the theoretical and empirical literature that was reviewed in this study, the following chapter will expand upon the conceptual model used. Thereafter the respective hypothesized relationships between research constructs are developed.

3.2 Conceptual Model

A conceptual or analytical model portrays the processes and relationships between the variables of the study, which can be displayed verbally, mathematically or graphically (Zikmund, 2003; Malhotra, 2006). Drawing from the literature review, in particular the theoretical and empirical literature expanded upon in the previous chapter, a research model has been conceptualized. The conceptual model for this study illustrates how presented city brand, city brand awareness, city brand equity and city brand meaning are the predictor variables, while the city brand image is the sole outcome variable.

The strength of this study lies in its use of an established model in a unique context, namely that of a region that experienced of urban renewal and place branding initiatives. The model is sourced from Garcia, Gomez and Molina's (2012) Destination-Branding Model and the use thereof carried out in the Braamfontein Precinct under different economic conditions.

Moreover, the research constructs were operationalized in accordance with previous works, where modifications were made in order to fit the current research context and purpose.

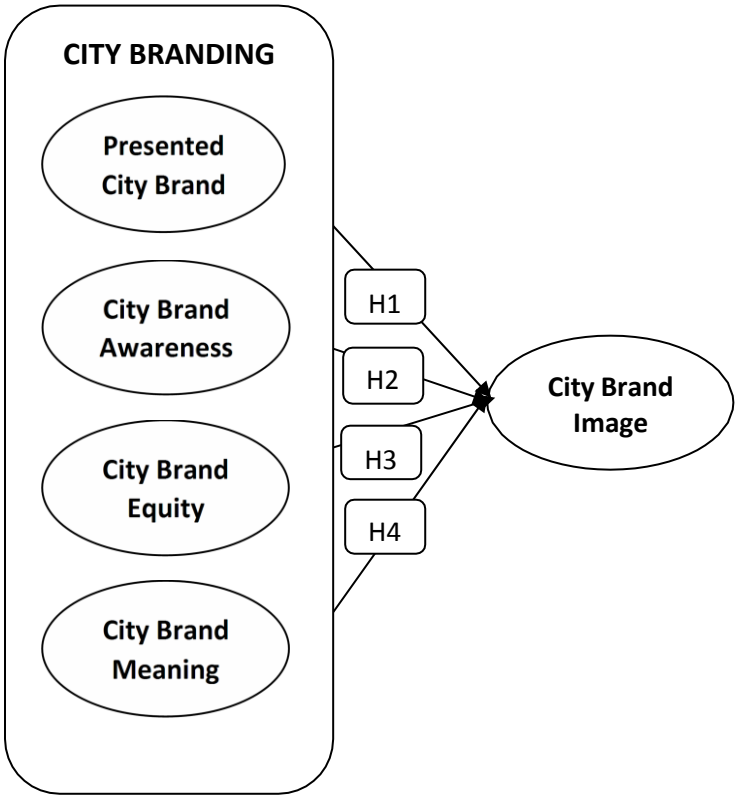


Figure 2: Destination-Branding Model

3.3 Overview of Variables

This subsection will expand upon the various variables evaluated in the study.

a) Independent Variables

Variables that affect other measurement constructs are independent variables. In this study the independent variables are presented city brand, city brand awareness, city brand equity and city brand meaning

b) Dependant Variable

Conversely, a dependant variable is a construct that measures the influence of a set of variables on a sample unit (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). The dependant variable in this research paper is city brand image.

3.4 Hypotheses

Based on the above conceptual model, and the various constructs highlighted, the following hypotheses are presented.

a) The Presented City Brand and the City Brand Image

The presented brand is the primary source of brand awareness. (Keller, 2003; Lamb et al, 2008). This element involves the controlled communications of identity and purpose. However, 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 (O'Cass & Grace, 2004, Pike, 2005). Braun et al. (2013) echo these sentiments, insisting that investment in the presented 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 presented city brand has a positive influence on the city brand image of Braamfontein.

H1: Presented city brand has a positive influence on the city brand image.

b) City Brand Awareness and the City Brand Image

Brand awareness is aligned to the strength of brand remembrance, illustrated by the consumer being able to identity a brand in different situations (Keller, 2003). Formally defined brand awareness is the strength of a brand's presence in the consumers mind (Aaker, 2006). In order for a brand to be considered in a set of competing brands, its salience in the product category is vital. This distinction of the (city) brand is the first step to encouraging customer involvement with it (Lamb et al (2008). Drawing from the above discussion and past empirical evidence, it is posited that:

H2: City brand awareness has a positive influence on the city brand image.

c) City Brand Equity and the City Brand Image

Brand equity refers to the intangible elements of the brand that are not explained by its objective attributes (Keller, 2008). The currency of this value comprises of both tangible and intangible elements of the region, however, these appraisals tend to be relatively subjective and emotionally informed (Lamb et al., 2008). It is therefore important that managers remaining cognisant of the elements when attempting to add value to those within the region (Keller, 2008). Drawing from the current brand equity literature, as well as from the above discussion, the current study hypothesised that:

H3: City brand equity has a positive influence on the city brand image.

d) The City Brand Meaning and the City Brand Image

Brand meanings contain the associations of brands for consumers, by linking information about the product attributes and perceived benefits to the consumer's memory (O'Cass and Lim, 2002). Personal relevance and consistency with which a brand is presented over time are factors that will ultimately strengthen the brand meaning over time (Keller, 2008), however, uniqueness of the brand association is based on the unique selling proposition that gives consumers convincing reasons to engage with products (Aaker, 2006). It is noted that unlike a product or company where that meaning can be created, a region already has a history and a heritage. As such, the difficulty for managers lies in discerning the different meanings from the various stakeholders who include tourists, residents, student, big and small business. For this reason it can be hypothesised that:

H4: City brand meaning has a positive influence on the city brand image.

3.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed the conceptual model used in this study. It highlighted presented city brand, city brand awareness, city brand equity and city brand meaning as the predictor variables and the city brand image as the sole outcome variable. It also provided a development of the hypotheses used in the study.

Chapter Four: Research Methodology

4.1 Introduction

The following chapter will outline the research philosophy, expand upon the research and sampling design and speak to the research instrument. Moreover, further details will be given as to the data collection and analysis techniques.

4.2 Research Methodology

Research methodology may be defined as a system of explicit rules and procedures upon which research is based and against which claims for knowledge are evaluated (Holden & Lynch, 2004). Research methodologies directly impact the validity and generalization of a study, and in turn, play a vital role in knowledge development of international business (Lamb et al., 2008).

In order to draw relevant conclusions, a suitable methodology was necessary in order to identify the proper unit of analysis and employ compatible methods that will provide the intended results (Krommenhoek & Galpin, 2013). A research design will typically include:

- How data is to be acquired (sampling design)
- What instruments will be employed (measurement items, source and measurement scale)
- How the instruments will utilized (data collection method) and
- The intended means for analysing data collected (data analysis procedure and statistical approach).

a) Research Philosophy

The research philosophy guides the research methodology, by dictating the procedures that will be used throughout the process of acquiring through to the analysis and application of the data (Kumar, 2005). The positivist paradigm, and the philosophy guiding this study, asserts that an objective, external reality exists which can be studied. This lies in contrast with an interpretivist point of view that holds that a subjective reality exists which is inferred from the various perspectives (Myers et al., 2010).

b) Research Approach

The difference between the quantitative and qualitative methods is based in paradigms that make different assumptions about the social world, about how science should be conducted, and what constitutes legitimate problems, solutions, and criteria of proof (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). Quantitative research is based on a positivist philosophy which assumes that there are social facts with an objective reality apart from the beliefs of individuals. Qualitative research is rooted in a phenomenological paradigm which holds that reality is socially constructed through individual or collective definitions of the situation (Malhotra & Birks, 2007; Kumar, 2005).

This study is a quantitative study. With quantitative research, the methodology seeks to quantify data and typically applies some form of statistical analysis (Kumar, 2005). Hair et al., (2008) emphasise that quantitative research methods are most often used with descriptive and causal research designs. Quantitative research findings are usually expressed in numbers, and it is often possible (depending on the sampling method) to estimate how reliable a

project's findings are (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). As such, this research study will make use of a quantitative research technique that generally involves the collection of primary data from the city of Braamfontein in Johannesburg.

4.3 Research Design

This section on research design will focus on sampling design, questionnaire design and data collection technique.

a) Sampling Design

A sampling design should be easy to implement, efficient and have large entropy to be generally applicable (Myers et al., 2010). Sampling design according to Galpin & Krommenhoek (2012) is defined as the basis for selection of the survey sample that represents the population of interest. The sampling design section will consist of target population, sampling frame, sample size and sampling method.

b) Target Population

The identification of the study population is necessary for the formulation and running of any trial (Zikmund, 2010). When defining a target population, a researcher should indicate clearly the characteristics of the target population that apply directly to the study. In this study the target population comprised of individuals who fall within a cohort Richard Florida (2003) labelled the Creative Class. "People in science and engineering, architecture and design, education, arts, music and entertainment whose function is to create new ideas, new technology and new creative content" of the Gauteng province, South Africa, will form the

unit of analysis. The Gauteng province is one of the few prominent provinces in South Africa and so it can be assumed that the findings obtained while studying this area may to some degree be representative of the entire country.

c) Sample Frame

A sample frame refers to the researched environment (Zikmund, 2010) and the subjects used in a study (Yang et al., 2006). In this study the sampling frame consisted of individuals regarded as the creative class in the City of Braamfontein. This group was further refined to individuals between the ages of eighteen and thirty-five as these individuals have a strong influence on trends as well as parental purchases (Creswell, 2013).

d) Sample Size

After selecting the target population, the sampling frame was a representative subset of this population (Creswell, 2013). The sample size influenced the accuracy of estimation but in general however a large sample size can help minimize sampling errors and improve generalizability of research findings (Yang et al., 2006). A good sample has two properties: representativeness and adequacy (Creswell, 2013). The sample size refers to the number of elements to be included in the study. In this study the sample size was roughly 300 respondents.

e) Sample Method

The researcher employed cluster sampling. This method requires for the target under review to be segmented into groups within which straight-forward random sampling is carried out thereafter. As such each member of the target has an equal probability of being selected to participate in the study as part of the sample frame being studied, but are limited to only participating once (Malhotra, 2006; Galpin & Krommenhoek, 2015). The segments can be identified as "Weekday Braamfontein", "Weekend Braamfontein", "West of Melle Street" and "East of Melle Street".

4.4 Procedure for Data Collection

a) Measurement Instrument

In any research study the theoretical constructs that are measured are the determining factors for the choice of measurement methodology (Galpin & Krommenhoek, 2012; Myers et al., 2010). In this study the measurement instrument consisted of 6 sections. Section A required that respondents fill in their background information. Section B, C, D, and E comprised of presented city branding, city brand awareness, city brand meaning and city brand equity respectively. Section F will measure City brand image. The research constructs were operationalized in accordance with previous works, where modifications were made in order to fit the current research context and purpose.

All the measurement instruments were adopted from Garcia, Gomez and Molina (2012). Presented city brand was measured using four item scale while city brand awareness was

measured with a six item scale. City brand equity and city brand meaning were measured using four and five measurement instrument respectively. Finally, a four item scale was used to measure city brand image. All scale items were measured on a 5 point Likert Scale which were anchored by 1=strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree to express the degree of agreement.

i) Section A: Respondent Profile

Section A requires that respondents fill in general and biographic questions. This allowed for the researcher to be able to draw a profile of the respondents, furthermore it allows for the option of further stratifying the targeted populace.

ii) Section B: Presented City Branding (PCB)

Section B measured the participants' perception of the branding efforts in/of the region of Braamfontein. Examples of the questions include:

PCB 1	I feel that the brand of Braamfontein is appealing	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
PCB 2	I feel that the brand of Braamfontein is attractive	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
PCB 3	I feel that the brand of Braamfontein is interesting	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

iii) Section c: City Brand Awareness (CTA)

Section C measured the participants' brand awareness of the region of Braamfontein.

Examples of the questions include:

CBA 1	The brand Braamfontein is the only city that comes to my mind when I think of a day-trip destination	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBA 2	The brand Braamfontein is the first that comes to my mind when I think of a day-trip destination	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBA 3	The brand Braamfontein City is the easy to recognize amongst the other cities.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

iv) Section D: City Brand Meaning (CBM)

Section D measured the participants' brand meaning of the region of Braamfontein.

Examples of the questions include:

CBM1	The brand Braamfontein is credible	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBM2	The brand Braamfontein evokes pleasant sensations of the destination	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBM3	The brand Braamfontein has a strong personality.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

Section E: City Brand Equity (CBE)

Section E measured the participants' brand equity regarding the region of Braamfontein.

Examples of the questions include:

CBE1	The brand Braamfontein encourages visiting the destination	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBE2	The brand Braamfontein identifies a better-quality destination than other similar ones.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBE3	I will tell other people the positive aspects of the brand Braamfontein.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

v) Section F: City Brand Image (CBI)

Section F measured the participants' brand image of the region of Braamfontein. Examples of the questions include:

CBI1	Braamfontein has good opportunities for recreation activities	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBI2	Braamfontein has good shopping facilities	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBI3	Braamfontein has high quality of accommodation	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

All the measurement instruments were be adopted from Garcia, Gomez and Molina (2012). Presented city brand was measured using four item scale while city brand awareness was measured with a six item scale. City brand equity and city brand meaning were measured using four and five measurement instrument respectively. Finally, a four item scale was used to measure city brand image. All scale items were measured on a 5 point Likert scale which were anchored by 1=strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree to express the degree of

agreement. Seeing as the instruments had already been tested and found to be statistically significant and valid, it was not necessary to run a pilot study.

b) Data Collection Technique

The scope of the respondents was limited to those within the Braamfontein region and those who frequented it. In total 280 questionnaires were left after the initial screening process. Electronic distribution mediums and the street intercept approach which employed personal direct distribution methods were used to distribute and collect the questionnaires. The value of a questionnaire was that it tends to be more reliable because it is anonymous, it encourages greater honesty (though of course, dishonesty and falsification might not be able to be discovered in a questionnaire), it is more economical than the interview in terms of time and money and there is the possibility that it can be mailed (Cohen, Manion & Marrison 2007). The self-administered technique was chosen because it usually yields a high response rate.

4.5 Data Analysis

Data analysis is a statistical process in which raw data is prepared and structured so that valuable information can be extracted from it (Ullah, 2010). Trochim (2000) states that the analysis process can be divided into three phases namely, (1) Data Preparation (2) Descriptive Statistics and (3) Inferential Statistics. To gain comprehension of the attributes of each variable, descriptive statistics analyses were utilized which were shown by the mean and standard deviation of each factor. The researcher was responsible for analysing the data. Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) were used 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.

a) Data Processing and Analysis

Trochim (2000) pointed out that most social research involves the data analysis that occurs in 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 Modeling
    - 4.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)
    - 4.2 Path Modeling (PM)

b) Data Coding and Cleaning

The cleaning and coding of data allowed for checks for legitimacy, screening for accuracy and the highlighting of possible errors. This phase allows the researcher to ask and answer the following questions (Trochim, 2000):

- Did the respondent complete the questionnaire?
- Are the responses written clearly?
- Is all the relevant contextual information, such as data, time, place and the researcher's details, contained in the questionnaire?

c) Descriptive Statistics

The second phase of social research involves describing the basic characteristics of the information drawn from the study (Trochim, 2000). The purpose of descriptive statistics is to search for a pattern that allows for observable comparisons. These simple summaries provide behavioural overviews of the participants (Myers, Well & Lorch, 2010). 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, distribution of gender, age as well as the educational level of the respondents.

d) Reliability and validity of measurement scales

Reliability and validity both relate to the logic and accuracy of a test (Creswell, 2013). The reliability and validity scores of this research is important as this study aims to supply both marketers and academics with a better understanding of the influence of place branding on the image thereof, with specific reference to Braamfontein.

i) Reliability

Reliability measures whether the questions used and the results obtained are consistent and can be used repeatedly in an array of situations, especially with regard to questions assessed on a rating scale such as a Likert or Semantic Differential Scale. This is done numerically with a coefficient greater than 0.6 Cronbach's Alpha suggesting that the reliability of the research instrument is best (Galpin & Krommenhoek, 2012).

Galpin & Krommenhoek (2012) determine that reliability estimates are used to calculate following:

1. Test – retest Reliability: The administering of a test at two different points in time to the same individual or using the same standard.
2. Internal Consistency: An equivalence of a set of items for the same test is obtained. The coefficient provides an estimate of the reliability of measurement and is based on the assumption that items measuring the same construct should correlate.
3. Interrater Reliability: Establishes the equivalence of rating obtained with an instrument when used by different observers. If a measurement process involves judgement or ratings by observers, a reliable measurement will require consistency between different observers. Interrater reliability requires completely independent ratings of the same event by more than one observer.

Factor Analysis was undertaken to check the reliability of the measurement items and the internal uniformity of the research constructs. In particular, the factor loadings, the Cronbach's Alpha values and Composite Reliability (CR) values was determined using SPSS 21.0 and AMOS 21.0 software in order to assess measurement items reliability. It is

important to note however, that an instrument measurement can be reliable without being valid; however validity requires a measurement to be reliable.

ii) Validity

Broadly, the concept of validity seeks to determine the extent to which an instrument actually measures the factors that it aimed to measure (Galpin & Krommenhoek, 2013; Malhotra, 2010). Holden & Lynch (2004) separate validity into four broad categories, namely; external validity, internal validity, test validity and face validity. Moreover, the category of external validity comprises of further three items; criterion, content and construct validity. This study will make use of construct validity. This is done by either assessing how well the questions used in the research instrument relate to each other (correlation) or through Factor Analysis. Factor Analysis attempts to explain the data using as few dimensions as possible, by assessing how well the observed variables in the model relate to that which are not or cannot be observed (Galpin & Krommenhoek, 2013). Convergent and discriminant validity of the research constructs was 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 was utilized as indicators.

1. <u>Convergent Validity</u>

According to Sarstedt, Ringle, Smith, Reams & 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 (Burton et al., 2003; Yang et al., 2006). Sarstedt et al., (2014) state that ideally an item is

expected to be related to other items that measure the same constructs (convergent validity), but differ from items which measure different constructs (discriminant validity).

2. 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, 2006). According to Roche et al., (2011), 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 (Roche et al., 2011).

e) 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 (Burton et al., 2003). It involves the separation of a large number of variables into a smaller number of factors within which all variables are related to each other. The purpose of Factor Analysis is to investigate the underlying variance structure of a set of correlation coefficients. A Confirmatory Factor Analysis was performed to obtain the standard regression weights. Model fit indicators such as Chi-Square value/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) was used to assess the model fit.

f) Model Fit

Chi-squared tests are used as goodness of fit tests (Galpin, 2011). The Chi-Square value is the traditional measure for evaluating overall model fit and as it assesses the magnitude of discrepancy between the sample and fitted covariance matrices. A good model fit would provide an insignificant result at a 0.05 threshold (Burton et al., 2003).

g) Path Modeling

Once the model fit has been assessed, this study will proceed to perform Path Modeling using AMOS 21.0 software package. Path Modeling describes the relationships between observed or measured variables and theoretical constructs (Roche et al., 2011) and tests the structural paths of the conceptualized research model. Structure Equation Modeling (SEM), is an effective statistical research method for testing causal relationships between constructs with multiple measurement items (Yang et al., 2006; Burton et al., 2003). Hair *et al.,* (2006) and Yang et al., (2006) suggested that GFI, CFI, NFI, and are best if they are above 0.90 and are marginally acceptable if they are above 0.80. The recommended RMSEA is a value below 0.08, and the ratio of chi-square to degree of freedom should be below 5 (Hair *et al.,* 2006; Yang et al., 2006). Structural Equation Modeling was conducted and this process comprises of multiple regression analysis and path analysis and it models the relationship among the latent variables (Hair et al., 2008).

SEM technique demonstrates and tests the theoretical underpinnings of a proposed study and the significance of the relationships between the model's constructs (Yang et al., 2006). 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 (Hair et al., 2008). It further contains two mechanisms namely the structural model, which is the path where independent, and dependent variables are being linked and the measurement model enables this study to use several indicators for a single independent variable (Yang et al., 2006). In this study several attributes are to be identified as having an effect on city brand image. The multi-item scales for each construct can be developed; thereby, assessing each relationship simultaneously rather than separately, by incorporating all the multi-item scales to account for measurement errors with each scale.

4.6 Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations are essential in research as there is always the potential for participants' rights to be violated, intentionally or unintentionally. As such, a strict system of moral guidelines and rules delineating an acceptable manner to conduct research was presented by the University and followed by the researcher (Holden & Lynch, 2004). The foundations for the actions of the researcher were based on the principles set out in the Belmont report of 1978. These include; the respect for the autonomy of the individual, the minimisation of risk and maximisation of benefits as well as attempts not to bring harm to the participant. Justice and fairness in the treatment of participants has also been adhered to (Holden & Lynch, 2004; Gerber-Nel et al., 2005)

An informed consent was presented to the potential research participants. These forms detailed the aims of the study, the voluntary nature of participation in the research and the option for discontinuance without penalty, the instructions regarding participation as well as the contact details of the researcher and the supervisor. This was communicated in simple

language that was easily understandable. Additionally, assurances of anonymity and confidentiality were given to participants and of the data collected being destroyed once it had served its purpose. Finally, ethical clearance needed to be obtained from the University. This step ensured that every possible measure was taken to ensure that the research was undertaken in an ethical manner. A copy of the Ethical Clearance Letter that was issued by the University Ethical Committee is attached in the Appendix.

4.7 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the research design and methodology procedure of the study was expanded upon. Furthermore, the blueprint of the study used for data collection and analysis was outlined, where the research methodology and proposed philosophy was elaborated upon. Thereafter the research design was highlighted, reviewing the sampling design, target population and sample method and size. Moreover, the research instrument was discussed and the approach used for analysis of the data was presented.

Chapter Five: Data Analysis & Results

5.1 Introduction

This chapter will present and discuss the findings that were obtained through empirical investigation. In this chapter there will be presentations of 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 was utilised. In this chapter descriptive statistics are discussed, the reliability of all the constructs in the model used to develop the questionnaire is also discussed. Structural Equation Modeling was conducted where Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Path Modeling were conducted. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted to check for Model Fit, Reliability and Validity of the scales used in the research questionnaire. To check validity of the scales shared variance was compared to Average Variance Extracted (AVE). Path Modeling (PM) was conducted to check for model fit and to test the hypothesis of the study.

Chapter 5 will commence by exploring the data screening process, followed by the presentation of data analysis procedures employed by the current study. Thereafter, the sample description is provided. Following sample description, a test of measures and accuracy analysis statistics is provided. This section of the chapter mainly tests for the measures' reliability and validity using different methods to ascertain accuracy. For measure reliability, the Cronbach's Alpha, the Composite Reliability (CR) value and the Average Value Extracted (AVE) are used to check it while for validity; Factor Analysis is used to check convergent validity and correlation matrix and chi-square - CFA difference are used to check for evidence of discriminant validity. This section is followed by a presentation of the

research models fit. Numerous indicators such as the Chi-Square Value, Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Normed Fit Index (NFI), Incremental Fit Index (IFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) were used to ascertain if the research model fit the data. In conclusion, a summary of chapter 5 is provided.

5.2 Data Screening

After data collection, the researcher implemented the data screening process proposed by Malhotra (2006) to ensure data were cleaned before conducting further statistical analysis. Screening the data is the initial step towards obtaining some insights into the characteristics of the data. It is crucial to ensure the accuracy of data entries and assessment of outliers before proceeding to analyze summary statistics for the survey responses. The major analytical tasks in the data screening process include questionnaire checking, editing, coding, and tabulation. Using SPSS, each data field was tested for mean and standard deviation to detect any typographical errors and possible outliers. Data were cleaned after errors in data entry were rectified.

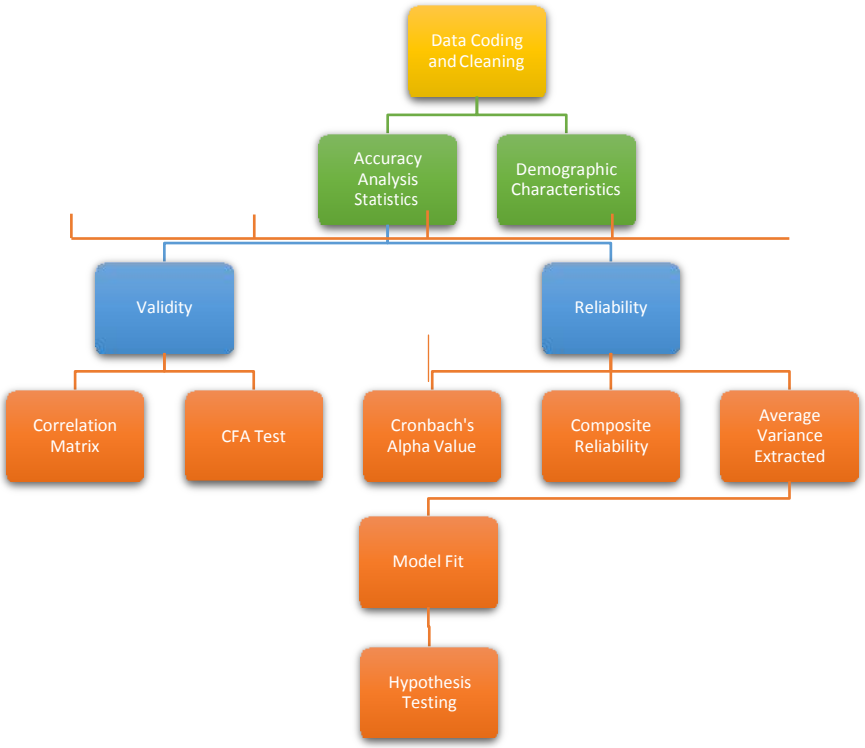
5.3 Data Analytical Procedures

To analyze the empirical data, several statistical methods were employed. Firstly, Coefficient Alpha and adjusted item-to-total correlations were used in assessing the internal consistency of each construct. Data were analyzed using SPSS. For the assessment of final measures, confirmatory Factor Analysis was performed using the AMOS 22. Statistical procedures used to validate measures involved of assessment of items and scale reliability, uni-dimensionality, and convergent and discriminant validity. Details of Structural Equation Modeling were analyzed with its interpretation of results was also be discussed.

Figure 1 demonstrates the procedures of statistical analysis as well as the key tasks that will be undertaken in the chapter.

a) Statistical Analysis Procedure

Figure 4: Statistical Analysis Procedure



5.4 Descriptive Statistics

The following section will not only discuss the descriptive statistics of the demographics of the target market but it will also provide a general overview of the results of the questionnaire at large. Gerber-Nel et al., (2005) state that any study should commence by explaining the demographic or descriptive traits of the sampled population and present this in a comprehensible way. The purpose of descriptive statistics is to search for patterns, to put

together and present a set of data describing the characteristics of the sample so as to make comparisons (Trochim, 2000; Gerber-Nel, Nel, Kotze, 2005;) 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.

a) Sample Description

Table 2: Age of the Respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
30 - 35	13	4.6	4.6
26 - 29	54	19.3	23.9
22 - 25	88	31.4	55.4
18 - 21	125	44.6	100.0
Total	280	100.0	

While the study does contain responses from respondents across the spectrum of the target age range, it is noted that it is highly skewed to the younger ranges. As such further explanations may need to be considered when analysing the data; such as, the region's proximity to a university and as such, the prevalence of the younger cohorts in the study.

It is here noted that the ages were stratified in the above manner as, while the overall cohort is considered as "youth" specific sub-cultures or life-cycle experiences can be generalised from these sub-divisions. These include: undergraduate study, post graduate study, entry into the job market as well as establishment in the job market.

Table 3: Educational Level of the Respondents			
	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Matric	51	18.2	18.2
Degree	128	45.7	63.9
Honours	64	22.9	86.8
Post graduate	37	13.2	100.0
Total	280	100.0	

During the cleaning and coding phase, the researcher realised that this question was skewed by their socio – economic privilege as notes from participants highlighted how there was not the option of "none of the above" or "I prefer not to answer". Although the study does have a strong focus towards the Creative Class, it was exclusionary of those who frequented Braamfontein but did not fall into this cohort. However, a valuation of the given statistics does support the notion that the proximity to the University may account for the skewness of the age.

Table 4: Gender of the Respondents			
	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	127	46	46
Female	151	53	99
I prefer not to	2	1	100
Total	280	100.0	

53% of the respondents were female and 46% were male. The remaining 1% either checked "neither" or Ï prefer not to say". These finding could form the foundation for further questions such as; Is the region perceived as having high levels of safety, thus drawing a

larger female population? Or is the region not perceived as a safe harbour for those who do not identify with gendered norms, thus explaning the 1%? These answers are outside of the scope of this study, but the researcher does encourage future researchers to explore the matter.

Table 5: Social Class of the Respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Elite	11	4	4
Upper	57	20	24
Middle Class	143	51	75
Working Class	53	19	94
Lower Class	16	6	100.0
Total	280	100.0	

While the researcher notes an almost perfect distribution of the social class categories, there is a concern regarding the overwhelming majority identifying as middle class. In order to get a more objective picture, future research may include a checklist where assests/opportunities (or the access to opportunities) can be used as social class signifiers. It is further noted that in this study, social class is used as a proxy for access. As such the various social classes would speak to the ability to frequent the region as well as engage in the various undertakings presented. Finally, this section superficially engages with the notion of the "Creative Class".

5.5 Inferential Statistics

After demographic data analysis of the data collected, the reliability and validity of the measuring scales need to be assessed to ensure valid data analyses. This was principally

important for this study as a few of the scales had been modified to adapt to the particular research context. Creswell (2013) proposed three requirements of measurement. First, the measurement must be an operationally definable process meaning that the measurement process must be defined by stipulating a set of realizable experimental conditions and a sequence of operations to be conducted under these conditions which will yield the measurement. Second, the outcome of the measurement process must be reproducible (reliability). Third, the measurement should be valid or accurate (validity). The total error of a measurement entails of systematic errors, which involve with validity test, and random errors, which are measured by reliability test (Kumar, 2005). The next subsection presents reliability tests, followed by a discussion of validity issues before the actual accuracy analysis for the study is presented.

a) Construct Reliability

As previously outlined, the central tenant of reliability is determining the consistency of the data. That is, attaining similar finding over many applications of the same study. In this study the internal reliability of each construct was assessed using the standardized Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha. Cronbach's Coefficient α is one of the most common internal consistency approaches (Dunn, Baguley & Brunsden, 2013). According to Chinomona (2014) a higher level of Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha indicates a higher reliability of the measurement scale. If the value is low, either there are too few items or there is little commonality among the items (Chinomona, 2014). Although the lowest threshold for the Cronbach's Alpha has been highlighted as being 0.6 (Hair et al., 2008), the majority of researchers cite a value of 0.7 or high in order for there to be a statistically acceptable. This study will use the latter application. The table below illustrates how the variables in the study fall within an acceptable range above the minimum of 0,7, with Presented City Brand scoring the lowest at

0.706 and City Brand Meaning the highest at 0.840. Therefore, these finding signify that the contruct of Brand Image has the highest level of reliability in the study and, while the construct of Presented City Brand has a value of reliability that is acceptable, it does have the lowest level of reliability in the study.

Table 6: Cronbach's Alpha Results

Variable	**Cronbach's Alpha Value**
Presented City Branding	0.706
City Brand Awareness	0.754
City Brand Meaning	0.840
City Brand Equity	0.762
City Brand Image	0.883

Furthermore, an examination of the composite reliability of the constructs was carried out in order to reaffirm whether the Cronbach's Alphas were valid, allowing for a thorough analysis including that of latent variables. According to Yang et al., (2006) 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 6 for exploratory research are suggested by Nunnally (1967). The value is later adjusted to 0.7 by Nunnally (1978) and is also recommended by Hair et al., (2008). The given table (Table 7) indicates that these values are

above the 0.6 threshold and as such confirms that there was internal consistency and reliability (Chinomona, 2011) for all constructs except for City Brand Image.

Table 7: Composite Reliability Results	
Variable	**Composite Reliability**
Presented City Branding	0.635
City Brand Awareness	0.671
City Brand Meaning	0.676
City Brand Equity	0.678
City Brand Image	0.443

Testing the Average Variance Extracted will indicate how much variance of the latent variable is shared amongst the other constructs. In order to be considered valid, Riel and Pura (2005) state that the AVE should be greater than 0.5. 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)}

The table below (Table 8) indicates that this holds true for the all the constructs in the study except for City Brand Image.

Table 8: Average Variance Extracted Results	
Variable	**Average Variance Extracted**
Presented City Branding	0.635
City Brand Awareness	0.671
City Brand Meaning	0.676
City Brand Equity	0.678
City Brand Image	0,443

Furthermore an assessment the factor loadings were carried out where some items were removed one at a time that had the "worst" cross loadings. These are namely; CBI3, CBI10 and CBI11. This is illustrated in Table 9 below.

Table 9: Factor Loadings

		PCB	CBA	CBM	CBE	CBI
Presented City Branding	PCB1	0.531				
	PCB2	0.869				
	PCB3	0.853				
City Brand Awareness	CBA1		0.702			
	CBA2		0.866			
	CBA3		0.823			
City Brand Meaning	CBM1			0.722		
	CBM2			0.838		
	CBM3			0.809		
	CBM4			0.817		
City Brand Equity	CBE1				0.798	
	CBE2				0.813	
	CBE3				0.788	
City Brand Image	CBI1					0.721
	CBI2					0.623
	CBI3					0.503
	CBI4					0.583
	CBI5					0.607
	CBI6					0.711
	CBI7					0.813
	CBI8					0.663
	CBI9					0.610
	CBI10					0.511
	CBI11					0.531
	CBI12					0.603
	CBI13					0.598
	CBI14					0.531
	CBI15					0.701
	CBI16					0.722
	CBI17					0.683
	CBI18					0.717

CBI19	0.521

Note : PCB = Presented City Brand; CBA = City Brand Awareness; CBM = City Brand Meaning; CBE = City Brand Equity; CBI = City Brand Image

b) Construct Validity

As previously mentioned, validity refers to the degree to which a test or instrument measures the attributes that it is supposed to measure (Galpin & Krommenhoek, 2012). In this section of the chapter the researcher is concerned with testing the construct validity.

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. As indicated in table 6, the inter-correlation values for all paired latent variables are less than 1.0, therefore, indicating the existence of discriminant validity (Chinomona, 2014 A correlation value between constructs of less than 0.7 is recommended in the empirical literature to confirm the existence of discriminant validity (Galpin & Krommenhoek, 2012).

Table 10: Inter-construct Correlation Matrix

	CBA	CBE	CBI	CBM	PCB
City Brand Awareness	1.000				
City Brand Equity	0.446	1.000			
City Brand Image	0.526	0.770	1.000		
City Brand Meaning	0.692	0.663	0.651	1.000	
Presented City Brand	0.546	0.402	0.432	0.339	1.000

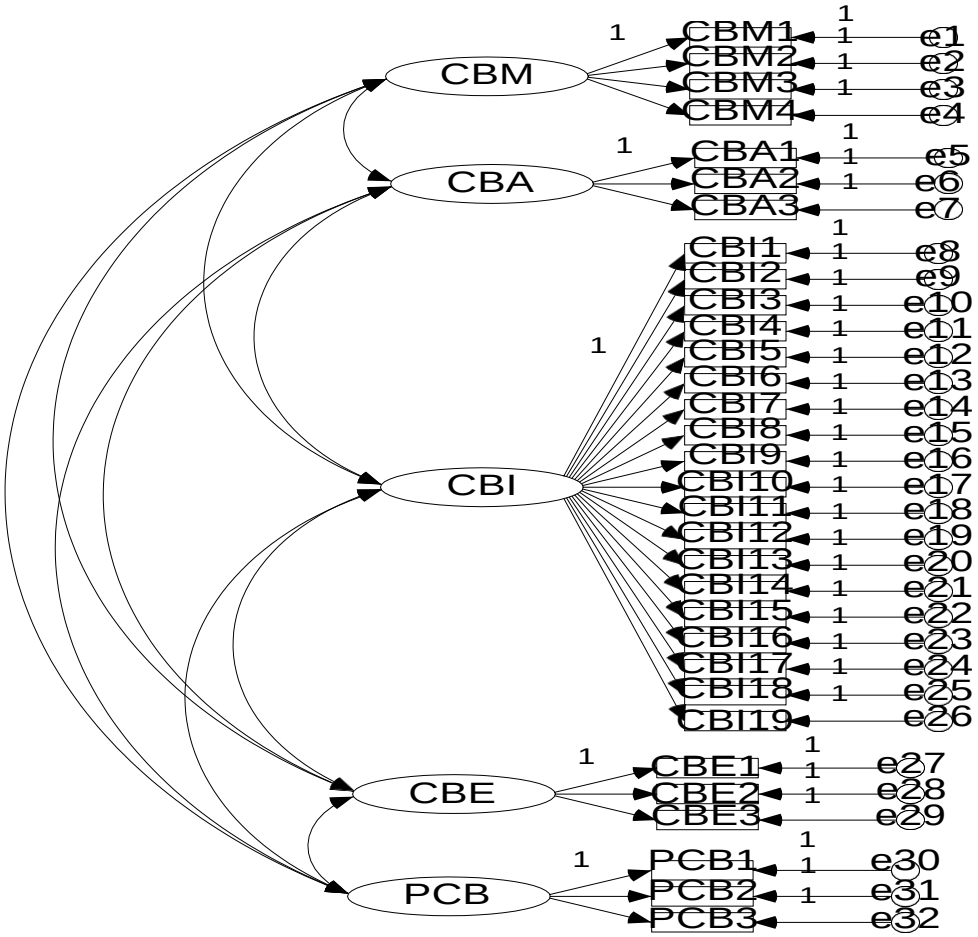
5.6 Model Fit Assessments

This assessment is carried out in order to determine how well the given data is represented by the model. According to Schumacker & Lomax (2004) 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 (Hair et al., 1992). This chapter uses eight model fit criteria to test the overall fit of the model.

a) Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) Model

Below is an illustration of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model (CFA). The research model was run and had the following results.



Note:

- PCB = Presented City Brand
- CBA = City Brand Awareness
- CBI = City Brand Image
- CBE = City Brand Equity
- CBM = City Brand Meaning

b) Model Fit

Table 11 below provides a comprehensive itemization of the Model Fit Results

Table 11: Model Fit Results

Model Fit Criteria	Chi Square	GFI	NFI	RFI	TLI	IFI	CFI	RMSEA
Indicator Value	1.473	0.944	0.975	0.946	0.982	0.907	0.956	0.057

- Chi-Square

According to Kumar (2005) the Chi-Square fit statistic tests a hypothesis of precise fit of the proposed model in the population. This is a method used to assess the general fit of the model. Here, a value of below 3 is an indication of an acceptable model fit (Chinomona, 2014). The above table indicates the value of 1,473 thus depicting an acceptable model fit.

- Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)

The Goodness of Fit is one of many criterion values for indicating satisfactory model fit suggested by researchers. The (GFI) is the degree of fit between the hypothesized model and the observed covariance matrix. The minimum threshold to determine goodness of fit is 0.9

(Chinomona, 2014). Any value greater, such as the 0.944 depicted in the above table is desired.

- Normed Fit Index (NFI)

The Normed Fit Index (NFI) asses the inconsistency between the chi-squared value of the hypothesized model and the chi-squared value of the null model (Roche et al., 2011). The (NFI) evaluates the discrepancy between the chi-squared value of the hypothesized model and the chi-squared value of the null model. A value of above 0.9 is considered to indicate an acceptable model fit (Galpin & Krommenhoek, 2012). The value of 0.975 indicates that there is an acceptable fit.

- Relative Fit Index (RFI)

The (RFI) compares the Chi-Square for the hypothesized model to one from a "null", or "baseline" model. The 0.9 minimum value threshold also holds true as a representation of model fit under this heading (Galpin & Krommenhoek, 2012). Furthermore, the value 0f 0.946 indicates that there is acceptable model fit.

- Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)

The TLI utilises simpler models and is known to address the issue of sample size associated with NFI .The value of 0.982 exceeds the minimum threshold of 0.9, indicating good model fit (Chinomona, 2014).

- Incremental Fit Index (IFI)

Bollen (1989) cited in Chinomona (2014) introduced the IFI in order to address the issue of frugality and sample size which was known to be associated with the NFI. The IFI's purpose is to correct the issue of frugality and sample size related to NFI. Again the minimum threshold of 0.9 has been exceed, albeit marginally (0.907), indicating good model fit (Chinomona, 2014).

- Comparative Fit Index (CFI)

The (CFI) assumes that all latent variables are uncorrelated and compares the sample covariance matrix with the null model. According to Galpin & Krommenhoek (2012) the comparative fit index (CFI) analyses the model fit through assessing the discrepancy between the data and the hypothesized model. The CFI is a revised version of the normed fit index (NFI) which is responsible for the sample size. 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 that is being used for the study is small. A value that meets or exceeds 0.9 with regard to CFI is an indication of good fit ((Chinomona, 2014).). Given that the study's CFI value is 0.956, this means that there is good fit.

- Root Mean Square Error (RMSEA)

The (RMSEA) informs how well the model, with indefinite but optimally selected parameter estimates would fit the populations covariance matrix (Roche et al., 2011). The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) fit index was introduced by Steiger & Lind in 1980 and is used for evaluating covariance structure models (Chinomona, 2014). It reduces

problems and inconsistencies commonly found in testing models with large sample sizes therefore becoming a helpful tool for guiding complex judgments about model utility rather than as a replacement for such judgements (Chinomona, 2014). The study's RSMEA of 0.057 marginally falls within the required range of 0.05 – 0.08 to indicate model fit. As a result of obtaining acceptable model fit, the study proceeded to test they presented hypotheses.

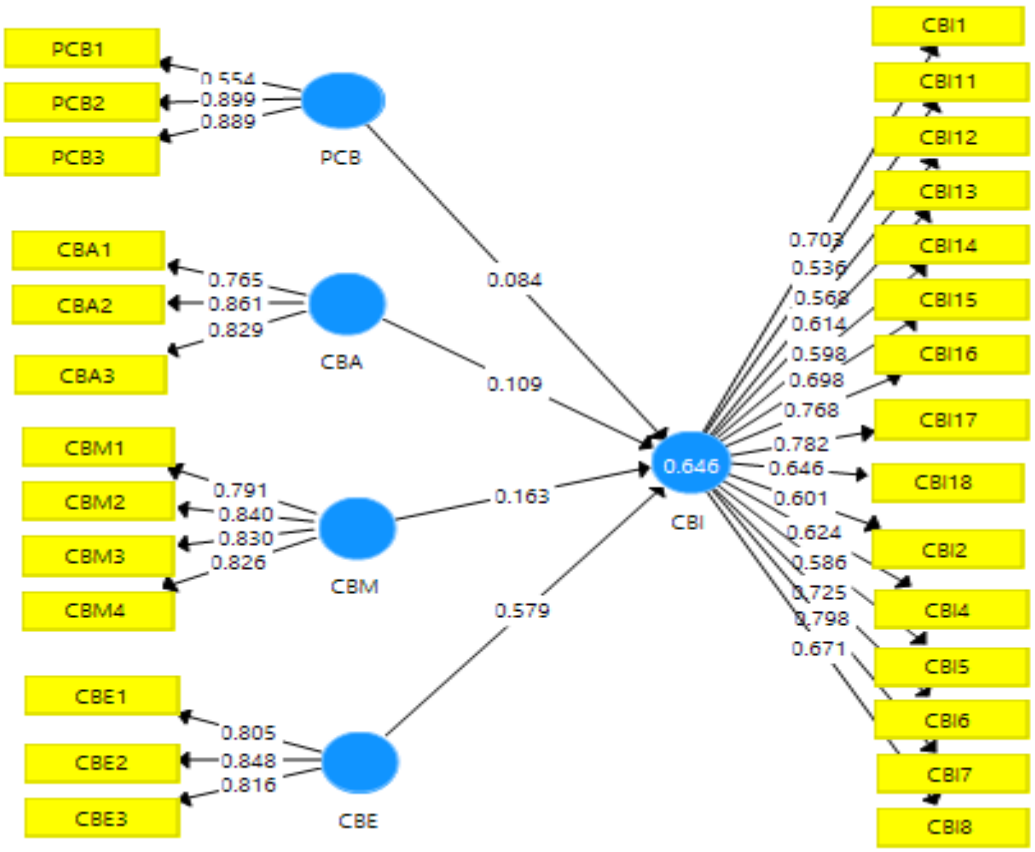
c) Structural Equation Modeling

Structure Equation Modeling (SEM), is an effective statistical research method for testing causal relationships between constructs with multiple measurement items (Sarstedt et al., 2012). According to Chinomona (2014) the goal of SEM analysis is to determine the degree to which the theoretical model is supported by sample data. The Structural Equation Modeling process comprises of multiple regression analysis and path analysis and it models the relationship among the latent variables (Chinomona, 2014). Figure 5 below is an illustration of the path model. The unidirectional arrow indicates the influence of one variable on another. Generally a path diagram is comprised of three parts: regression coefficient of independent variables on dependent variables, measurement errors related to observables variables and residual error of predictive value of latent values (Chinomona, 2014).

With SEM the structure of relations can be modeled pictorially enabling a clearer conceptualization of the theory under study. The hypothesized research model can be tested statistically in a simultaneous analysis of the entire system of variables to determine the degree to which it fits with the data (Chinomona, 2014). In this chapter the AMOS 22 software program is used as a tool to analyze SEM. AMOSS 22 is a software program that allows researchers to analyze SEM in graphical format, rather than complex command

functions. In this section SEM model fit, hypothesis testing results and finally discussion of results will be presented.

Figure 5: Path Modeling.



Key:

- PCB = Presented City Brand
- CBA = City Brand Awareness
- CBI = City Brand Image
- CBE = City Brand Equity
- CBM = City Brand Meaning

5.7 Hypothesis Testing

After assessment of the structural model, the model is utilised to identify relations between observed and latent variables. Through confirmatory Factor Analysis, the measurement model provides the association between scores on an instrument and the constructs that meant to measure (Sarstedt et al., 2012). SEM recognises casual relations among the latent variables through specifying those specific latent variables directly or indirectly influence on other latent variables in the model (Chinomona, 2014). The results obtained through hypothesis testing are provided in Table 12 below. The table (Table 12) indicates the proposed hypothesis, factor loadings and the rejected/supported hypothesis. Chinomona (2014) suggest that $p<0.05$, $p<0.01$ and $p<0.001$ are indicators of relationship significance and that positive factor loadings indicate strong relationships among latent variables.

Table 12: Hypotheses Results

Proposed Relationship Hypothesis	**Hypothesis #**	**p-value**	**Outcome**	**Reject/Support**
Presented City Brand → City Brand Image	H1	<0.01	Significant	Supported
City Brand Awareness → City Brand Image	H2	0.010	Insignificant	Reject
City Brand Equity → City Brand Image	H3	<0.01	Significant	Supported
City Brand Meaning → City Brand Image	H4	<0.01	Significant	Supported

a) Hypothesis One: Presented City Brand positively influences City Brand Image

The first hypothesis presented is that there is a positive relationship amid the presented city brand and city brand image. That is; an overall favourable presentation of the city as a brand

(this will also include cleanliness, infrastructure, architecture and general atmosphere) would result in a positive outlook towards the city brand image. The findings were that this notion was both significant and supported at a 0.01 confidence level.

b) Hypothesis Two: City Brand Awareness positively influences City Brand Image

Next, the hypothesised (positive) relationship that city brand awareness has on city brand image was tested. The idea here is that knowledge and familiarity with the brand of the region will result in a favourable city brand image. The finding was rejected as was insignificant at a 0.01 level of confidence.

c) Hypothesis Three: City Brand Equity positively influences City Brand Image

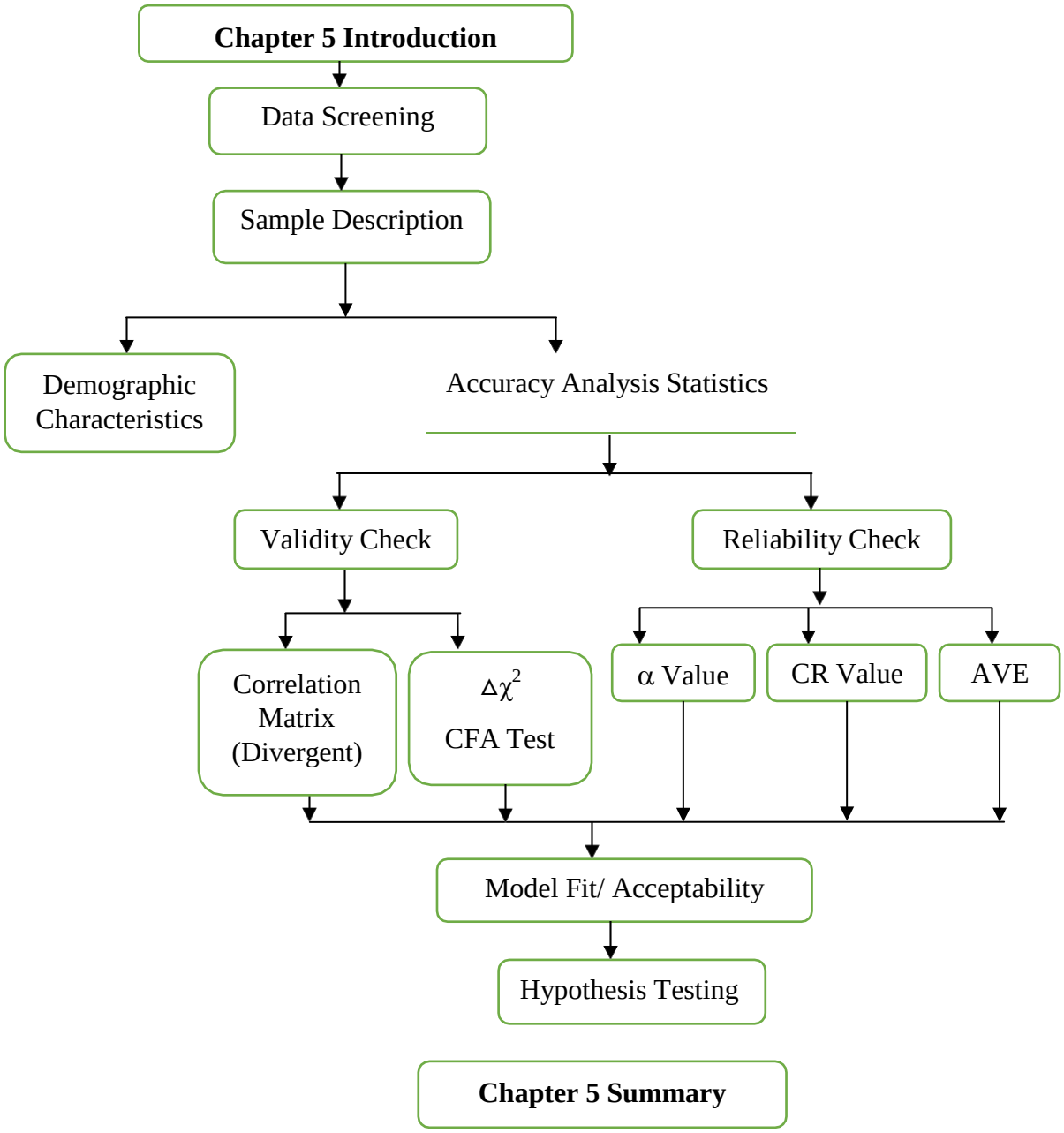
Hypothesis Three explored city brand equity and its positive effect on city brand image. The notion was that a comprehensive and largely favourable view of the region's assets (both tangible and intangible) will result in a positive city brand image. The findings were that this notion was both significant and supported at a 0.01 confidence level.

d) Hypothesis Four: City Brand Meaning positively influences City Brand Image

The final hypothesis stated that there city brand meaning had a positive relationship with city brand image. The presentation, perception and/or interpretation of what the city brand means, has a positive effect on city brand image. The findings were that this notion was both significant and supported at a 0.01 confidence level.

5.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter provided a detailed report of the findings of the study, using the guidelines set out in Chapter Four. A discussion of the descriptive statistics, assessments of the reliability, validity, model fit as well as the testing of the hypotheses were also presented. A diagrammatic representation of the chapter is presented below:



Chapter Six: Implications and Conclusion

6.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the practical implications of the results found in the previous chapter. Thereafter the theoretical contributions to academic literature will be highlighted. Finally the limitations of the research were offered and avenues for future research are highlighted.

6.2 Managerial Implications

The following subsection will provide insights per hypothesis finding. Below, the terms "city" and "region" will be used interchangeably as, in this study, the city branding model was applied to the region of Braamfontein.

a) Hypothesis One: Presented City Brand positively influences City Brand Image

The findings with regard to presented city brand having a positive relationship with city brand image were both supported and significant. It is thus important that the controlled communications by the region are consistent in their presentation. However, unlike a company where this would apply to the logo, stationery, uniforms and integrated marketing communications et cetera; this would be significant to the regional equivalents. These would include infrastructure, transport options, safety, cleanliness, architecture and landscapes amongst other matters. Investment in the presented city brand that goes beyond the marketing communications (especially mere advertisements and slogans) will result in a favourable city brand image.

b) Hypothesis Two: City Brand Awareness positively influences City Brand Image

The findings with regard to city brand awareness having a positive relationship with city brand image were rejected as they were insignificant. The researcher will contend that while city brand awareness is salient it plays a peripheral role in city brand image. However, that is not to say that efforts to raise brand awareness should be disregarded. The generation of curiosity and interest in the city brand is the first step to encouraging customer involvement with the region. Digital marketing tools can be employed in this regard. Online and search advertising can be used to raise awareness as well as for city branding.

c) Hypothesis Three: City Brand Equity positively influences City Brand Image

The findings with regard to city brand equity having a positive relationship with city brand image were both supported and significant. Regional managers should note that the region holds value for those who frequent it. The currency of this value comprises of both tangible and intangible elements of the region. It is therefore important that managers not only constantly add value to those within the region, but also that a holistic view when attempting to do so. The use of digital marketing tools can aid in this exchange of value. The use of social media allows for customer generated content, allowing for both participation on the consumers' part and insights on that of the regional management. Furthermore, this allows for engagement with consumers and provides branding opportunities for the region.

d) Hypothesis Four: City Brand Meaning positively influences City Brand Image

The findings with regard to city brand meaning having a positive relationship with city brand image were both supported and significant. This means that the presentation, perception and/or interpretation of what the city brand means, has a positive effect on the region's brand image. However, unlike a product or company where that meaning can be created, a region already has a history and a heritage. Furthermore, the difficulty for managers also lies in discerning the different meanings from the various stakeholders who include tourists, residents, student, big and small business. It is therefore important that regional managers do not take a unilateral approach on deciding on a brand meaning but rather a consultative one that will result in involvement and ultimately investment from the various other parties.

6.3 Theoretical Contributions

The study contributes to existing literature on the relationship between presented city brand, city brand awareness, city brand equity, city brand meaning with city brand image. Not only were these concepts expanded upon but they were also carried out in a South African context. This provided a new avenue to interpret them from. This study also contributes to new literature on the concept of a staycation. Importantly, this study brought these elements together, while reviewing the after-effects of the Braamfontein Regeneration Project.

6.4 Limitations

The scale of the study is a limitation. Given the researcher's limited time and resources, a small sample of 280 was assessed. This could have resulted in a bias in the findings. Furthermore, the study was only conducted in one language (English). This resulted in cases where the questions had to be explained to some participants, at times in another language.

As the research instrument was also sent via email and social media, there is a possibility that some participants may have had difficulties understanding what was asked. Finally, the majority of the participants were randomly approached in the streets of Braamfontein, but business owners were often overlooked. This is a possible avenue for future research to rectify.

6.5 Future research

It became apparent that at least four versions of the Braamfontein region existed, the first two being; the weekday Braamfontein and the weekend Braamfontein. Braamfontein also reflected two types, with a clear distinction being noticed after Melle Street. The "weekday Braamfontein" refers to a region that comprises of those who have business in the area. The "weekend Braamfontein" refers to a region inundated with "staycationers". The part of the region the the West of Melle Street reflects an area that is highly gentrified whereas the region to the East of Melle street highlights a region that is reminiscent of the pre-regeneration era of Braamfontein. Given the presence of the University of the Witwatersrand as well as various other student colleges, there is the possibility of a fifth "student Braamfontein" that may also need to be explored. It may be wise for future research to explore these distinct versions of the region.

6.6 Summary

This chapter discussed the practical implications of the results found in the study. Thereafter the theoretical contributions to academic literature were presented. Finally the limitations of the research were offered and avenues for future research were highlighted. Ultimately, the aim of this study was to successfully investigate the influence of place branding on

Braamfontein's perceived image, given the pervasion of the "staycation" and the concurrent rise in popularity of the Braamfontein precinct after the Regeneration Project was carried out.

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Appendix

Participant Information Sheet

The Influence of City Branding on City Image: The Case of Braamfontein, Johannesburg in South Africa

Good day,

Thank you for paying attention to this academic questionnaire. The purpose of this questionnaire is to gather information on the relationship between the branding of Braamfontein and its perceived image in Johannesburg Metropolitan City. I am therefore, requesting for your assistance to complete the questionnaire below. The research is purely for academic purposes in fulfilment of my Master's Degree in Marketing.

Participation in this study is entirely voluntary and you may choose to withdraw from the study at any point in time. Please note that the choice not to participate or to withdraw from the study will have no adverse consequences. Pleased be assured that the data collected from this study will remain private and treated with confidentiality. In order to ensure that your right to anonymity is respected please do not put your name anywhere on the questionnaire.

The questionnaire consists of six sections A, B, C, D, E and F and should take approximately six minutes of your time. Please complete all the questions so as to ensure that the questionnaire can be used. You will be presented with five options for each question. Please indicate the response that you find most appropriate from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). There are no correct or incorrect answers, however please only indicate one answer per statement.

Thank you in advance, your participation is greatly appreciated.

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UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND
School of Economic and Business Sciences

Questionnaire

SECTION A: Respondent Profile

This section includes some general and biographical questions. Please indicate your answer by marking (X) where appropriate.

1. Please indicate your age_____

2. Current educational Qualifications (please mark X on the corresponding line)
   - ___ School-leaving Certificate
   - ___ Matric Certificate
   - ___ Diploma
   - ___ Undergraduate Degree
   - ___ Post-graduate Degree

3. Gender (please mark X on the corresponding line)
   - ___ Male
   - ___ Female
   - ___ Both
   - ___ Neither
   - ___ Other
   - ___ I prefer not to answer

4. Which social class would you categorise yourself as:
   - ___ Rural
   - ___ Working Class
   - ___ Middle Class
   - ___ Upper Middle Class
   - ___ Elite

SECTION B: PERCIEVED CITY BRANDING

Below are statements about the branding of Braamfontein. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement by marking (X) the corresponding number in the 5-point-scale below:

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	moderately agree	Agree	strongly agree

Please mark (X) only one number for each statement

PCB 1	I feel that the brand of Braamfontein is appealing	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
PCB 2	I feel that the brand of Braamfontein is attractive	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
PCB 3	I feel that the brand of Braamfontein is interesting	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

SECTION C: CITY BRAND AWARENESS

Below are statements about City Brand Awareness, you are required to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement by marking (X) the appropriate number where:

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	moderately agree	Agree	strongly agree

Please mark only one number for each statement

CBA 1	The brand Braamfontein is the only city that comes to my mind when I think of a day-trip destination	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBA 2	The brand Braamfontein is the first that comes to my mind when I think of a day-trip destination	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBA 3	The brand Braamfontein City is the easy to recognize amongst the other cities.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

SECTION D: CITY BRAND MEANING

Below are statements about City Brand Meaning, you are required to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement by marking the appropriate number where:

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	moderately agree	Agree	strongly agree

Please mark only one number for each statement

CBM1	The brand Braamfontein is credible	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBM2	The brand Braamfontein evokes pleasant sensations of the destination	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBM3	The brand Braamfontein has a strong personality.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBM4	The brand Braamfontein represents a reliable destination..	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

SECTION E: CITY BRAND EQUITY

Below are statements about relationship commitment, you are required to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement by marking the appropriate number where:

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	moderately agree	Agree	strongly agree

Please mark only one number for each statement

CBE1	The brand Braamfontein encourages visiting the destination	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBE2	The brand Braamfontein identifies a better-quality destination than other similar ones.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBE3	I will tell other people the positive aspects of the brand Braamfontein.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

SECTION F: CITY BRAND IMAGE

Below are statements about relationship satisfaction, you are required to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement by marking the appropriate number where:

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	moderately agree	Agree	strongly agree

Please mark only one number for each statement

CBI1	Braamfontein has good opportunities for recreation activities	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBI2	Braamfontein has good shopping facilities	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBI3	Braamfontein has high quality of accommodation	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBI4	Braamfontein has high quality of infrastructure	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBI5	Braamfontein has low prices of tourism services	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBI6	Braamfontein has good value for money	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBI7	Braamfontein has beautiful landscapes	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBI8	Braamfontein has fascinating architecture	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBI9	Braamfontein has interesting cultural attractions	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBI10	Braamfontein has unusual ways of life and customs	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBI11	Braamfontein has interesting cultural attractions	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBI12	Braamfontein has a relaxing atmosphere/ is a peaceful place	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBI13	Braamfontein is slightly crowded	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBI14	Braamfontein is a place to rest	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBI15	Braamfontein has a high level of personal safety	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBI16	Braamfontein has a high level of cleanliness	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBI17	Braamfontein is an unpolluted environment	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBI18	The image that I have of Braamfontein is as good or even better than that of other similar destinations	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
CBI19	Braamfontein's overall destination image is very positive	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

THE END

Thank You!

Research Office

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

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE	**PROTOCOL NUMBER H14/10/19**
PROJECT TITLE	The influence of city branding on its perceived image: the case of Braamfontein
INVESTIGATOR(S)	Ms LT Mototo
SCHOOL/DEPARTMENT	Economic and Business Sciences
DATE CONSIDERED	24 October 2014
DECISION OF THE COMMITTEE	Approved Unconditionally
EXPIRY DATE	07/12/2016

DATE 08/12/2014 **CHAIRPERSON** _____
(Professor T Milani)

cc: Supervisor : Prof R Chinomona

DECLARATION OF INVESTIGATOR(S)

To be completed in duplicate and **ONE COPY** returned to the Secretary at Room 10000, 10th Floor, Senate House, University.

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

_____ _____/_____/_____
Signature **Date**

PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER ON ALL ENQUIRIES