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THE INFLUENCE OF POLITICAL PARTY BRANDING ON VOTING BRAND PREFERENCE AMONG THE YOUTH IN SOUTH AFRICA

By

Promise Omo-Obas

A THESIS

Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Masters Dissertation

(Marketing)

Supervisor: Dr Norman Chiliya

at the

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND

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Abstract

With an increase in competition in the political sector, there is a paradigm shift as parties revert to branding to influence voters' political party brand preference. Political marketing is one of the most important aspects of developing industry which affects institutions, people and the involvement of successful candidates in the modern generation of politics. Therefore, it is of interest to examine how political party branding can enhance brand preference of the voters. Although several studies have explored political marketing and factors influencing university students' intention to vote using various mediums, few studies have explored distinctive cues as a holistic concept in investigating the effect on youth of brand image and brand preference. More precisely, few studies have explored this topic in a political context among the youth in South Africa. This research purpose is to determine whether political party branding influences voting brand preference among the youth in South Africa, through the means of the proposed conceptual model, brand identity, positive word of mouth and brand authenticity as the predictors, brand image as the mediating variable, and brand preference as the outcome variable. The current study undertakes a quantitative approach, where 379 questionnaires were received from the respondents, (University of the Witwatersrand students), to explore the influence of political party branding on voting brand preference among the youth in South Africa. The data was analysed using structural equation modelling and Amos 23.0. Findings support all five proposed hypotheses. Hence indicating that brand identity, positive word of mouth and brand authenticity, influences brand image and brand preference. The contribution of this study is to provide general information to guide political parties or politics in South Africa in developing marketing / branding strategies based on the concept of brand preference. These contributions will help different types of political parties in having the knowledge of the critical role of brand preference and its implementation in the political marketing context. Theoretically, it is positioned in political marketing and adds to empirical literature that focuses on political branding, branding and voters' preference in political parties. Lastly, by examining the predictors' variables and their influence on brand image and brand preference, the findings provide political parties with a better understanding of branding strategies that can be implemented to influence voters' preference before, during and after a campaign through comprehensive political branding.

Keywords: *Political marketing, brand identity, political branding, brand authenticity, brand preference, South African youth.*

Declaration

I, the undersigned, Promise Omo-Obas, hereby declare that this research is my own, unaided work. It is being submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Honours in Business Science at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in this or any other university.

I further declare that:

I am aware that plagiarism (the use of someone else's work without their permission and/or without acknowledging the original source) is incorrect. I have followed the required agreements in referencing the opinions and ideas of others. No other person's work has been used without due acknowledgment in the main text of the report.

I understand that the University of the Witwatersrand may take disciplinary action against me if there is a certainty that this is not my own unassisted work or that I have neglected to acknowledge the source of the ideas in my writing.

SIGNED AT _____ ON THIS _____ DAY OF _____

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1. Introduction

Marketing is defined as an organisational function and a set of procedures for creating, delivering and communicating value to consumers and thus, managing customer relationships in ways that benefit stakeholders and its organisation (Kotler & Keller, 2009). Political marketing comprises interest groups, political parties that are within a political organisation, as such, adapting business marketing techniques and concepts in building and achieving the aims in identifying citizen concerns is paramount (Kotler & Keller, 2009). To establish the kind of branding that will enhance in developing and achieving the demands of the people, also in communicating the necessary objectives more efficiently and effectively to their voters, is what political marketing represents (Khatib, 2012).

Political marketing is one of the most important aspects of a developing field which affects institutions, people and the involvement of a successful candidate (O'Cass, 2001). However, most researchers have identified an emergent key area for exploration, apart from communication by political candidates and parties to their constituencies, for instance, the structure and processes of political marketing, application of marketing in politics and also marketing management theory and its appositeness for politics (French and Smith, 2010; O'Cass, 2001; Khatib, 2012). In the theoretical and empirical analysis, this present study examines the influence of political party branding on voting brand preference in South Africa (French and Smith, 2010)

It is very important to understand the market that a political party or candidate is running for to be successful in it, hence, political marketing offers great new ways of managing and understanding modern politics (O'Cass, 2001). Branding as a concept in the political view has set a standard of its origin in the consumer market. Furthermore, branding principles have been integrated into consumer choice which have led to political parties being branded differently, for example, having logos, names, colours of the parties, to symbolise the future and what they represent (French and Smith, 2010). In South Africa at present, politics is at its peak, where in parliament there is no differentiation on what the present parties want to achieve. All the parties are being sentimental to the affairs of the nation and to the detriment of the people, consumers (voters), without considering the implications of their acts to their respective brands. Recent studies have focused on how voters view political brands, application of marketing in modern

politics and international collaboration and also customer value use in the field of political marketing (French and Smith, 2010; Phipps et al., 2010).

Political marketing is fundamentally a form of services marketing; where voters elect the candidate to serve them and to meet their needs in the society and for the improvement of the nation entirely. In essence, it's the ability of the marketing party projecting and enhancing the belief of the governed in its ability to govern, hence, political parties are being seen as (service organisations) to the people (O'Shaughnessy, 2001). According to Phipps et al., (2010), the democratic process is dependent upon voter participation and involvement, hence, with the exception of a few like O'Cass and Pecotich (2005) and O,Cass (2001) that argue contrary to the dependency of voters' participation in the democratic process. This process can be seen in the political intuition of South Africans.

1.2. Obama 'yes we can' campaign

The Obama slogan 'yes we can' in the 2008 election in the United States of America, brought about a change in the way the nation sees and perceives a political party and what it represents. The democratic party realised that branding the party with the right words would make a huge change and have an influence on the voting intentions of the youth and everyone at large during elections. Barack Obama was particularly noted for the use of the Internet to rally supporters and make his policies known (McGuire, 2010). "The integration of technology into the process of field organizing is the success of the Obama campaign," (McGuire, 2010, p. 99) Obama's use of the Internet targeted 18 to 29-year-olds, the age group most reliant on new media for political information about an election (McGuire, 2010).

The integration of technology by Obama has shown that the youth have a say in the voting during elections and making them view the brand of the party in a way that has never been seen and integration of their issues during and after campaigns (McGuire, 2010). This can influence the voting intentions of the youth in South Africa. Numbers have shown that presidential candidates have increased their presence and activity online. The campaign of the Democratic presidential election of Barack Obama has been defined by many experts with the help of commercial frameworks and attributed its success to the "seamlessness of the candidate's corporate identity" (Adolphsen, 2009, p. 28). According to Adolphsen, Obama has been identified as the first candidate "to have been promoted in the same way as an upmarket, trans-

media consumer brand" with the strategy of "structuring a brand the way social networks are built out" (Adolphsen, 2009, p. 30).

Seemingly, in the senses of many, the Obama campaign resembles an elaborate branding operation which can be adopted in the politics of any nation.

Obama's campaign managers understood that the reason younger voters tended to ignore politicians was that politicians tended to ignore issues which most concerned them, which is why Obama received such a positive reaction from America's youth (McGuire, 2010). The Obama web campaign used consumer marketing to target individuals with customized information to their predicted interests. Political communication to viewers was based on data collected about them. An unprecedented communication strategy was the "online call tool" McGuire, (2010). Over one million calls were made from residential, personal laptops and desktops. According to Glenn and Mattes (2011), President Zuma opted for this kind of communication strategy to hear South Africans out on the issues that bother them when he opened the presidential Hotline for complaints from the public, but did not maximize the opportunity and the call process line was closed.

Obama's campaign is notable for its extensive use of a logo and also with the Barack Obama "HOPE" poster, an iconic image which differentiated his campaign from the competitors and then gave them leverage to win the election (McGuire, 2010).

1.3. Political landscape in South Africa

Democracy ruling came into being in South Africa in April 1994 through the legendary Nelson Mandela who led the country and fundamentally transformed it from an apartheid state to a democratic state. Understanding the prospects for, and threats to, democracy in South Africa, there is a need to look beyond the proclivities of the politicians embroiled in power struggles to the processes that these political parties' battles may be creating and influencing the people of the nation, as in voters (Friedman, 2009). This study is focusing on the political parties in South Africa and a close look at three major political parties; which are the African National Congress (ANC), the Democratic Alliance (DA), and the Economic Freedom Fighters (EFF).

From 1994 until 2004 the ANC has had an ever-increasing share of the vote; by 2004 the ANC has been in control of all nine provincial legislatures and, over a century, has represented the

majority identity in the country and having the growing support (Friedman, 2009). For years, politicians have relied on the basic marketing skills; political rallies, campaign buttons, campaign (manifestos) speeches and posters to familiarise voters with the brand, platform and the party. Therefore, the principles that operate in the commercial marketplace also exist in the political marketplace (Newman, 2000). As the political landscape shifts in South Africa, elections have become more competitive, thus there is a rise of fewer, stronger opposition contenders which present a renewed challenge to the ANC, such as the Economic Freedom Fighters (EFF), which highlighted an emerging class-based politics and effectively dented the ANC's traditional support, with the slogan 'People's Power for Economic Freedom in Our Lifetime'. This party was founded by Julius Malema and had to differentiate itself and what it represents with a dress code of red overalls, also worn in parliament, and having the focus on the youth has made it emerge strongly in the political standard. The DA is a union of the Democratic Party - the official opposition since the 1990s - and a descendant of earlier white progressive parties, including the party to which Helen Suzman belonged (Friedman, 2009).

Although, Glenn and Knaggs (2008) argue South Africans have shown consistently low levels of what the political scientists call **Cognitive engagement** which symbolises a combination of political interest and political discussion. From 1995 to 2011, it has been found that not more than one-fifth of citizens have told interviewers that they "shadow" politics continuously or even discussed politics with family, and about 30 percent have ever claimed to be very involved with politics (Glenn & Mattes, 2011). Southall and Daniel (2009) argue that political parties' brands are an indispensable part of political recruiting that leads to the country's future leaders, communication process, articulating interests, mobilising mass political participation and aggregating voters' preferences towards the party.

South African electoral power or choices are shaped by identities, which is why brand identity is critical to be associated with in the political setting and party (Friedman, 2009). Voters across the spectrum tend to remain loyal to parties that are defined by a complex mix of race, represent their identity group, language and culture, thus representing the rainbow country (Friedman, 2009).

In terms of voter identification with political parties, the ANC has indeed sustained a conclusive advantage over the opposition parties in terms of *partisan identification,* but recently with the new emerging political parties there seems to have been, with some fluctuation, a steady decrease over time in identification of the political brands. This suggests

that as voters moved away from opposition parties such as the National Party (NP), they moved to independent column rather than to the ANC. Why is this so? According to Glenn and Mattes (2011), there was lack of belief and trust towards the elected officials to go and find out the problems of the ordinary people or hear them out and resolve their needs as promised; rather, there was a failing in accountability of the promise and hence, the Nkandla issues have taken over the state. An analysis of South African voting patterns has constantly identified the crucial role of voters' 'images' and not the brand image of the political party on whether a given party is exclusive, representing one group to the exclusion of others, or inclusive, representing all South Africans (Glenn and Knaggs, 2008).

1.4. Problem Statement

In this highly changing world, politics is evolving every day from the traditional way of marketing, to a more advanced technological way which is being used by politicians to market their products and ideas to reach their voters (O'Cass, 2001). Thus, politics is becoming highly influenced by marketing. Several studies have explored aspects of political marketing, for example, the feasibility and usefulness of adapting the concept of 'customer value' from commercial marketing for use in the field of political marketing (Brennan & Henneberg, 2008). Inasmuch as politicians have recognised these processes or methods, few studies have been done in these areas and also in the area of factors influencing the success of political marketing.

In the South African context, Morar, Venter and Chuchu (2015) explored factors influencing university students' intention to vote using the advertising mediums, convenience factors, social pressures and other variables. A study has been conducted on political marketing such as examining basic factors that may influence the success of political marketing (Khatib, 2012), but a lack of research on this topic exists in South Africa on branding/voting brand preference among the youth in Johannesburg. Political Marketing in Africa: a developing area that is often overlooked. There have been a number of studies in the global context that have investigated political marketing in the political sector (Ediraras et al., 2013; Osuagwu, 2008; O'Shaughnessy, 2001) but they did not investigate the impact of the overall party branding effect on intention to vote for brand preference. In the light of the above this study examines political parties' brand not only during elections but in their day to day activities, which ultimately leads to brand preference by voters.

1.5. Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is twofold: firstly, to investigate the influence of political party branding on voting brand preference among the youth in Johannesburg and understanding of the effort of political parties' in branding their image not only for the benefit of elections but in their day to day activities.

Secondly, to determine the mediating role of brand image on the influence brand identity, brand authenticity and positive word of mouth on brand preference of the political parties in the South African context.

1.6. Research Objectives

According to the research problem statement articulated above, the study objectives are stated below.

1.6.1. Empirical Objectives

The empirical objectives underlying the study are to investigate the relationship between:

- Brand identity and brand image of the three major political parties
- Brand identity and brand preference of the political parties
- Positive word of mouth and brand image of political parties
- Brand authenticity and brand image of political parties
- Brand authenticity and brand preference of political parties
- Brand image and brand preference of the political parties.

1.6.2. Theoretical Objectives

- To explore literature on brand identity and brand image of political parties
- To explore literature on brand identity and brand preference of the political parties
- To explore literature on positive word of mouth and brand image of political parties
- To explore literature on the influence of brand authenticity on brand image of the political parties
- To explore the literature on brand authenticity and brand preference of the political parties
- To explore the literature on brand preference of the political parties

1.6.3. Research Questions

This study aims to answer the following research questions.

- To what extent does brand identity influence brand image of political parties?
- To what extent does brand identity influence brand preference of political parties?
- To what extent does positive word of mouth influence brand image of political parties?
- To what extent does brand authenticity influence brand image of political parties?
- To what extent does brand authenticity influence brand preference of political parties?
- To what extent does brand image influence brand preference of political parties?

1.7. Justification of the study

South Africa as a developing country still has a long way to go when it comes to political marketing in a political world of democracy and the ability to stay with the voters in the long run and establishment of trust, identity and authenticity of their respective political parties.

1.8. Significance of the research

The significance of the proposed study is to help the politicians and parties to understand the political preferences of voters during elections. This research will give political parties an insight on how application of marketing dimensions such as branding can have an effect, both negatively and positively, on a daily basis as they communicate to the voters or public. Furthermore, it will show the importance of the theoretical contributions of brand identity, brand continuity, positive word of mouth and brand image on brand preference. This research will empirically measure brand preference and its antecedents in the political sector of South Africa.

1.9. Literature Review

This segment will be highlighting both the theoretical and empirical review of literature. Overview and brief analysis of the hypothetical statements and conceptual model will be discussed.

1.9.1. Branding

This research has adopted branding as the marketing concept in order to explain the nature that and branding entails in political marketing in day to day activities of the political parties and how it can influence the brand preference on voting intention of the youths of South Africa.

The practise of marketing strategies and policies by political organisations in their electoral activities has been debated and recognised in existing literatures and hence, it can be seen that any political party desiring to gain long-term competitive advantage must endeavour to design and communicate through the essential mediums not only during elections but communicating greatly through their everyday life activities, thus achieving the aim of satisfying the significant target audience (party members, voters and party funders) (Osuagwu, 2008).

Branding concept was first used significantly from the solute moving consumer goods commerce and thus, branding has a relevant integration of a broader range of consumer culture entities, such as entertainment characteristics, banks, countries and colleges (Phipps et al., 2010). A successful brand is an identifiable product, place or person, augmented in such a way that the user or buyer can perceive the importance, sustainable added values and uniqueness which match or satisfy their needs (Phipps et al., 2010).

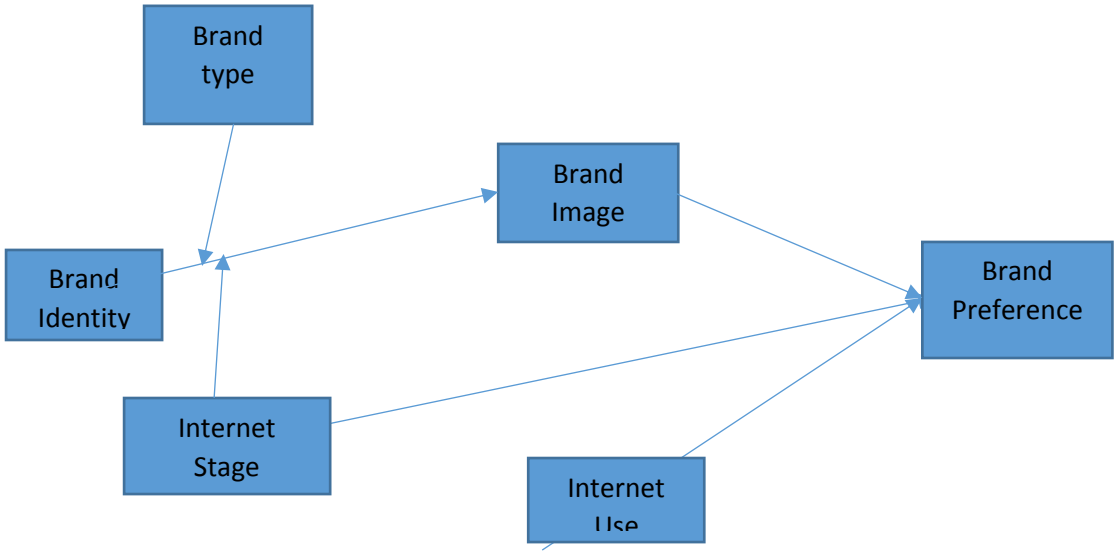
Branding has characteristics such as logos, names, colours, word of mouth, creating awareness of the brand through online mediums and also the traditional mediums. Political parties are using this medium of branding to discuss ideas and proclaim assurances to gain electoral support without realising that there is more to it and not only during election times but during their day to day activities (French and Smith, 2010). Branding has a critical role to play in terms of increasing the value and promotes a constructive dialogue between voters and parties. As branding is applied in more and more different settings, brand theory and best practice guidelines need to be refined to reflect the unique realities of those settings (Keller, 2002). According to Phipps et al., (2010) a political party with a brand that competes in an election might have a competitive advantage over its rivals.

1.10. Discussion of variables adopted from different studies

These are the three models that the study has adopted: the first one is the relationships among brand identity, brand image and brand preference by Saaksjarvi and Samiee (2011); the second one is the brand authenticity, by Schallehn, Burmann and Riley (2014); and the third is the role of consumer-brand identification in building brand relationships by Tuskej, Golob and Podnar (2013).

The first variable comprises brand identity, brand type, Internet stage, Internet use and brand preference. Hence, the researcher used three of the variables from the model that relate to the current study which are; brand identity, brand image and brand preference, which has been explored in the empirical study. Bart el., al (2005) argue that Internet stage and use is a component of preference that shows the experiences that consumers tend to have with a particular political party channel, thus might influence their preference with the political brand. Studies that address Internet use demonstrate that voters that use this channel tend to differentiate the products or services that have been rendered by the political party to their electorates (Sääksjärvi & Samiee, 2011). Although this model was used in the Internet industries, it can be applicable to politics. The variables that were taken from the model are brand identity, brand image and brand preference.

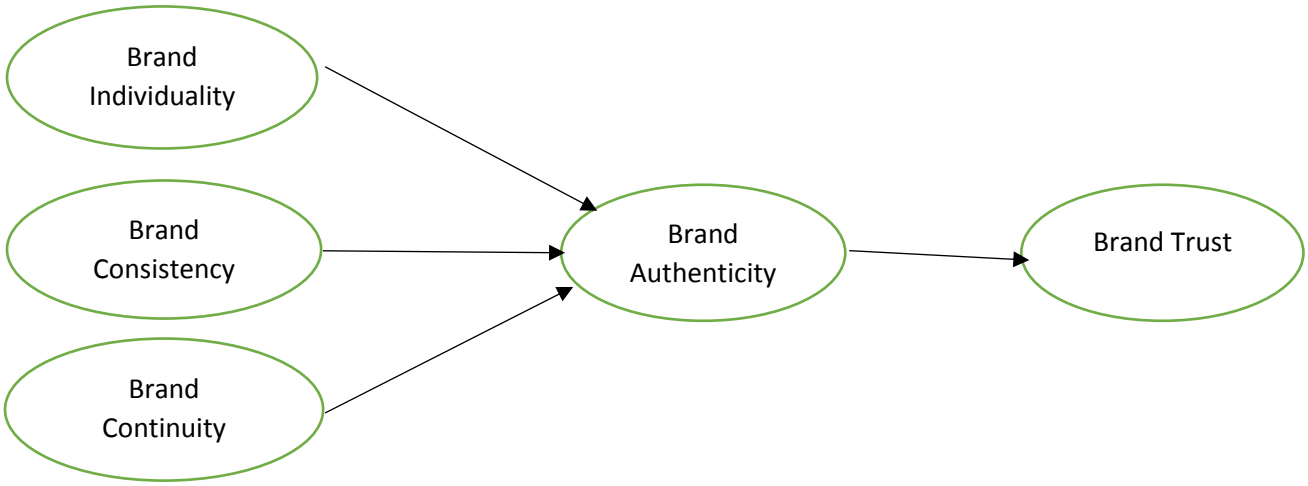
Figure 1. 1: The relationships among Brand Identity, Brand Image and Brand Preferences: Differences between Cyber and Extension Retail Brands over time



Source; Sääksjärvi & Samiee, (2011)

Second is the Schallehn, Burmann and Riley (2014) model which was used in the branding context and is related to the current study of political branding. Brand authenticity is the variable that this study adopted from the framework.

Figure 1. 2: Brand Authenticity; Model



Source; Schallehn et al., (2014)

1.10.1. Brand consistency

Brand consistency measures those attributes which are expressed by their reiterative current brand behaviour, thus, when a particular political party brand is perceived to have a high consistency then it must have fulfilled its promise at every single brand touch-point (Schallehn et al., 2014).

1.10.2. Brand Individuality

Brand individuality is the unique way in which a political party brand fulfils its promise to its people and, as such, shows the authenticity of the brand. In this theory, it can be seen that brand individuality is positively related to perceived brand authenticity (Schallehn et al., 2014).

1.10.3. Brand continuity

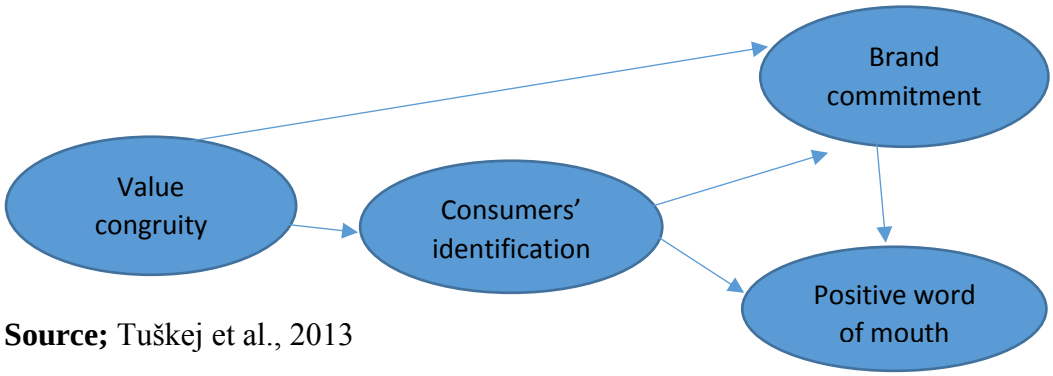
Brand 'Continuity' refers to core brand attributes remaining stable over a longer period. Therefore, consumers or voters of the specific party can judge the continuity of the brand to be high, if the present promises of the brand can still reflect the past brand behaviour (Schallehn et al., 2014).

1.10.4. Brand Trust

Brand trust is described as the belief that the political brand to which a consumer belongs, will fulfil or deliver its brand promise to its electorates. This trust relates to brand intentions which are very motivational in core, thereby voters believe that the political brand will act in the best interest of its people (Schallehn et al., 2014).

The third theoretical model is the consumers' identification with a brand by Tuskej et. al., (2013), and can be applied to politics. Positive word of mouth is the variable that this study has adopted from the theory, which can influence the intentions of the youth in voting during an election in South Africa. Below is a brief discussion of the variables included in the model. Hence, the connection between consumers' identification and brand commitment is positively related to positive word of mouth in the model.

Figure 1. 3: The role of consumer-brand identification in building brand relationship



Source; Tuškej et al., 2013

1.10.5. Value Congruity

The self-congruity theory describes value congruity as a psychological comparison that consumers have, or make, in esteem to the dissimilarity or similarity of their own set of values and entity's values (Johar & Sirgy, 1991). According to Hamilton and Xiaolan, (2005) self-congruity theory explains that a consumer identifies brand as being determined by the congruence.

1.10.6. Consumers' identification

Consumer identification with a brand helps consumers to emphasise their uniqueness and hence provides a sense of the past and enhances their identity, which plays an important role in consumers' lives (Tuškej et al., 2013). The act of perception of the brand by consumers encourages their identification with the brand (Tuškej et al., 2013).

1.10.7. Brand commitment

Ashforth, Harrison and Corely (2008) state that brand commitment represents a positive attitude towards a brand but differs from brand loyalty, as it involves the psychological or emotional attachment which reflects the degree that a specific brand is resolutely rooted as the only satisfactory choice within the political party or brand class. Consumer satisfaction with a brand choice is an indicator of brand commitment which involves attitudinal perspective (Tuškej et al., 2013).

1.11. Empirical review

The empirical and theoretical review of the study construct will follow in the next section. The five research constructs will be discussed as follows; Brand Identity, Positive word of mouth, Brand authenticity, Brand Image and Brand preference.

1.11.1. Brand Identity

The tenacity of brand identity is to institute a relationship between the consumer and the brand, which in turn translates into brand aspirations. Hence, organisations need to construct a unique positioning of the brand by communicating the brand's attributes and benefits to the customers (Sääksjärvi & Samiee, 2011). Several studies have illustrated that brand identity has a relationship towards brand image, thereby leading to brand preference (Tuškej, Golob & Podnar, 2013) (Kuenzel & Halliday, 2008). Brand identity is associated with some subcomponents, such as purpose of the brand, creating of brand awareness, differentiation of the brand from other competitors and what the offerings of the brand are to the respective consumers and their benefits (Sääksjärvi & Samiee, 2011).

Shankar, Azar and Fuller (2008) suggest that the perception that a consumer has about a brand contributes to the brand's comparative strength in the market in which it is competing and can, therefore, drive the value of the brand in the marketplace. Most consumers find brand identity as a part of life in the aspect of political commitment, thus finding it more attractive when the brand matches their own sense of responsibility or entails and shares who they are; in essence, that identities speak and express their sense of self more authentically and in a more powerful way (Tuškej et al., 2013).

1.11.2. Positive word of mouth (WOM)

Positive word of mouth communication has a substantial significance in marketing studies and WOM signifies and plays a critical role in shaping consumer behaviours and attitudes (Tuškej et al., 2013). According to Brown, Barry, Dacin & Gunst, (2005) the main philosophy behind WOM is that the product, services' or activities' information of a brand can be spread from one consumer to another. Recent research by East, Uncles, Romaniuk, Hand, (2014); Spinelli, 2012) on relationship marketing propose that WOM may be among the most imperative responses that can arise from efforts focused at the relationships with consumers of the brand. Hence in the case of a political party WOM plays a critical role that can change a party and make most voters leave a party for another party for a better future of promises being rendered by the members of the party or within the public (individuals, voters) (Tuškej et al., 2013).

Therefore, previous studies suggest that brand identity has a positive impact on producing positive word of mouth, thus the variables for the study are compatible, hence, leading to the promotion of brand image, thereby leading to brand preference (Tuškej, Golob & Podnar, 2013) (Kuenzel & Halliday, 2008). Algesheimer, Dholakia &Herrmann (2005) suggest that consumers tend to promote a brand to other consumers, make supportive and positive recommendations about the brand through positive WOM and, therefore, could fulfil customers' expectations and results in brand image. According to Tuškej et al., (2013) when consumers perceive a brand as the only acceptable choice due to emotional attachment that they have with the brand, they might participate in WOM from the benefit of comfort that they believe it will give them and the reassurance of the brand.

1.11.3. Brand Authenticity

According to Kelley's attribution theory, perceived brand authenticity depends on the perception of its antecedents, such as its consistency, individuality and continuity, thus, when describing what brand authenticity is all about, one must have in mind the attributes of the brand (Schallehn, Burmann & Riley 2014). According to Schallehn et al., (2014) in the process of formulating the positioning of a brand, there have to be considerations on the basis of the consumers' needs and expectations. Integration of market orientation into this variable shows that political parties need to risk the communication of their brand attributes they have presently and the future aspect of provision for their people as a nation, which can improve the identity-base brand of the party (De Chernatony, McDonald & Wallace, 2011). Therefore, brand authenticity is the reflection of brand attributes, brand continuity, brand individuality and brand behaviour in continuous state and consistency, thereby consumers have a belief that the brand possesses the competence to fulfil its brand promise and can trigger brand preference (Schallehn et al., 2014).

1.11.4. Brand Image

The brand image of individual politicians influences the corporate brand of the political climate and the political party, though there is still some element of control over their personal brand image through how they service their electorate (Phipps et al., 2010). Representing and

advocating for the views of their electoral community and being seen at community functions and other representational tasks, has been the typical way of communicating and showing involvement and promoting their brand image (Phipps et al., 2010). According to Sääksjärvi and Samiee, (2011) brand image is the image of the party in politics and it has a larger tendency in demonstrating a stronger relationship with the voters or members. Within the political view, creating a political brand image and maintaining it, requires more investment from the parties involved than from the voters. Brand image is described as the perception a consumer has concerning a brand.

There are subcomponents in brand image such as brand character, credibility, a consumer's overall attitude towards the brand and the feelings that the consumer has for the brand (Sääksjärvi and Samiee, 2011). In the model for this study, brand image serves as the mediator between brand continuity, brand identity, word of mouth and brand preference.

1.11.5. Brand preference

Brand preference is more like a combination of brand identity and brand image, hence for any political party to have a competitive advantage over their rivals, there should be a concise state of sensitivity to the amount of information available about the political party, which can potentially trigger changes in consumer preferences over time (Sääksjärvi & Samiee, 2011). Thus, it can be said that the ANC have been living as such for a long period of time, due to the foundation of the political party but not presenting a new way forward in maintaining the party. Hence, the EFF has capitalised on that, in creating what the people want and taking advantage in establishing information-giving to the citizens of the country.

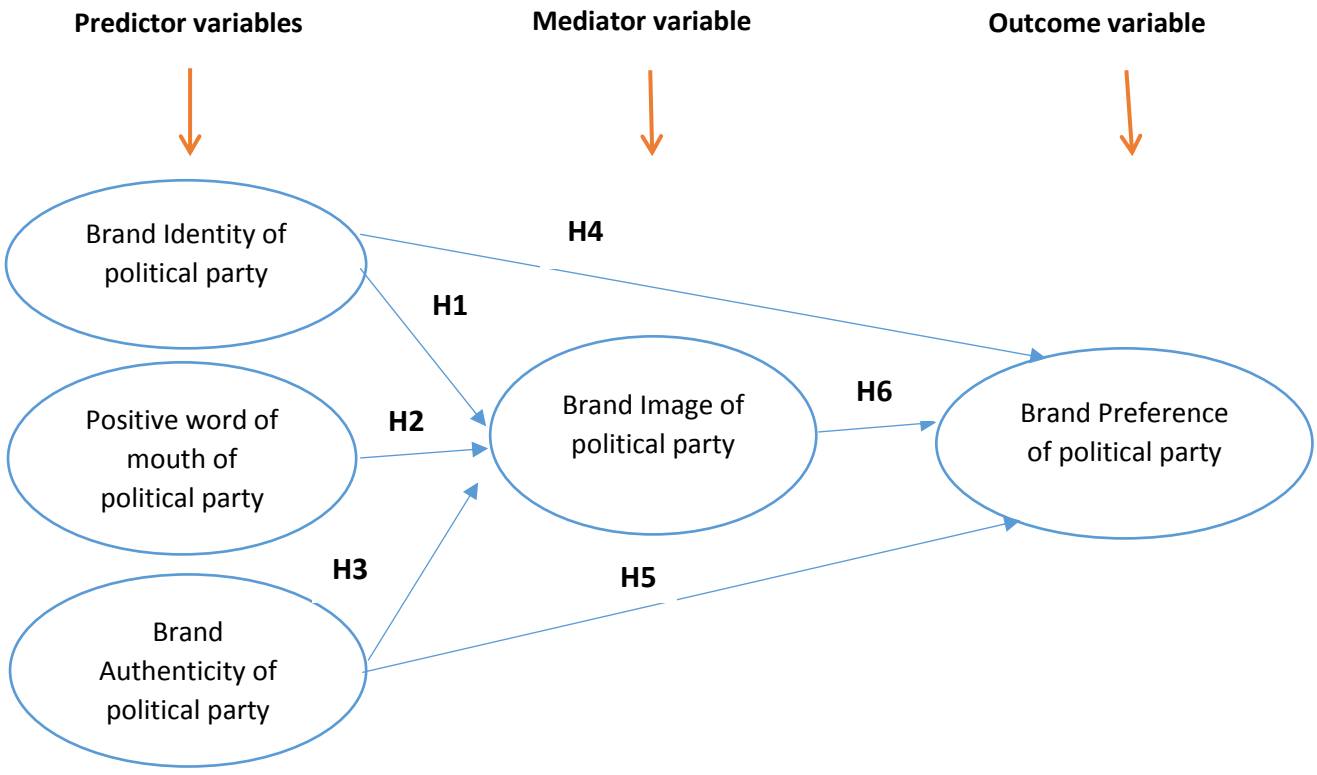
The ability of the people or voters experiencing and having the brand knowledge of the political party that they represent, gives them a more positive direction on the continuation of the brand preference. Therefore, there is a positive impact of voters' (repurchase) intentions on voting (Ebrahim, 2012). Voters seek brands that intrigue them in a sensorial, creative and emotional way which requires building of competitive advantage by delivering memorable experiences which influence consumers consisting of' (voters) preferences towards the brand (Ebrahim, 2012).

1.12. Research conceptual model

The conceptual model illustrated in Figure 1.4 was built from a combination of three models presented in the previous studies by Schallehn, Burmann & Riley, (2014), (Tuškej, Golob & Podnar, 2013) and Saaksjarvi & Samiee, (2011). It highlights the effect of Brand marketing, Market orientation, and Market concept on political marketing which enhance brand preference of political parties.

In the conceptualised research model, Brand Identity, Positive word of mouth and brand continuity will be the predictors; Brand Image will be the mediator and Brand Preference will be the outcome, whereas the theories behind the process are Market orientation, Branding and Marketing concept.

Figure 1. 4: Proposed conceptual model



Source: Compiled by Researcher (2016)

1.12.1. Hypotheses Statements

As illustrated above in the conceptualised model, the following hypotheses are proposed:

$H1_0$: There is no relationship between *brand identity and brand image* of political party

$H1_a$: There is a positive relationship between *brand identity and brand image* of political party

$H2_0$: There is no relationship between *positive word of mouth* and *brand image* of political party.

$H2_a$: There is a positive relationship between *positive word of mouth* and *brand image* of political party.

$H3_0$: There is no relationship between *brand authenticity* and *brand image* of political party

$H3_a$: There is a positive relationship between *brand authenticity* and *brand image* of political party.

$H4_0$: There is no relationship between *brand identity* and *brand preference* of political party

$H4_a$: There is a positive relationship between *brand identity* and *brand preference* of political party

$H5_0$: There is no relationship between *brand authenticity* and *brand preference* of political party

$H5_a$: There is a positive relationship between *brand authenticity* and *brand preference* of political party

$H6_0$: There is no relationship between *brand image* and *brand preference* of political party

$H6_a$: There is a positive relationship between *brand image* and *brand preference* of political party

1.13. Research Design & Methodology

The current study is positioned in the positivist research approach and applies a deductive method to test the proposed hypotheses. Research methodology refers to a structure designed

for assortment and collection of information appropriate for responding to the required enquiries and objectives for the exploration (O'Leary, 2014). Creswell, (2009) contends that explanatory methodology is focused on understanding phenomenon from the perspective of a person, scrutinising communication among persons, as well as the traditional and historical settings which society occupies (Creswell, 2009). Petty, Thomson, & Stew, (2012) defined research methodology as the procedure for analysing data that has been collected to produce new knowledge.

1.13.1. Research Philosophy

Research philosophy can be referred to as the way in which an investigator or researcher thinks about the development of information and knowledge (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Guba & Lincoln, (1994) argue that Research philosophy is divided into four groups, namely: positivism, post-positivism, constructivism and critical theory.

Ashby, (1964) argues that positivist paradigm is systematically based on the understanding viewpoint, which embraced high values of objectivity and endeavoured to formulate approaches which yielded general outcomes.

The research will be based on a quantitative research method because of the measurement instrument that is being used in the research, which is the questionnaire approach.

1.14. Research Design

Research design is the approach that is used in planning and implementation of the research project to make and gather a comprehensive decision in assumption for the process of data collections and analysis (Creswell 2009).

1.14.1. Quantitative Research Approach

According to Malhotra & Birks (2007) quantitative research is a research methodology which pursues to enumerate the data numerically and frequently applies some form of statistical analysis to reach a conclusion from the study.

The purpose of quantitative research is to produce rules built on the findings of the research which can be comprehensive and applied practically to others. This method is used to analyse the statistical data that can be changed into functional statistics, using the empirical models to explain all the variables and the research (Zikmund & Babin, 2010). Zikmund & Babin (2010)

argue that most of the time the main procedure of quantifying attitudes of a large population and behaviours is through the quantitative research approach. Thus, a survey or quantitative method is the appropriate research design to use in this research to enhance and enable collection of data in a very short period of time. It is also the quickest form; effective, efficient, less costly and an accurate method and process (Zikmund & Babin, 2010).

The research methodology gives answers as to how the research problem can be considered. Broadly, the research methods can be classified into two types: qualitative and quantitative (Ebrahim, 2013). The following table demonstrates clearly the difference between both qualitative and quantitative methods.

Table 1.1: Differences between the quantitative and qualitative methods

Point of Comparison	Quantitative	Qualitative
Nature of reality	Objective, independent of social actors	Subjective, socially constructed
Approach	Deductive: testing of theory	Inductive: building theory
Research design	Exploratory	Descriptive
Research strategies	Experimental and survey research (structured interviews)	Unstructured or semi-structured interviews, case study, ethnography, grounded theory and narrative research
Types of Data	Quantitative; numeric	Qualitative; non-numeric
Sample size	Large sample size in order to generalise conclusions	Small sample size with less concern about generalisation

Source: (Ebrahim, 2013)

1.14.2. Sampling design

Zikmund and Babin, (2010, p. 98) described sample as a "subset of a larger population from which population features are assessed" hence, sampling is described as the method of examining a selected group or individuals from a known population of concern. Galpin, (2015)

refers to sampling as the most efficient way of collecting from a smaller group and finalising the generalised population.

1.14.3. Target population

The target population is essential to identify because it will help in the process of formulation, gathering and testing of the data. The respondents are the students at the University of the Witwatersrand.

Table 1.2: Profile of WITS Students

Total student enrolments	36,000
Postgraduate students	31%
International students	10%
Male students	69%
Female students	31%

Source: (University of the Witwatersrand, 2014)

1.14.4. Sampling frame

Galpin (2015) defines sample frame as the part of participants of the population, which is a complete list in which individual unit of analysis is stated. Bryman (2012) states that a sampling frame signifies a list of all components in the population from which the sample will be drawn. A convenient sample of 380 students from the age of 18 years upwards will be used to collect the data for the study, hence, to have a practical view of what their brand identity, brand authenticity, word of mouth and brand image towards the political parties of South Africa is on the day to day activities of the members of cabinet and what the brand of the parties represents.

1.14.5. Sample size

According to Cant, Gerber-Nel, & Kotze,(2005) sample size involves a significant deliberation in the research on the degree to which generality can be done. Sample size is needed to be descriptive of the actual population, so as not to have a limitation in the generalisation of the outcomes, since smaller sample size can give inaccurate results of the research. Therefore, the

tenacity of this research is the proposed sample size which will be obtained from 380 respondents. This was calculated with an instrument called Raosoft sample size calculator. Using the confidence level of 95%, and the margin error at 5%, the response distribution of about 50% and the population size at 36000 students, the sample size is 380.

1.14.6. Sampling method

In sampling method, it is the process of sampling the population in a way that will determine the probability of which respondents will be excluded or included in a research (Zikmund & Babin, 2010). There are some techniques involved in selection of actual units, such as judgement sampling, simple random sampling, convenience sampling, quota sampling and so on (Bryman, 2012). Therefore, this research used the technique which is the convenience sampling technique (DeLeeuw, Hox, & Dillman, 2007). The technique was found the most suitable as it chooses respondents that will be most conveniently available, it is cost effective, less time consuming and easy to administer and apply (DeLeeuw, Hox, & Dillman, 2007).

1.15. Measurement Instrument (Questionnaire Design)

The instrument was designed through a process of drawing from literature, in relation to the constructs being tested. Existing scales were adapted for the purpose of this study. The questionnaires were distributed to the participants.

1.15.1. Primary data

In this study, the primary data collection instrument used is the research questionnaire and it will be self-administered by the researcher to gather information and responses from the research participants at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, South Africa. According to Malhotra & Birks (2007) Primary data is that data which is collected by the researcher specifically for addressing the research problem at hand. Questionnaires can be in the form of quantitative or qualitative questions, where the qualitative will be open-ended questions, which will require the respondents to write what they feel and how they see the day to day activities of their elected political representatives. Quantitative form is where questions will be more structured in nature (Vanparia & Patel, 2013).

The questionnaire consists of two parts, A and B. Section A required participants to evaluate their background information and the brand of their political party. Section B dealt with questions relating to participant profile, which were measured on a 7-point Likert scale, following the steps 1= "strongly disagree" and 7= "strongly agree". The perception questions, comprises brand identity, positive word of mouth, brand authenticity, brand image and brand preference (Sääksjärvi and Samiee, 2011). The research scales were adopted from previous works and some reformations were done to adapt the items closer to the scope of this study. Brand identity, Brand Image and Brand preference were all adopted and measured in 7-point Likert–type scales, ranging from 1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree by Sääksjärvi and Samiee, (2011).

Positive word of mouth was adopted from two studies, and measured on a 7-point Likert–type scales ranging from 1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree by Morhart, Malar, Guevremont, Girardin & Grohmann, (2015) and (Tuškej et al., 2013). Brand Authenticity was adopted, measured with 7 point Likert-scale (Schallehn et al., 2014). All measurement items are adopted, modified and measured on a 7-Point Likert-scale. Individual scale items are provided in the Appendix.

1.15.2. Secondary Data

Data that has been previously collected is called secondary data for the purpose of other study, other than the current research problem at hand (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). Secondary data can be gathered more speedily and at a minimal cost than the collection of primary data. Through the period of this exploration study, the researcher collected data from several secondary study sources. The mainstream of the secondary research was collected by the researcher from academic textbooks and journals.

1.16. Data analysis and Empirical results

Zikmund, (2011) states that an application of reasoning to understand data that has been collected and summarising the applicable details revealed in the study, is known as data analysis. Zikmund (2010) identified three stages of quantitative data analysis from survey questionnaires which are; **Editing, coding and statistical analysis.** All these processes will be implemented to achieve a comprehensive attribute of each variable, which will be included in

the breakdown of the mean and standard deviation of each variable. The researcher will use the software Statistical Packages for the Social Science (SPSS) version 23.0 and Analysis of Moment Structure (AMOS) software.

Procedure

The step by step procedures for analysing the data will be as follows;

- Code data on Excel
- Import data onto SPSS
- Descriptive statistics analysis
- Confirmatory factor analysis
- Path modelling

The crucial part of a study is the data analysis, without which research will not be meaningful and have no edge; therefore, the interpretation and analysis of the data is the most essential dimension of the research. So, the significance of the research is the ability of the researcher to recognise at the early stages of the study how to analyse the data that will be gathered.
According to Bryman (2004) selected data analysis techniques have to be properly matched to the types of variables that are generated during the research.

1.17. Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics involve the simple process of summarising the extents and sample of the data. The method that will be used by the investigator after the data has been gathered and captured in the spread sheet in analysing the descriptive statistics, is the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) to observe the profile of the respondents and data descriptive interpretations. This can take the form of charts, tables or pie charts to describe the main constituent of the research, for instance the demographic data.

1.17.1. Reliability and Validity of the Measurement Scales

Zikmund (2011) states that reliability consists of how exact a measure is when many attempts have been done to test the same concept, which is a key indicator for assessing internal consistency. Reliability and validity guarantee that the questionnaire is valid and logical. Consequently, running a test of reliability or the internal consistency of the scales will be measured through using the statistical **Cronbach's alpha (α)** and using the shared variance extracted (discriminate validity) with Average Variance Extracted (AVE) to confirm validity.

Galpin (2015) refers to validity and reliability as the important aspects to ensure the accuracy of the questionnaire, and further explains that 'validity' is the degree to which it measures what it is hypothetical to measure and 'reliability', or the consistency of the test, as the responses from respondents to find out if it will always be the same responses each time, even under slightly different circumstances (Galpin, 2015). The researcher will process the Cronbach value through (SPSS) 23.0 and AMOS software 23.0 in confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and using Structural Equation Model (SEM) (Vanparia & Patel, 2013).

1.18. Structural Equation Modelling Approach (SEM)

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) has advanced to be one of the best statistical techniques that researchers use across disciplines (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008). Some components, for instance simultaneous equation modelling, factor analysis and regression analysis, which are multivariate models, are combined by (SEM). The key goals of SEM are to recognise the patterns of correlations among a set of variables, and to clarify their variances with the stated model. SEM procedures can integrate both observed and unobserved variables, hence SEM does not take an exploratory approach rather it takes a confirmatory approach to the data analysis.

Thus, SEM will be used to recognise, test and assess the relationship between all the variables (causal) as anticipated or identified by the hypothesis (Byrne, 2012). From the conceptual model, it will be used to determine the relationship between the independent variables, brand identity, positive word of mouth, brand authenticity and brand image and dependent variable brand preference, describing how the variables relate to one another. SEM will be used to check for validity and reliability and analyse the Analysis of Moment Structure (AMOS), model fit (goodness of fit) before path modelling (hypothesis testing) is conducted. This research will

use Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) to determine validity, reliability of the data. The path modelling will be conducted to assess goodness of fit and to test hypotheses.

1.19. Ethical Consideration

Ethical consideration is very important to be addressed in every area of exploration study, be it qualitative or quantitative (scientific) as most research entails obtaining information through relations with human subjects (Creswell, 2009). For this reason, this research will implement the following guidelines to guarantee the privacy and protect the potential respondents and rights to information.

- The respondents were asked for their consent to participate and were not forced to do so.
- The respondents were informed about the aims of the research to enable sincerity and trust and open mind in terms of completion of questionnaires
- The participants were informed that there is the right to withdraw from the process at any given stage without any prejudice.
- The assurance of participants' anonymity and confidentiality was given to protect their identity, such as not stating their real names.
- Assurance that the information obtained from the research questionnaire will be protected and only the researcher and supervisor will have access to it and will not be exposed.
- The ethical clearance needed to be obtained by the researcher before carrying out the research, therefore in this research it will be obtained from the University of the Witwatersrand Ethics Committee, so that there will be a totality of compliance to the ethics consideration. If there is any form of misrepresentation, misuse of the data, breaking of privacy from the researcher, then the committee will hold the researcher responsible and actions can be taken.

1.20. Outline of the study

Chapter 1: Overview of the study

Chapter 1 will provide the background of the research, introduction, problem statement, and purpose of the study, research objective and questions, justification of the study, scope of the research, limitations of the study, ethical considerations and the definition of key terms.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter will explore the research context

Chapter 3: Empirical Literature and theoretical groundings

This chapter will examine the empirical literature in the study

Chapter 4: Conceptual Model, Hypotheses Development

This chapter will look at the conceptual model and the hypotheses.

Chapter 5: Research Methodology

This chapter will provide and describe the research methodology used for data collection. It will involve research design and sampling and how it will be applied.

Chapter 6: Data Analysis and Discussion of Results

In this chapter, the data obtained will be analysed as well as the interpretation and discussion of results in a statistical format.

Chapter 7: Conclusion and Recommendation and Future Research

This chapter will explore the findings from the results in Chapter 6 and a conclusion will be drawn; implications, limitations and recommendations will be made to research problems, and suggestions will be made regarding future research.

CHAPTER 2: RESEARCH CONTEXT

2.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses the research context by providing background into the South African political system and political branding. This is followed by an overview of the South African youth political situation and, lastly, models or theories of voting behaviours and the conclusion. In the following section the context of the study is discussed, Firstly, an overview of the South African political system is discussed, followed by the political branding and lastly, voting behaviour models and how it relates to the South African political system.

2.1.2. Political system of South Africa

South Africa as a nation has a vibrant multiparty political system, which includes 13 parties represented in the National Assembly of Parliament. The African National Congress (ANC) with the most national assembly seats of 249 of the 400, followed by the Democratic Alliance (DA) with 89 seats and the Economic Freedom Fighters with 25 seats in the National assembly. As mentioned above, the EFF contested their first election in 2014. These are the top three political parties in parliament, hence, have been identified to be used in this study (South Africa.info, 2016). The political landscape of South Africa is shifting virtually by the hour with an indication of gloves-off in a power struggle that pits the current president, Jacob Zuma in contest with other political parties, such as of structural economic constraints, which limits the growth needed to reduce inequality and poverty (Businesstech, 2016).

The concept of branding is not new to political campaigning or elections and thus has appeared to be pursued as a deliberate strategy by political actors (Adolphsen, 2009). Branding assists party leaders and politicians in supporting their communication activities to a secure set of emotions and messages (the brand) and presents a certain level of standardisation and discipline in the organisation of their external presentation – an asset that can be valuable in more muddled times of election campaigning in motivating the youth in their intentions of voting (Adolphsen, 2009). According to Scammell, (2007) a brand does not constitute what a product *is* but what consumers *perceive it* to be, therefore, it can be said that it is rooted in the minds

of the people. Hence, branding refers to any organisation's activities designed at the creation and development of a distinct brand image in consumers' minds (Adolphsen, 2009).

Needham (2005) states that due to the interactive and engaging communication style involved in branding, it shows a potential for building a connection to voters especially youths who have turned their backs on politics and then re-politicises voters. Furthermore, branding might initiate the substance out of politics and replace it with style and glitz to get the intended target such as the youth; traditional marketing can be said to make voters and young voters fed up with politics (Adolphsen, 2009). Also for a more comprehensive definition and credibility, branding makes political awareness and communication more responsive to the public view (Needham, 2005). Branding is being used in all sorts of contexts, such as in the banking industry it has become increasingly important as a differentiator, while politics is an immense business, for example, in countries like Australia, UK and USA there are few substantive differences in the product offering of the major parties, but in others, such issues as attitudes to the war in Iraq, provide real differences to base a brand on (Jevons, 2005).

2.2. Political Branding

Marland (2013) argues that political branding is not all about the logo or name of the party but the public image of the parties and the politicians. Political actors are treated as brands also due to commercial marketing techniques becoming more pervasive; hence, there is a tendency of politicians, image handlers and media drawing audience attention to select information (Marland, 2013). The purpose is to build customer loyalty through providing marketing efficiencies, thus, managing the credibility and public image of a brand is somewhat difficult.
According to Marland, (2013) *party brand* encompasses the party logo, colour schemes, names and the party history of leaders and policies and a *candidate brand* is the public image of the politician which formed from the sum of all communications on a member of the citizen audience.
For instance, the name Economic Freedom Fighters (EFF) and use of a red colour dress code is very easy for electors to associate with the political party without significant marketing and distinctive logo (News24, 2016). It could possibly, if viewed together with the name, assist in clarifying any incorrect interpretations. Whether or not a raised fist clenching an imposing, forward-pointing spear could be seen as representative of a nation's resolve to live in peace and harmony, may depend on which side of the spear one finds oneself (News24, 2016).

According to Zavattaro (2010) academics have examined the nature of the Barack Obama brand, which has been considered to be a commodified entity that is marketed in place of policy. For instance, of the Mexican presidential candidates, whom voters desired when a political brand image projected energy, handsomeness, empathy and capability (Guzmán and Sierra 2009). Political branding is the tactical use of consumer branding strategies in the building of political image, thus it denotes to the schemes politicians use to advance or gain election and popularity. Therefore, it is not just the use of traditional advertising, but is all-encompassing image identity campaigning and marketing (Sonies, 2011). To be successful, brands need a certain "charisma" about them, like a political candidate, through which a consumer has a relationship with them (Pich, Dean, & Punjaisri, 2016). In politics, the steadiness of the political party's product offering is important to electoral achievement, which Smith and French (2009) scrutinised political branding from a consumer perspective.

2.3. Overview of South African Youth Political Situation

Although there is a general assumption in scholarly literature that the youth are apathetic towards political activities, one would nevertheless expect this assumption to be falsified in the case of youth in newly democratising societies such as South Africa, mainly because the youth tend to play a significant role in the democratisation process (Ntsabane & Natu 2006:19; Sachs 2006; Mokwena 2002:68). The key assumptions of each of the models of voting behaviour and age effects on voting behaviour was used to draw up a framework for analysis. This can be summarised in the overall voting behaviour of youths in the South African context using different types of voting behaviour models or theories. Catt, (1996) explores the possibility of the existence of a voting behaviour orthodoxy, which describes the commonly accepted belief or view with regards to voting behaviour.

Foremost, exploring the different aspects to the learning of voting behaviour, shadowed by identifying the similarities between these methods or approaches. Hence, the way in which problems are being perceived and the method in which the problem is being answered is known as voting behaviour orthodoxy (Catt, 1996). Voting behaviour orthodoxy can be referred to "as a sign of political preference of one party over another or others; in essence political brand preference by a voter" (Oversloot, Van Holsteyn, & Van der Berg, 2002).

Ntsabane and Natu (2006) describes the political behaviour of the youth in Botswana and emphasises imperative reasons as to why the voting behaviour of the youth is important in establishing the uniqueness of brand preference. The United Nations in the year 2000, noted that 40 percent of the adult population in more than 100 countries (of which many are in Africa) was 15 to 29 years old (Ntsabane & Natu 2006). Therefore, the fact that the youth includes such a prominent proportion of the people (electorates) makes this field of study all the more important to marketing in modern society. Sader and Muller (2004) states that the youth become less motivated to participate in elections as the democracy 'grows older'. This observation was based on informal interviews that were conducted with 20 young South Africans in Cape Town and Gauteng. Sader and Muller (2004) determined that the South African youth may be divided into three groups; first group regard voting as meaningless; the second group find it to be the solitary way to express political views and the third group valued voting, for it is a form of freedom and process in which their voices could be heard and would make a difference in society at large.

Nevertheless, it was conveyed by Sader & Muller, (2004) that there has been an increasing disengagement from the electoral process by the South African youth which has been somewhat disturbing as they have never been known for apathy and played a noteworthy role in the fight for democracy (Sader & Muller, 2004).

2.4. Models or Theories of Voting Behaviour

The different models of voting behaviour identified in this study comprise the Sociological Model, the Michigan Model, the Rational Choice Model, the Party Identification Model and the Media Model.

In relation to Sociological Model voting behaviour and its challenges, Abramowitz & Saunders (2006) and Brooks et al, (2006) indicate that the model is still considered to be very relevant to voting behaviour and can be linked to other models of voting behaviour. Catt, (1996) refers to the Sociological Model as a social determinant of youths or voters rather than their attitudes, which is being described as the social characteristics that uphold and determine one's voting brand preference towards a political party.

Furthermore, the Sociological Model considers the social characteristics as the demographics such as age, gender, language, race, social class and religion. Therefore, it can be said that group membership of others can be classified within this model; for example, the youth

(Erdmann, 2007; Brooks et al, 2006; Schoeman & Puttergill, 2007). Therefore, brand identification and brand authentication of the political party can be related to the voter's voting sociological behaviour in essence to the social class that the voter represents or wants to be identified with (Wiese, 2011). Wiese (2011) states that the Michigan Model was developed at the University of Michigan, thus, focuses on social location factor and long-term patterns of partisanship of who and which political party voters vote for, interact with and will prefer to support (Catt 1996). The Michigan model puts an emphasis on partisan self-image which can be related to the brand image of the party, in essence that a voter will want to associate with a political brand that can speak for his or her image. Furthermore, the partisan image can be inherited which can lead a voter to vote for the candidate or party one's friend or family vote for, hence, incorporating early socialisation which ultimately shapes political behaviour and information processing, thereby leading to citizens' (youths') political participation stability (Darmofal & Nardulli 2010).

This can be identified with the word of mouth, which can be negative or positive as the case may be, within the family circle and might comprise of debate or circular communication. The partisanships are very powerful influences on political perception, which can be seen with the South African political party the African National Congress (ANC) in the fight against Apartheid, with parents being the most influential part of the political party preference (Wolak 2009). Comparable to the Sociological Model, the Michigan Model can also be linked to other models of voting behaviour (Darmofal & Nardulli 2010).

According to Catt, (1996) the Rational Choice Model regards voters as people who base their decisions of whether or not to vote, and who to vote for, on the findings developed after cautious evaluation of various issues of significance. In other words, Ball & Peters (2005:173) and Karp & Banducci (2007) are of the opinion that the electorate base their decisions on who to vote for on rational contemplation, which is based on individual self-interest. Electoral contribution thus becomes 'efficacies for outcomes' when the extent to which one result is preferred over another result which matters to citizens, and voters choose outcomes with higher utility over outcome with lower (Karp & Banducci 2007).

Furthermore, through retrospective evaluations, according to this model, voters consider the costs of voting as well as the benefits they will get from the political party that they have voted for (Goldfarb & Sigelman 2010) and may eventually also decide to totally refrain from voting, hence, may not be to the benefit of the opposition parties (Goldfarb & Sigelman 2010). This model does not consider the cultural and social environment of voters, which often becomes

difficult to access voting decisions or behaviour based on this model (Lister 2007). Schoeman & Puttergill, (2007) argue that Rational choice theory suggests that elections are first and foremost issue-based, an assumption evidently adopted by South African elites as evidenced in, for example, the ANC's 'Project Consolidate', launched in 2005, and the heavy stress placed on service delivery in the election manifestos of all parties that participated in the elections.

The party identification model, suggests that voting behaviour is based on loyalty to a specific political party, that is, the devotion or sense of identification that a voter has for the political party. The assumption is that individuals vote for the party they have a sense of closeness to and such party identification is part of an individual's early socialisation (Schoeman & Puttergill, 2007; Kovenock & Robertson, 2008). In Southern Africa, the party identification model seems to continue to be strong, as evidenced by the continuing strength of liberation movements turned political parties in Namibia, South Africa and Zimbabwe, and the struggle of opposition or new parties in engagement of voters away from the ANC, the South West African People's Organisation (SWAPO) and the Zimbabwe African National Union-Patriotic Front (Zanu-PF). Party identification model is reflected as a very constant political determinant and predisposition of voting behaviour of voters (Schoeman & Puttergill, 2007).

Kovenock & Robertson, (2008) state that identification may be the strongest determinant of votes in South Africa where people vote mainly for political parties they best identify with, notwithstanding failures in government service delivery and promises for a better society, this might not be the actual state of politics in South Africa.

The Media Model plays a significant role when it comes to voting behaviour of the citizens, in particular the youth, in forming opinions and the way they see the parties and their capabilities, what they represent and their manifestos (promise) and their day to day activities, hence, be concerned as a determining factor regarding voting behaviour (Ball & Peters, 2005).

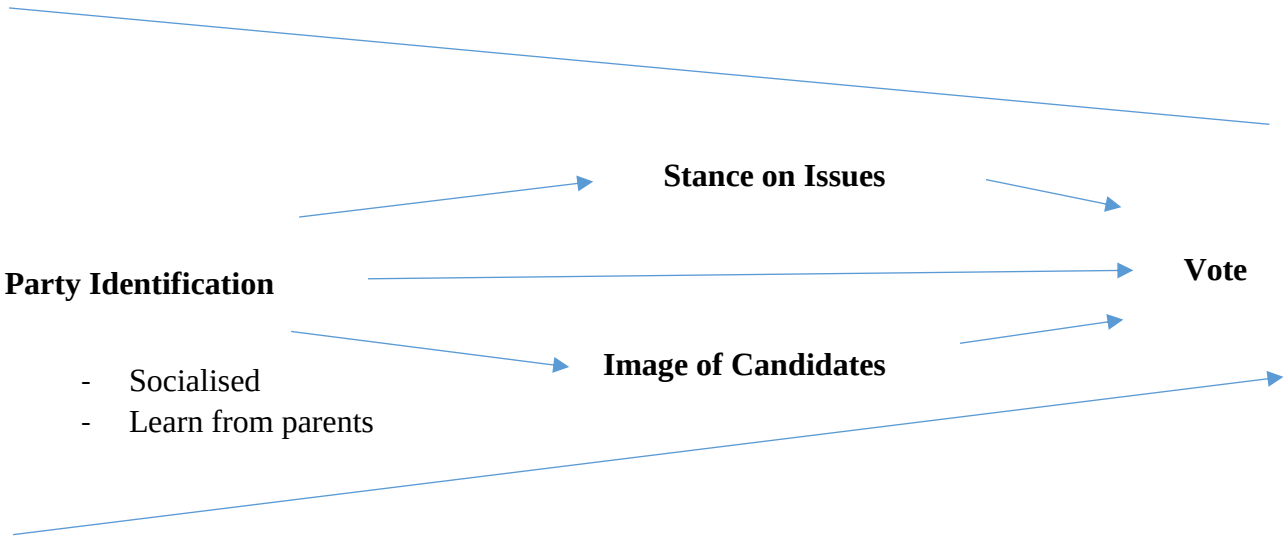
Ball & Peters, (2005) suggests that the role of the mass media, particularly that of television, is a factor of increasing importance in the influence of election results. Radio and television are considered to be more unbiased, though this assumption is also arguable, especially in terms of ownership or possession - private or public. Schoeman & Puttergill, (2007) state that in liberal Western democracies there seems to be a growing trend for young adults to favour the Internet as a source of information on political issues.

Furthermore, texts and images in the mass media are frequently used to influence the view of the public (voters) on political parties and their leaders (Grabe, 2009) and to inform youths during elections. Although as pointed out by Schoeman & Puttergill, (2007) the media can

create news that can increase and influence voting behaviour of voters in recognising the political brand and, hence, is being classified as a medium for political information to target audiences and has the ability to motivate prospective voters. Ladd (2010) notes that voters who are more exposed to the media are also more likely to change their political views during campaigns, while uninformed voters will be less likely to vote, therefore, with the youth it is paramount for parties to recognise this aspect of branding and know how to manage it, in reflection of the way the youth will see the political party brand which will create the image and the brand preference of the associated voter (Ladd, 2010; DellaVigna & Kaplan 2007).

To illustrate the models of voting behaviour that have been examined above and the links among them, one can denote to a diagram called the Funnel of Causality used by Wolf (2010) that was derived from The American Voter (Campbell et., al, 1960).
This diagram illustrates the voting process as starting from party identification (which stems from early socialisation and inherited from parental), continuing to certain stances on issues and depicted images of candidates which lead to voting political brand preference.

Figure 2. 1 The Funnel of Causality: The Direct & Indirect Influence of Party Identification on an Individual's Vote Choice



Campbell, A. Converse, P. Miller, W. Stokes, D. (1960)

2.5. Demographic context of the research

2.5.1. Geographical

The City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality is located in the Gauteng province. Johannesburg is the most advanced commercial city in Africa and the engine room of the South African and regional economy. It is a city with a unique, African character, world-class infrastructure in the fields of telecommunications, transportation, water and power, and with globally-competitive health care and educational facilities. The demographics of Johannesburg indicate a large and ethnically diverse metropolitan area. As the largest city in South Africa, its population is defined by a long history of local and international migration. Johannesburg is home to more than 4,4 million people, accounting for about 36% of Gauteng's population and 8 percent of the national population (City-of-Johannesburg-Metropolitan-Municipality, 2016). A key contributor to this is that the city continues to attract people from other provinces, and internationally, who are looking for better economic opportunities and quality of life. The population pyramid indicates that the city's population is predominantly young. This can be attributed to migration from other parts of the country as young people look for jobs (City-of-Johannesburg-Metropolitan-Municipality, 2016).

2.5.2. Demographics of the City of Johannesburg

Table 2. 1: Demographical city of Johannesburg

Population	4 434 827
Age Structure	
Population under 15	23.20%
Population 15 to 64	72.70%
Population over 65	4.10%
Dependency Ratio	
Per 100 (15-64)	37.60
Sex Ratio	
Males per 100 females	100.70
Population Growth	
Per annum	3.18%
Labour Market	
Unemployment rate (official)	25.00%

Youth unemployment rate (official) 15-34	31.50%
Education (aged 20 +)	
No schooling	2.90%
Higher education	19.20%
Matric	34.70%

Source: Census 2011 Municipal Fact Sheet, published by Statistics South Africa.

2.5.3. Voter Registration among youth in Gauteng

Wiese (2011) states that registration among young people has shown a rapid population growth in South Africa which has transformed the age distribution of the eligible electorate in recent elections. As generational voters enter the electorate in bigger proportions, turnout levels can be expected to fall. The Institute of Security Studies, (2016) show that young voters are inclined to lower turnout rates. South Africa's 2013 population estimates indicate there are 10,9 million eligible voters between 18 and 29 years, comprising 34% of the voting age population (Collette Schulz-Herzenberg, 2014). Yet, only 6, 4 million are registered, accounting for a fifth of all eligible voters or a quarter of registered voters.

According to the voter participation in the South African elections of 2014, the Institute of Security Studies discusses that among the youngest age group of between 18 and 19 years, only 33% of eligible voters are registered. Moreover, registration levels among 18 to 29-year-olds are noticeably lower at 59% than those of the older age groups. So, at the time of the election, many eligible young voters between 18 and 29 years remained unregistered, which inevitably decreased overall levels of registration and turnout among the eligible voter population (Institute of Security Studies, 2016).

Figure 2.2 The Map of City of Johannesburg



Source: City-of-Johannesburg-Metropolitan-Municipality map (2016)

2.6. Gauteng as a political province

Gauteng has continued to grow as a vibrant and diverse global city region with sustained improvements in key areas that directly affect the lives of our people – basic services, education, health, transport, housing, social development, safety, infrastructure and access to economic opportunities (Gauteng online, 2016). Nomvula Mokonyane the Premier of Gauteng discusses that there has been a dramatic improvement in the universal access to services which has now been underpinned by improvements in the quality of services at the Gauteng provincial government review of 20 years of democracy 1994 - 2014 (Gauteng online, 2016). These achievements have been possible due to the conscious building of a people-centred, developmental system of government in the Gauteng province.

As a creation of our democratic constitution, Gauteng started virtually from scratch in building a democratic and accountable system of government in the province. Gauteng Provincial Government (GPG) as it is known today, did not exist in 1994 (Gauteng online, 2016). Gauteng has been governed by the African National Congress (ANC) since 1994. The provincial

government's priorities and five-year strategic plans of action have therefore been based on those of the ANC, as reflected in the party's electoral manifestos since 1994.

2.7. Provincial Context/Results of South African Political Parties

Outcome of the provincial elections, the year 2014. The ANC increased its percentage share of votes in the Eastern Cape, KZN, the Northern Cape and the Western Cape by one or two percentage points. In KZN this was most likely the result of IFP supporters moving to the ANC, while elsewhere it could be because of COPE supporters returning to the ANC (the policy brief, 2014). The party reduced its percentage share of votes in the Free State, Gauteng, Limpopo, Mpumalanga and the North West, partly as a result of a relatively lower voter turnout among its supporters, and in all likelihood because of some voters moving their support to the EFF and the DA (Schulz-Herzenberg, 2014).

According to the Institute for Security Studies (2014), the DA increased its share of the vote in all provinces and became the official opposition in six of these. In the Western Cape, it was 51,5% in 2009 to 59,4% in 2014. The EFF replaced COPE as the official opposition in the provinces of Limpopo and the North West. The EFF was also felt in Gauteng and COPE lost the five provinces it had in 2009, and was reduced to a relic, only having 4% vote in the Northern Cape (Schulz-Herzenberg, 2014).

2.7.1. The battle for Gauteng

The ANC had a pronounced shift at provincial level in Gauteng where their vote dropped from 64,0% to 53,6% and only retained the province with a slim majority (see figure below). The dropped vote was shared between DA and EFF; DA's vote grew from 21,9% to 30,8% and the EFF took 10,3% of the vote. In 2016, ANC lost Johannesburg and other major metropolitans. Below shows the table for the 2014 provincial election results of the political parties in South Africa.

2.7.2. Provincial election results, 2014

Table 2.2: Provincial election results 2014

Party	Eastern Cape	Free State	Gauteng	KZN	Limpopo	Mpumalanga	North West	Northern Cape	Western Cape
ANC	70,1	69,9	53,6	64,5	78,6	78,2	67,4	64,4	32,9
DA	16,2	16,2	30,8	12,8	6,5	10,4	12,7	23,9	59,4
EFF	3,5	8,2	10,3	1,9	10,7	6,3	13,2	5,0	2,1
COPE	1,2	*	*	*	0,9	*	*	3,6	*
UDM	6,2	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
IFP	*	*	0,8	10,9	*	*	*	*	*
NFP	*	*	*	7,3	*	*	*	*	*
MF	*	*	*	1,0	*	*	*	*	*
AIC	0,8	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
FF+	*	2,1	1,2	*	*	*	1,7	*	*
ACDP	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	1,0
BRA	*	*	*	*	*	1,2	*	*	*
OTHERS	2,0	3,6	3,3	1,6	3,3	3,9	5,0	3,1	4,6
	100	1001	100	1001	100	1001	100	100	100

* Parties that did not win provincial seats

The 'Others' category includes parties that obtained a percentage of the vote but no seats.

2.8. Political Advertising

In the 2009 elections, the use of limited free campaign advertising on television was introduced (Institute for Security Studies 2014). This gave South African electoral candidates, particularly the opposition parties, new chances to reach beyond traditional constituencies. Political

advertisements, mainly through electronic media adverts, exposed millions more voters to a richer diversity of political coverage and information than ever before especially in the case of the youth. The media play an essential communication function in any democracy and particularly during an election period. On the whole, the more political information individuals receive, the better their connection with their political brand candidate and party positions with the promises it incorporates.

Political advertising can take many forms, for instance, political parties can reach their target audience like the youth through Twitter and Facebook. The parties can use these mediums to get to the minds of the voters, understanding their needs and using technologies in establishing the connections through interacting, answering questions and giving out important information to increase and enhance their trust and the political brand, thereby maximising their votes in the election time (Wiese, 2011).

2.9. Conclusion

This chapter highlights the theoretical literature that is associated with the voting behaviour of voters over their political brand preference of the parties. The five theories at the foundation of this paper are the different models of voting behaviour identified in this study, comprising the Sociological Model, the Michigan Model, the Rational Choice Model, the Party Identification Model and the Media Model. These models or theories underline the importance and different types of voting behaviour that are being identified to be a critical aspect of voters (youths) in identifying their brand, using word of mouth, brand authentication and the brand image of the respective political parties which can lead to accumulation of brand preference of the political party that they want, or continue to represent and vote for. Hence, these models give a direction or integrate the variables for the conceptual model for the study.

CHAPTER 3: THEORETICAL GROUNDINGS AND EMPIRICAL LITERATURE

3.1. Introduction

The theoretical groundings of the study are discussed in this chapter, followed by an overview of the theoretical and empirical literature on each of the constructs that relates to the current research. The variables are; Brand identity, positive word of mouth, brand authenticity, brand image and brand preference of the political parties and how they can affect and influence the intentions of the youth in voting during elections which can lead to continuous brand preference of the political parties.

3.2. Political Marketing

The following section provides an overview on the background of political marketing and the definition of political marketing.

3.2.1. Background of Political Marketing

The study of political marketing has been developed with a changing and diverse definition as political marketing being described as a marriage between two social science disciplines - marketing and political science. Nursal (2004) argues that political marketing is a series of strategic, planned but tactical activities and can be short term and dimensionless term, to spread the political meaning to the youth or voters. Therefore, the main aims of political marketing are to enhance, establish attitudes, and instil hope, beliefs, orientations and voting behaviour. Firmansah (2008a) suggests that branding of the political party in the area of marketing helps in establishing the behaviour of voters through a variety of dimensions such as settling with a particular party or candidate of a party.

Political marketing is a process which is associated with a political campaign or an election campaign. According to Firmansah (2008b) this process can be done in two ways such as voters' segmentation and marketing program. South African political parties have not recognised this aspect of branding (political marketing), which has been used in most developed countries, except for a few parties like the Economic Freedom Fighters (**EFF),** which have based their target and segmentation on the youth of the nation, seeking

nationalisation. The EFF slogan 'People's Power for Economic Freedom in Our Lifetime' which in parliament they occupy 25/400 seats

3.3. Brand Identity

Identity is the cornerstone of important areas of study in recent years especially in identifying corporate marketing which provides the foundation like corporate brand identity and brand identity (Buil, Catalan, & Martinez, 2015). Identity, as a term, describes the number of interrelated concepts. The multidisciplinary nature of brand identity has led to a diversity of definitions which shows the complex nature of the construct; therefore, brand identity involves a set of dimensions that determine the brand way of thinking, behaving and being, hence, a key concept of brand management in direction of purpose to follow and the meaning of the brand in general (Buil, et, al., 2015). When brand identity is reconceptualised as a dynamic concept, as such, it is likely to distinguish a core identity which comprises the timeless and central essence of the brand and its extended identity which may change in a different context (Aaker, 1996).

A strong brand identity represents the basis for its reputation and image and when it is well managed, it results in positive behaviours, attitudes and perception of the voters (youths) of the political parties (Aaker, 1996; Kapferer, 2004). For example, from the viewpoint of youths (voters), creation of a unique, distinctive and coherent identity can add value to the political party's products represented and, as such, enhance their loyalty, positive word of mouth, brand image and preference.

Also, brand identity can enhance the attractiveness of the political organisation as a party and increase the motivation of the youth towards the party that they represent and, thus, attract more youths and their intention in voting time (Buil, et, al., 2015).

Table 3.1 shows some important brand identity definitions, of which some aspects can be highlighted from these definitions.

Table 3. 1: Brand identity and dimensions of the main framework

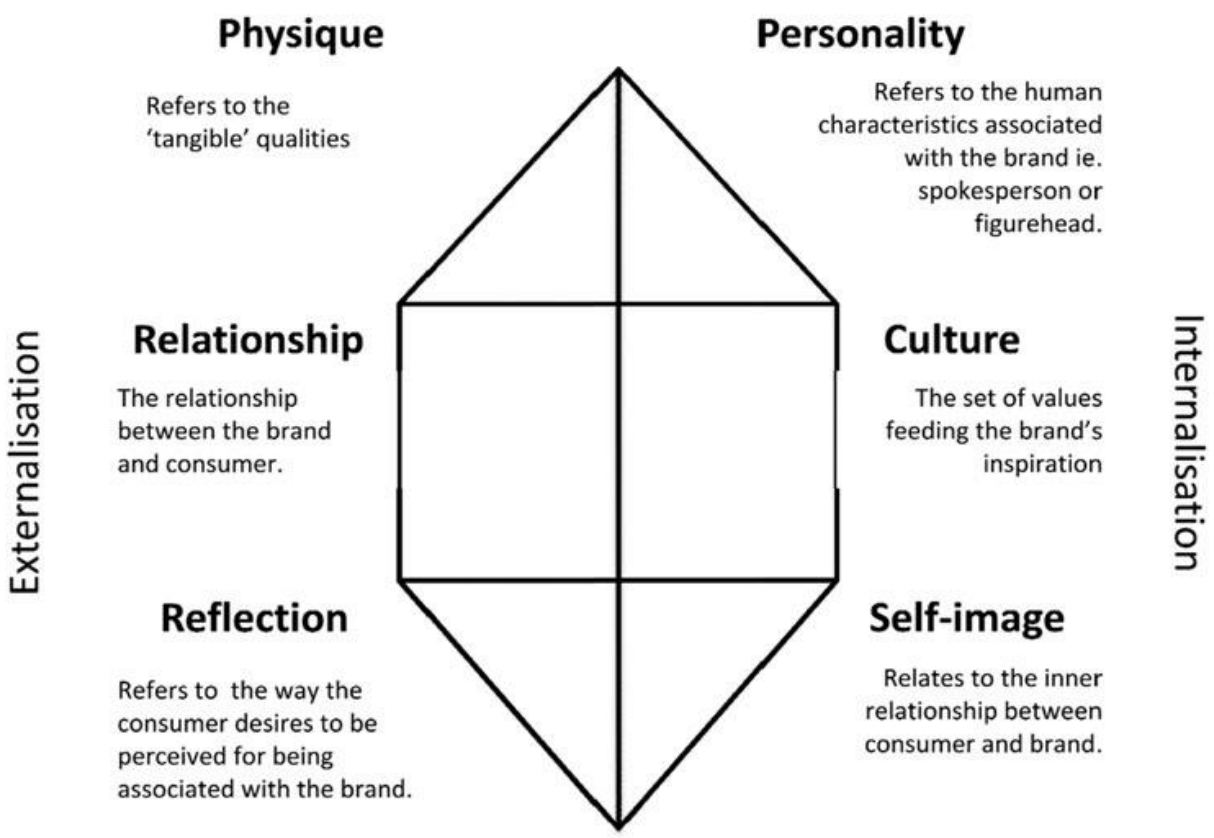
Author	Definitions	Dimensions
Aaker (1996)	Is a unique set of brand associations that the brand strategist aspires to create or maintain	Twelve dimensions organised around four perspectives: - Brand as a person (brand personality, brand-customer relationships) - Brand as a symbol (visual imagery/metaphors, brand heritage) - Brand as a product (product scope, quality/value, uses, country of origin, user, product scope, product attributes) - Brand as an organisation (organisational attributes, global versus local).
Kapferer (2004)	A brand's meaning as put forward by the firm	Brand identity prism: - Relationship: that is between the (consumer) voter and the political brand - Self-image: the way consumers (voters) see themselves when they buy (vote) or (use) belong with the brand - Physique: is the set of the brand's physical features evoked in people's minds - Culture: system of values, brand energy and source of inspiration - Reflection: this is the stereotypical user of the brand - Personality: it reflects the set of human characteristics associated with the political brand or brand
De Chernatony (2010)	The central or distinctive idea of a political brand (brand) and how the brand communicates this idea to different segments of voters or brand stakeholders	Five Components: - Culture: determinant factor to archive the vision - Personality: this brings the political brand's emotional values to life - Vision: provides a clear sense of direction - Relationships with different stakeholders: customers, staff and other stakeholders

Aaker's framework (1996), argues that brand identity consists of 12 dimensions structured around four perspectives: the brand as a person, the brand as a product, the brand as an

organisation and the brand as a symbol. On the other hand, Kapferer (2004) suggests a substitute proposal developing and identifying specifically a brand identity prism with six interrelated facets, which comprise; physique, relationship, reflection, self-image, culture and personality. An additional interesting brand identity framework has been established by De Chernatony (2010), who considers brand identity in terms of five constituents: vision, positioning, culture, relationships and personality with different stakeholders. Notwithstanding their interest, these brand identity frameworks are now without boundaries.

Furthermore, although extensively referenced in the academic literature, these suggestions are theoretical in nature and have not been subject to empirical exploration (Buil, et,al. 2015). Brand identity encapsulates the aspirations and visions of the brand in question.

Figure 3.1: Brand identity prism



Source: Buil,et,al., (2015)

3.4. Brand Authenticity

Brand authenticity has become a growing significant focus of discussion in the past decade given that the global economic crisis and trust erosion is emerging in its peak (Beverland, 2006). An authentic brand is when the stakeholders/voters of the party truly experience what they were being promised by the party and as a key to brand remedy and competitive advantage especially in the time erosion of trust and suffering in the society (Eggers, O'Dwyer, Kraus, Vallaster & Guldenberg, 2013). Eggers et al., (2013) postulates that authenticity of a brand is the benchmark against which every brand is being judged; in the political environment where regulations and rules cannot be controlled any longer, authenticity has become more important than ever before.

According to Diez, (2006) a brand is authentic if it is professed as 'honest' and 'real' which means to the object authenticity is intrinsic, or being 'superficial' and 'artificial' which indicates the fabricated authenticity. The 'honest' authenticity is what Eggers et, al., (2014) regarded as being built from the inside out against one that panders to the newest trend or customer segment. In essence, that political party promises or regulations are considered authentic if certain qualities and promises in the brand history are proven to be valid presently. The six attributes of authenticity by Beverland (2006) that include quality commitments, heritage and pedigree, relationship to place, stylistic consistency, downloading commercial motives and method of production, are considered to relate to the 'honest' conceptualising of authenticity.

The 'superficial' authenticity refers to the common communication and marketing practices in building authenticity as perceived by voters of a political party through communication. When a political brand has a low authenticity, it indicates that the brand does not correlate with its identity, as such the origin of the brand promise is not attributed to brand identity of the political party but with external forces. Kelly's attribution theory suggests that for a brand to be perceived as authentic, it has to depend on the perception of its antecedents which are; consistency, continuity and individuality (Schallehn et al., 2014). An authentic brand differentiates itself through its sincerity, connection to heritage and quality commitment (Beverland, 2006: Grohmann, 2016). Authentic brands have the aptitude to associate with consumers (voters) on an emotional level through their symbolic quality (Grohmann, 2016).

Recent conceptualisation of consumers' brand authenticity perceptions indicates that an authentic brand cares for its consumers, like the political parties they should be dependable which helps them to define and construct their identity as such reflecting continuity from the past into the future (Schallehn et al., 2014; Grohmann, 2016). A reflection of brand authenticity is relevant to political marketing and marketers, in essence that authenticity builds a distinctive brand identity and donates to equity and brand status (Beverland, 2006; Grahmann, 2016). Recent studies have shown that brand authenticity is positively related to brand attitudes, purchase (voting) intentions, brand choice likelihood of the political party, emotional brand attachment that is holding to the heart of the political party or the candidate involved and word of mouth communication (Illicic & Webster,2014, Grohmann, 2016).

According to Grohmann (2016) self-authentication behaviour is associated with brand authenticity which occurs with revealing of the true self of a voter, due to its meaningful resource in identity construction, hence, becomes instrumental in voters' (consumers') self-authentication behaviour. In addition, brand authenticity usually impacts voters' response to brands in a positive manner and also voters' need to belong is satisfied, as such it can be said that authentic brand can remain relevant over time, induce connections across generations and continue to provide voters with a sense of common identification and continuity (Gilmore & Pine, 2007; Grohmann, 2016). Studies have been focused on the effects of brand authenticity, on brand trust and SME growth (Eggers, et., al., 2012) and measuring consumer-based brand authenticity (Napoli, Dickinson, Beverland & Farrelly, 2014).

The nature of brand authenticity, in business research, has been described in so many different ways with different meanings attributed to it; authenticity is the reality or truth of something; genuineness with the concept of being original; sincerity, simple, unspun and innocence (Napoli, et., al., 2014). According to Napoli, et., al., (2014) consumers (voters) experience and evaluate authenticity in different ways which might be based on their knowledge, interest of the campaign or the party representative characteristics (the subject and object). They further suggest that brands can acquire an aura of authenticity through a 'commitment to traditions' thus can be related to politics, especially within South Africa, a country that is known to hold the cultural omen in a very high esteem such as the "UBUNTU" production excellence, a passion for craft and the commercial motivations with the modern industrial attributes (Napoli, et., al., 2014; Beverland, 2006).

Brands that possesses authentication have clarity of purpose that can help in enhancing trust, image and increasing preferences to the brand, which can be implemented by the political parties in increasing the intentions of the youths towards voting, not only during elections but before campaigning and after elections, in maintaining the brand level in society and fulfilling the messages and promises that they made during elections. This will help in maintaining and retaining the self-authentication of the youths (voters) in that regard and stability of the party in the minds of the voters in the country, without requiring of a lot of resources in gaining their votes in the next election (Napoli, et., al., 2014). Brands with a sense of connection and history with traditional customs, beliefs, cultures and regions acquire a nostalgic aura and distinctive identity that adds to its authenticity. In this regard, this can be put across to the ANC political party, which can be seen as possessing the sense of history, customs and tradition towards their brand and, hence, can be referred to as having a distinctive identity due to the Apartheid era and bringing the nation of South Africa together as one (Eggers,et., al., 2012).

Therefore, voters (youths) may still be relating to the brand due to the heritage and history associated with the brand but there is still a need to keep the brand going in maximising and promoting the authentication of the brand and ensuring that corruption is not associated with it, which might start giving the notion of unbelief to their voters (youths) on what they think they stand for. A strong history or heritage brand can over time become identical with certain cultural values and procure symbolic meaning beyond its unique identity which aids in establishing a sense of authenticity and legitimacy among target clusters (Napoli,et., al., 2014). Morhart, Malar, Guevremont, Girardin & Grohmann, (2015) propose three perspectives of authenticity, that is; existentialist, objectivist and constructivist.

The existentialist perspective reflects authenticity to be correlated to the self and not a peripheral entity which consists of the notion that authenticity means being true to one's self. On the other hand; objectivist perspective projects an authenticity as an objectively assessable quality of an entity that can be assessed by experts and constructivist perspective as a projection of one's own beliefs, perspectives onto an entity and expectations. In order to define, authenticity is the combination of existentiality (one's self), objectivity (object) and constructivist as one's belief and expectation in a person or organisation (Morhart et., al., 2015).

3.5. Positive word of mouth (WOM)

Word of mouth is voter-to-voter (consumer-to-consumer) advice that may be face-to-face. Via text messages, Internet or phone therefore, might be negative or positive in its content and form, and can become complex. East, Uncles, Romaniuk and Hand, (2014) suggest that positive word of mouth (PWOM) on the basis of focus group research bears more heavily on cognitive factors than negative word of mouth (NWOM) which is based more on emotional factors and, as such, voters may advise against a political party because they are unsatisfied with their services and others (voters) might advise against a brand despite their personal satisfaction with the political party brand (East et al., 2014).

Word of mouth has a great impact on consumer (voter) behaviour and voters share news, opinions and information about politics and their views with each other. Hence, this can be done through technologies such as Twitter and Facebook which has increased the ease and speed of communication and in accessing others' views concerning issues affecting the society or the nation at large (Berger, 2014). WOM has been indicated as the world's most effective, yet least understood marketing strategy. Berger, (2014) suggests that WOM can be understood in terms of five key functions, which involve emotion regulation, social bonding, impression-management, information acquisition and persuasion, which is self-functioning and as such, drives what voters share even outside their awareness.

These functions are analysed in aspects of *why people share*, *what people talk about*, and some people may share information about a new development in the political parties and look at the smartness of the political candidates in the issue (*Impression management*) thereby connecting with another voter in that matter through *social bonding* with the intention of *persuading others* to reason with them on issues with the political parties and problems bothering society. WOM is described as the process that consents youths to share opinions and information that direct voters toward and away from a specific political party brand, products and services (Spinelli, 2012).

Table 3. 2: Five key functions of word of- mouth

Function	Components	Effects On Sharing
Impression-Management	Self-Enhancement	+ Entertaining content + Useful information + Self-Concept relevant things + High status things + Unique and special things + Common ground + Accessible things + When aroused Shapes content valence
	Identity-Signaling	
	Filling Conversational Space	
Emotion Regulation	Generating Social Support	+ Emotional Content + Arousing Content Shapes content valence
	Venting	
	Facilitating Sense Making	
	Reducing Dissonance	
	Taking Vengeance	
	Encouraging Rehearsal	
Information Acquisition	Seeking Advice	+ Sharing when decisions are important or uncertain +Sharing when alternative info is unavailable or untrustworthy
	Resolving Problems	
Social Bonding	Reinforcing Shared Views	+ Common Ground Content + Emotional Content
	Reducing Loneliness and Social Exclusion	
Persuasion	Persuading Others	+ Polarized Content + Arousing Content

Word of Mouth and Interpersonal Communication 50

Source; Berger, (2014)

3.6. Brand Image

The concept brand image has drawn significant attention from practitioners and academics since it was brought forward, due to its role in marketing activities. Brand image is the key driver of brand equity that refers to consumers' (voters') general feeling and perception about a brand hence can influence the behaviour of a voter (consumer) (Zhang, 2015). Brand image is the perceptions about a brand as reflected by the brand associations held in consumer (voter) memory (Romaniuk & Sharp, 2003). Chang and Liu (2009) defined brand image as ''the voter's perceptions toward a particular brand name'', which can come from so many sources such as, marketing communications, word of mouth and voters' experience of the particular political party or brand.

Chang and Liu (2009) suggest that brand image is made up of five different facets, which are user image, product image, brand personality, occasion image and salience, hence, brand image

is a cluster of attributes and associations that voters connect with the brand name. Brand image is perceived quality, perceived value, brand associations, brand attitudes and attitude toward brand advertising. De Chernatony, Cottam & Segal-Horn (2006) highlighted that voters and especially youths are seeking pride from being associated with brands that can deliver their promises and therefore, recognise the genuine core values of the particular brand, which enables them to guide their attitudes in appreciation, loyalty and in differentiation from other political parties (competitors).

Self-concept theory suggests that one's self-concept is a gathering of perception about oneself that involves fundamentals such as, characteristics, appearance, capabilities, shortcomings and personality (Zhang, 2015). For political parties, the consistency between the voter's self-concepts and brand image is critical, as voters might display various self-concepts in diverse social contexts. Therefore, voters might think better of a brand in whatever context the brand is, as long as the brand possesses the image that is line with their self-concept (Zhang, 2015). Brand image has a substantial impact on customer satisfaction. Moreover, it has been empirically proven that there is a dominant role of brand image in predicting customer satisfaction in the hospitality industry. Hence, the congruency between the voters' self-image and brand image will enable voters' preference and satisfaction for the political brand (Chitty, Ward, & Chua, 2007).

Furthermore, there is an important aspect of brand image, which is brand personality, that needs to be considered in the aspect of political marketing in getting the youths' minds and influencing their intentions when it comes to voting (Smith, 2009: Keller, 1993). Brand personality is "the set of human characteristics associated with a brand" (Aaker, 1997, p. 99), therefore, from a voter (consumer) perspective personality of a political party is seen as an associative system of the human characteristics connecting to that party, apprehended in memory and available when stimulated from the reminiscence of a voter (Smith, 2009). According to Smith (2009) market research in the United Kingdom approves that the party's images and leaders' images were more prominent in attracting voters than the policies they advocated.

A distinctive brand image can help to develop a set of favourable and unique associations in the mind and memory of the voter, as a result brand image has an essential role to play in the directing of consumer (voter) brand preference and choice on the political party or candidate

(Smith, 2009). In this study, the conceptual model shows that brand image has a direct influence on brand preference on voting intentions of the youth but this does not suggest that brand image is the only influence on brand preference on voting intention. Although the leaders of the political parties have more ability to influence the brand image of their parties, such as corporate brands, generally offers the umbrella of recognition and cohesion to the political brand

For instance, the African National Congress (ANC) party's long term commitment to create jobs for the youths and reduce unemployment and poverty for the citizens of South Africa might reasonably be expected to impact its perception on the attribution of personality, hence, the attribution theory falls into place (Smith, 2009). As a result of this attribution theory, one can say that a party's past behaviour can produce a kind of brand heritage. For instance, the Pan Africanist Congress (PAC) political party in South Africa that was formed in 1959 as a breakaway from the ANC was seen by many as not up-to-date and not competent due to numerous changes in political leadership, hence, voters favouring the ANC and EFF (www.southafrica.info, 2016).

For voters, the brand image of the party and its electorates (politicians) are not separate but amalgamated to form an associative network in memory of the overall brand which can be seen as an example by the Barack Obama political campaign in 2008. According to Chedi, (2009) brand image beliefs will have a greater impact on brand preferences when voters' preconceived associations fit the associations derived from the product category. Brand image can be used by voters to decrease the perceived risk of voting for the wrong party; thereby politics is a credence service in that, at the time of voting it is challenging to know whether policy promises will be conveyed. For instance, has the ANC created jobs for the youth as promised since coming to power in 1994. Brand image in politics acts to add a level of emotional connection that functions above and over the functional use-value of an invention (Sonies, 2011). According to Sonies (2011) there is an evidence of the need for an emotive connection which was seen in the rebranding of Blair, where Blair wanted to link and bond on a more positive emotional level with the society to increase his approval ratings (Sonies, 2011; Scammell, 2007).

3.7. Brand preference

Brand preference is an essential step to understanding consumer or voter's choice behaviour, thus needs to receive great attention from the political point of view or from marketers of political campaigns and candidates (Ebrahim, 2013). The type of attributes a brand possesses can be revealed through brand preferences of the voters and therefore, enhances and strengthens its position as a brand in the political level in the country and, as such, increases the level of brand loyalty and voters' intention to voting before and during elections. Furthermore, there is a tendency of creating an important input in developing the political party's successful brand strategy and enhances the insight of understanding and reassigning with the youth and the society at large in recognising their needs and fulfilling them, hence, increasing the trust and product development of the party.

According to Overby & Lee, (2006) brand preference signifies consumer dispositions and behavioural tendencies to prefer a particular brand to another. Ebrahim (2013) argues that brand preferences are close to reality in terms of reflecting voters' evaluation of brands. In the political arena, there is a propensity of voters often facing situations of selecting or making a decision on which political party to follow or that can help in solving the issues facing society and meeting their needs and, thus, several options of political party are in the face to choose the correct political branding preference (Ebrahim, 2013).

Grimm, (2005), and Ebrahim (2013), state that voters' preferences for brands can be reflected in three responses; conative or behavioural, cognitive and affective responses. According to Hsee, Yang, Gu & Chen (2009) the behavioural or conative approach is the voters' predicted act towards the object; which is the party or the candidate involved in the running of the campaign or election, thus, described as the revealed preference demonstrated in voters' choices. Van Kerchhove, Geuens, & Vermier (2012) suggest that brand preferences facilitate voters' choice by increasing their intentions towards the favourable brand. Actual voting behaviour on the day of election corresponds to intentions; that leads to evidence of persistent voter preferences and improves the mechanism of intention formation of the individual. The consistency between voter choices and preferences add to prognostic validity of preference statement over attitude (Ebrahim, 2013).

The cognitive constituents comprehend the utilitarian beliefs of brand elements and the affective responses denote to the degree of liking or preferring that reflects voter feeling

towards the brand (Ebrahim, 2013 & Grimm, 2005). In addition, there is essentiality in the formation of stability of brand preference especially once voters' preferences have been established, as there might be difficulty in altering voter preference, even if voters discover the irrelevance of differentiating attributes to the brand or even the relevance of the alteration (Ebrahim, 2013, Hsee et, al., 2009). The biased position voters constitute toward a certain political brand, created from comparative judgement between brand image, identity, authenticity and word of mouth, reflects the brand strength.

Therefore, the changes that can occur in voter brand preferences can be said to have reflected from, or on, the brand image and market share of the party (Sriram, Chintagunta, & Neelamegham, 2006). In addition, the combination of desired attributes and voter perceptions towards a political party as a brand is brand preference, hence, it offers an unobtrusive and indirect way to assess outstanding attributes of the voters' intentions toward the party as a whole (Ebrahim, 2013). The importance of uncovering the voters' brand preferences through stability of the brand image of the party is considered to be paramount in the designing of a successful brand strategy, trust, loyalty and positioning of the brand in the political level and enabling the party to achieve its aim in the minds of the youth; most practically in South Africa (Alamro & Rowley, 2011).

Brand preference remains conceptually distinct from other brand constructs, for example, brand image, brand identity, brand loyalty and brand authenticity. Consequently, understanding brand preferences can be a great identification and contribution to building of a strong political brand and ability to establish a long-term relationship with the youth (voters) (Alamro & Rowley, 2011; Ebrahim, 2013). Furthermore, identifying patterns and understanding the youth of the Nation's preference across the population of South Africa and uncovering voter heterogeneity is crucial for developing and designing innovative ways of reaching the target market and strategies (Ebrahim, 2013; Sriram et. al., 2006). It is crucial for campaign marketers to know how youths, or voters, trade-off between different brands of political parties before making their choices in voting intentions, since the brand preference is the ultimate in future cases.
Rossiter and Bellman, (2005) suggest different levels of preferences and their corresponding states of loyalty, which can be identified as the key role in establishing voting preference of the youth before, during and after elections. For instance, the Economic Freedom Fighters (EFF) political party in South Africa can be associated with strong brand preference, in essence

that the first time they came into the election they became the 3rd in line after the African National Congress (ANC) and the Democratic Alliance (DA) (Rossiter & Bellman, 2005). The cognitive constituents can be seen on the basis of identifying the target audience which are the youth, the future of the nation (strong brand preference). Strong brand preference is the state at which voters can be loyal to a certain political brand. The state of brand switching is moderate brand preference where there is no inclination towards a certain political brand. Neutral preference refers to how voters can be uninformed of the brand. Negative brand preference occurs when voters are not, and will not become, loyal to a certain political brand (Ebrahim, 2013; Rossiter & Bellman, 2005).

3.8. Conclusion

This chapter aims at providing the theoretical groundings that underpins the present study, the concept of political marketing, background research on each variable to create a better understanding of what they entail and to establish a foundation to identify potential relationships amongst them. The discussion of the empirical literature underlying the theoretical constructs of the study, brand identity, brand authenticity, brand image, positive word of mouth and brand preference. In the next chapter, the conceptual model and hypotheses development are presented and discussed in full detail.

CHAPTER 4: CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

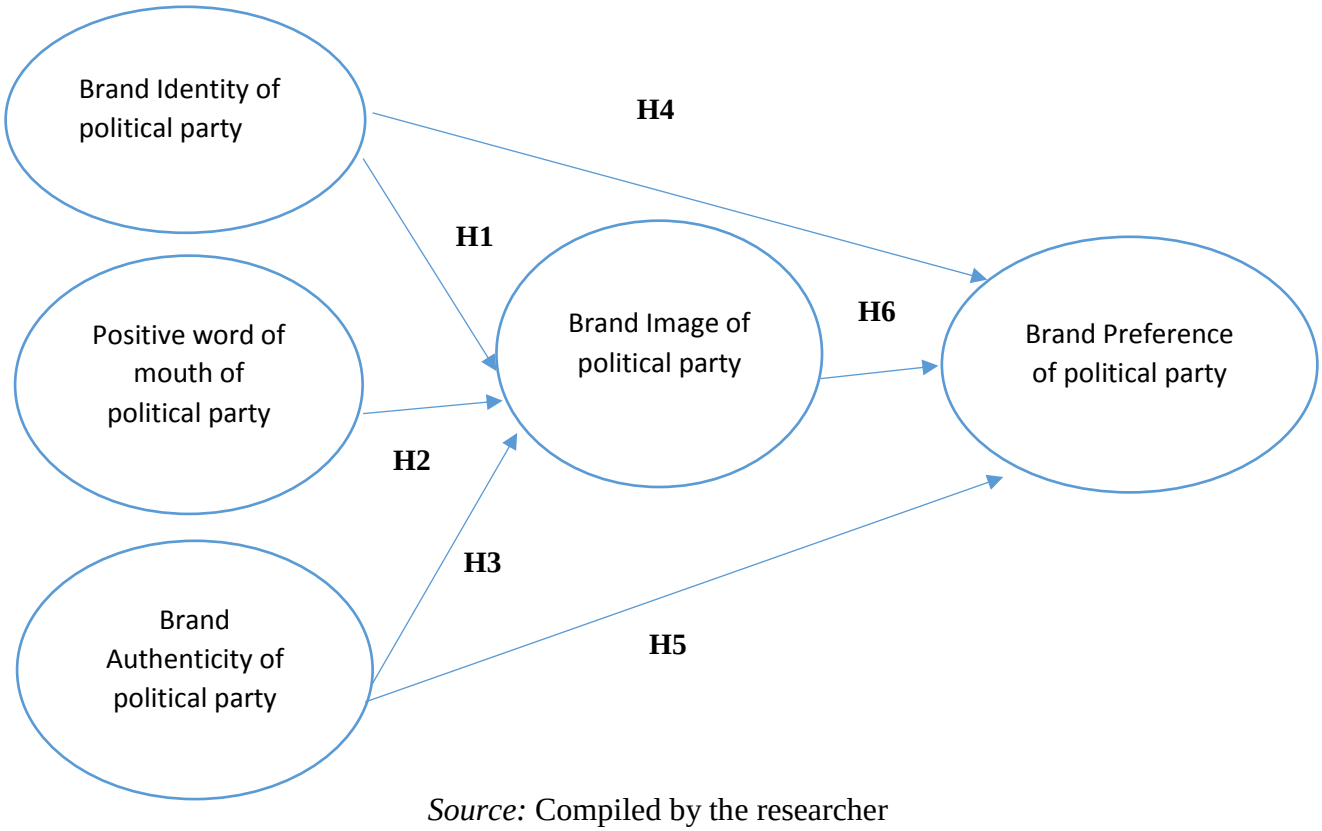
4.1. Introduction

This chapter provides an in-depth discussion of the proposed conceptual model and the hypotheses development. Discussion of the variables in relation to one another, which is followed by an overview of the development of the hypotheses to test the relationship between each other and which then gives the objectives that are set for the research.

4.1.1. Conceptual Model

Figure 4.1 presents the proposed conceptual model for the purpose of the current study.

Figure 4.1 Conceptual Model



Source: Compiled by the researcher

Firstly, brand identity, positive word of mouth and brand authenticity represent the predictor variables, with brand preference as the outcome variable. There is one mediator which is brand image. The purpose of this research is to investigate the relationships among brand identity, positive word of mouth, brand authenticity and brand preference, and the mediating role of the

mediator (brand image). It is therefore proposed that brand identity, PWOM and brand authenticity have a positive influence on the mediating variable, which in turn has a positive influence on brand preference. In practice, this means that when electorates and political parties create a favourable and positive brand party, it will have a positive effect on the voters' (youths') brand image of the party and on their voting preference during elections or campaigns. This will lead to an increase in voters' (youths') brand preference of the party.

4.2. Hypotheses Development

By means of a critical analysis of literature, this section will be discussing the construction of the conceptual model. This is followed by an overview of the development of the hypotheses, which links the base of the objectives set for this study

4.3. Brand Identity

4.3.1. Brand Identity and Brand Image (Hypothesis 1)

Brand identity is a critical aspect of marketing and has been found to have a significant influence on branding.

H1: Brand identity

Studies on brand identity focus on both factors that influence it and on its impact on other vital marketing variables. Although brand identity helps in establishing a relationship between the brand and the purchaser by creating a value proposition involving functional, self-expressive or emotional benefits (Aaker 1996), it is very difficult for brand image to match perfectly with brand identity due to the compound nature of the communications system. According to Aaker's (1996) conceptualization, brand image is one of the inputs which should be an essential part of strategic brand analysis, wherein the brand strategists carefully analyse their own existing brand image and competitors' brand images to help them determine their own brand identity.

Sääksjärvi and Samiee, (2011) examined the impact and relationships between brand identity on brand image and they found that brand identity on brand image is more pronounced for cyber than offline-based extension brands. Buil, Catalan, & Martinez (2015) state that brand identity comprises a set of dimensions and features that regulate the brand's way of being,

behaving and thinking. In addition, brand identity defines the main aim, meaning and purpose of the directions the brand has to follow. Buil,et,al., (2015) explored the relationship between consumer point of view on what brand identity represents, in essence of creation of uniqueness and distinctive brand identity, which tends to add value to the brand image of the company's products. For example, the company's products with regards to the political parties can be their names, symbols and logos. Similarly, Coleman, De Chernatony and Christodoulides (2011) found that exciting brand identity tends to elevate consumer pleasure and value with their brand image, thus represents the basis for its reputation and brand image which results in positive attitudes, perception and behaviours of different stakeholders and consumers (voters) of the political party (Coleman et al., 2011). Besides, the proper campaign before and during elections, fulfilling the promises, giving the required amenities and infrastructures, good and free education to the youths of the nation will empower and enhance the brand identity and image of the political party on the seat and renew the trust of the citizen and what the party represents. Recent research examines the connection between the notion of brand identity, brand image and brand positioning that brand image focuses on targets' overall awareness of the brand with its identity (Kapferer, 2008).

The brand must maintain its identity and in so doing, respects its 'contract' (Kapferer, 2008) with itself, with its mission, and with its (voters) consumers. A strong brand identity and brand image of a political appeal to the entire market for a very long period of time can lead to retention of the voters without any fear of losing voters (consumers) to competitors and differentiates their brand from others in the minds of the citizens (Buil et., al., 2015). This study therefore proposes that there is a positive relationship between brand identity and brand image, the stronger the brand identity, the more likely it is that a customer will have a positive brand image of the party concerned.

$H1_0$: *There is no relationship between brand identity and brand image.*

$H1_a$: *There is a positive relationship between brand identity and brand image.*

4.4. Positive word of mouth

4.4.1. Positive word of mouth and Brand image (Hypothesis 2)

The positive word of mouth was found to be a crucial consideration in developing and identifying a positive influence on consumers' commitment to a brand image of a political

party (Tuškej et al., 2013). The most important idea behind WOM is that the products the political parties offer and the information pertaining to the promises before and after the campaign can spread from one voter to another. Tuškej et al., (2013) examined the impact of commitment and identification and found that when consumers identify with the brand image of an organization and, hence, become committed to the brand, WOM shapes the behaviors and attitude of the consumer towards the brand and therefore strengthens the relationships between the brand and the consumer (voter). For this reason, the findings of several previous studies in consumer research suggest that positive WOM has a positive impact on generating brand image(Tuškej et al., 2013; Kuenzel & Halliday, 2008).

When voters perceive and identify with a brand image of a political party as the only acceptable choice due to being emotionally attached, as can be seen in the case of ANC for fighting Apartheid in South Africa, this has led to voters participating in WOM for some reasons like security, reassurance from the party and comfort they believe they will get, or simply because of emotional attachment that is related to the party. Ismail & Spinelli, (2012), investigate the relationship among brand love, brand personality, brand image and word of mouth. Further, in the study conducted by (Spinelli, 2012), the findings revealed that positive word of mouth has a positive influence on the overall brand image of a political party and can consider brand image as a determinant of a brand which has an effect on word of mouth.

Nevertheless, prior research in marketing has linked brand image and WOM, for instance, Yavas & Shemwell (1996) propose WOM as one of the main sources of image formation (Spinelli, 2012). Martin and Lueg, (2013); Chen and XIE, (2008); Schivinski and Dbrowski, (2014) found that WOM exerts a very prominent impact on brand image and a positive word of mouth significantly form voter's attitude toward their recommended party and there is a decrease in cost with campaigning and reaching out and creation of awareness of the brand to citizens. Derived from the literature above, this study proposes that positive word of mouth of a brand has a positive influence on brand image.

$H2_0$: *There is no relationship between positive word of mouth and brand image.*

$H2_a$: *There is a positive relationship between positive word of mouth and brand image.*

4.5. Brand Authenticity

4.5.1. Brand Authenticity and Brand Image (Hypothesis 3)

The third hypothesis is brand authenticity which Schallehn et al., (2014) discussed, that the demand for honest, truthful and trustworthy brand is being sought after and in a rising market and political aspects, in relation to customers' or voters' relationships with the specific brand. Gilmore and Pine, (2007) suggest that this has brought a clash in trends with decreasing levels in brand image of the party in the society. The concept of brand authenticity, has been identified through identity-based brand management model which comprises two main components, the brand image and brand identity. Thus, the relationship between the two variables, brand authenticity and brand image show a positive relationship. Meffert, Burmann, & Kirchgeorg, (2012), suggest that brand image in context of authenticity is the exterior view of a brand, that is being seen as "condense and judgmental perceptions about a brand fixed in the psyche of relevant external target groups" for instance, voters and customers (Meffert et, al., 2012).

Furthermore, the formulation of brand positioning must consider brand authenticity and brand image to have a sound positioning in the society such as the youth in South Africa. Therefore, following the attribution theory used in this study, brand authenticity depends on its perception of its antecedents, like, its consistency, continuity, individuality and can be incorporated with image. Hence, an authentic brand is one that portrays and is very clear with what it stands for, with the main aim of positioning itself from within, versus from the outside to customers and voters (Schallehn et al., 2014 and Meffert et, al., 2012). When a brand shows and displays authenticity to consumers, it becomes memorable and creates a very lasting impact on the voter, as such the brand image of the brand becomes established (Spinelli, 2012).

Spinelli, (2012) argued that product or brand image is the outcome of authenticity (product stimuli) and receiver, which involves personal values, experience, individual perceptions and product attributes which can be held in the voter's memory. Napoli et al., (2014) suggests that authenticity ruling can be formed around iconic cues (the extent to which an object or event is a rational reconstruction of the past) or indexical cues (a truthful connection between the time and the object). In the South African context, political party brands can acquire an aura of authenticity through traditions, commitment and voters' negation of the role of modern marketing attributes. Political brands with strong heritage will acquire symbolical meaning beyond its original brand image, as such the authenticity will speak for the image (Napoli et

al., 2014). Consequent from the literature above, the evidence of brand authenticity having a positive impact on brand image is present. In other words, the more authentic a political party becomes, the more likely that voters will recognise and be conversant with the political party brand image and thus, the stronger and more competitive the political party becomes to its rivals. Hence, the research proposes that there is a positive relationship between brand authenticity and brand image.

$H3_0$: *There is no relationship between brand authenticity and brand image.*

$H3_a$: *There is a positive relationship between brand authenticity and brand image.*

4.6. Brand identity and Brand Preference (Hypothesis 4)

French and Smith (2010) describe political brands as the consistency of political parties, ideas, organizations, political marketing literature and brand image, which plays an important role in political campaigns. According to Falkowski and Cwalina (2012) voters represent consumers as the consumption of ideas promised by political parties are being consumed by them during and after campaign and election. In addition, judgments are made about these political parties through controlled and uncontrolled signals and campaign workers' behaviors. Hence, brand identity is the core characteristic and internal perspective of the brand, which is being managed by the brand management team before presenting the brand to the public (Black & Veloutsou, 2016). Therefore, in the congruence of brand preference, the Social identity theory argues that individuals derive some of their self-concept from peer groups, social groups to which they belong, which can be identified to enhance and increase the relationship that the voter has with the brand in relation to brand preference (Black & Veloutsou, 2016).

Brand identity is the essence and core values of a brand (Jaworski & Fosher, 2003), that is, if a political party can incorporate the country of origin's core values and essence, it can affect differentiation, positioning and purchase decision of the party by the voters (youth). Mike Moser, a brand strategist says "Do any of your company's core values reflect the core values of your culture (Nation)? If yes, then leverage the advantage and the political party brand can resonate more and deeper in peoples' mind and heart" (Jaworski & Fosher, 2003, p. 113). An example of a brand that integrates the dimension, is Apple computers through tapping into Nation Brand effect of the USA with its 'Think Different' campaign which attaches to the USA core values of self-expression, creativity, freedom and independence and thus, there was an

increase in brand identification which maximized brand preference of the product over competitors.

In addition, this pattern can be implemented by the political parties in South Africa in achieving the desired goals of brand preference. This current study therefore proposes that there is a positive relationship between brand identity and brand preference.

$H4_0$: *There is no relationship between brand identity and brand preference.*

$H4_a$: *There is a positive relationship between brand identity and brand preference.*

4.7. Brand Authenticity and Brand Preference (Hypothesis 5)

The relationship between brand authenticity and brand preference is crucial to shedding light on the impact brand authenticity has on brand preference of a political party brand. Studies have shown that the more authentic a political party feels and looks to the voter, the more real the political party brand is (Liu, Yanopoulou, Bian & Elliott, 2015) suggesting that authenticity is a device rather than a reality (Beverland & Farrelly, 2010). In particular, Liu et al., (2015) examines Chinese consumers' perception of authenticity, which has revealed that Chinese consumers do not evaluate products based on the authenticity, or inauthenticity, of the brand.

According to Morhart et al., (2015), it is evident from past research that there exists a stimuli-organism retort framework leading the relationship between the two constructs, in which voters that experience certain elements of the authenticity of the political party brand tend to prefer and associate with such a political brand and so the development of the specific brand over another increases and brand preference occurs. In a branding view, brand authenticity perception could arise through an evidence-based reality such as age, performance during and after election campaign and labels of origin (Beverland, 2006). Studies have looked into brand authenticity as a new pillar in creating brand trust and credibility (Beverland, 2006, Schallehn et al., 2014), for example, brands like Coca-Cola, which is being identified as 'the real thing'; Nike promises 'authentic athletic performance' and others.

Thus, identifying these factors and elements and implementing these aspects to political party brand is paramount in shaping the voters' behavior and preferences positively towards a certain political party brand such that it will continue to survive in the political environment or market. Brand authenticity which Schallehn et al., (2014) discussed, states that when a brand possesses

authenticity and voters prove to be very positive about it, it is more likely that such voters will return to the political brand, in order to be identified and support the brand through it all, while having a preference of the political brand over others. Therefore, the current research proposes that there is a positive relationship between brand authenticity and brand preference.

$H5_0$: *There is no relationship between brand authenticity and brand preference.*

$H5_a$: *There is a positive relationship between brand authenticity and brand preference.*

4.8. Brand Image and Brand preference (Hypothesis 6)

The relationship between brand image and brand preference has to be considered. The relationship between these two hypotheses has been discussed in previous studies, such as those of Van Rompay, De Varis and Van Venrooij (2007) and Chedi (2009), which pointed out the importance and ease of processing information that leads to a more favorable response and therefore, beliefs that brand image will have a better impact on brand preference when voters' preconceived relations fit the connotations derived from the products that the parties offer. According to Reader's Digest, (2010) a study of 12 countries found that a large proportion of people suspect large companies of being disingenuous in an effort to promote a positive brand image, which can be seen to impact the way consumers see the brand and hence, brand preference will be developed (Schallehn et al., 2014).

Accordingly Spinelli, (2012) argued that on the foundation of relational paradigm, brand image may attribute human characteristics to brands which will enhance a voter's intention towards preferring a certain brand to another, which can be associated with emotional outcome in personalizing the brand. Brand image and brand preference are being researched in the marketing literature. For example, Jing Hu et al., (2012) conducted a research on the role of brand image congruity in Chinese consumers' brand preference, where the findings indicated brand image to be a dependent variable of brand preference. Although the research by Jing Hu et al., (2012) was conducted in the Chinese market, the results provide a clarity of the relationship between brand image and brand preference.

Jing Hu et al., (2012) suggests that voters organize a cluster of qualities and image creation in association with the political party brand both in symbolic and functional dimensions. Furthermore, the brand images are being compared against different images, be it a social image, self-image, product category image or ideal social image, which is identified to

influence voters' reactions to that specific brand in accordance to brand preference. Consistent with the above findings of Jing Hu et al., (2012) a study was conducted on cyber and extension retail brands over time regarding how brand identity and brand image can impact brand preference. The results found that cyber and extension retail brands generate greater brand preference through an increase in brand image (Sääksjärvi & Samiee, 2011). The present research consequently proposes that there is a direct positive relationship between brand image and brand preference. In addition, brand image is a voter's perception of the political brand and thus, the more a voter has a perception regarding the brand image of the political party, the more likely the political brand would be preferred. In essence, brand preference will begin to shift over time due to brand image of the political party.

$H6_0$: There is no relationship between brand image and brand preference.

$H6_a$: There is a positive relationship between brand image and brand preference.

4.9 Conclusion

This chapter presented an in-depth discussion of the proposed conceptual model and the hypotheses developments related to the study. Through the means of critical analysis of literature, the structuring of the conceptual model was discussed by developing each of the five proposed hypotheses. In the next chapter, the research design and methodology will be discussed in detail.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

This chapter details the methodology used for the study in support of the proposed conceptual model. It also provides a discussion on the following: the research strategy, sampling method, data collection method, and the statistical modelling that is used for the purpose of the present study.

5.2. Research Strategy

In this section, the research philosophy and the research design are discussed, while a justification of the adopted methods is provided.

5.2.1. Research Approach

Petty, Thomson and Stew, (2012) argue that research methodology provides the techniques in acquiring and analysing the data to breed new information and knowledge and it plays a vital role in the overview of a study and influences the validity in the information development. There are areas that a researcher needs to look at when selecting a research methodology and research design and the administration of questionnaires.

- The availability of resources, money and time to conduct the research
- What is the main purpose of the research?
- The availability and brand of expertise needed for the research drive
- The how, where and possibility of the collection of data
- Understanding the entire design whether descriptive, casual or exploratory process
- The research design clarification on quantitative or qualitative processes in sample size and sampling (Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

Malhotra and Birks (2007) argue that when conducting a research, a deductive or an inductive research approach can be used. Deductive research refers to investigations that examine hypothesised relationships resulting from the use of current theories (Malhotra et al., 2007). Bryman et al., (2007) suggests that this approach requires that the researcher infers hypotheses which must be then be subjected to empirical inspection. Therefore, the inductive research

tactic refers to an examination that gathers and evaluates primary data, hence, developing hypotheses and examining them for generating new theories or extending existing ones (Bryman et al., 2007).

For this research, the deductive approach was used because it is based on theories and hypotheses were derived. Data was collected to test the significance of the hypotheses, and findings were then obtained.

5.3. Research Philosophy

Ponterotto (2005) states that the philosophy of science can be described as the conceptual origins undergirding the quest for knowledge. Therefore, Research philosophy refers to the way in which an investigator reasons about the development of knowledge. Research philosophy is divided into four clusters, namely: positivism, post-positivism, constructivism and critical theory (Ponterotto, 2005). Furthermore, these four research philosophies can be grouped into three schools of thought, namely: ontology, epistemology, and methodology (Ponterotto, 2005). Slevitch (2011) argues that every scientific study is grounded on a certain paradigm and Morgan (2007) refers to paradigms as all-inclusive assumptions about the world and means of feeling the world, which involves beliefs about aesthetics, morals and values. Scientific paradigms are determined by ontological positions (Krauss, 2005) and ontology comprises the philosophy of reality (Krauss, 2005).

The epistemology theory which is concerned with the justification, nature and scope of human knowledge (Krauss, 2005), involves how we come to know the reality. According to Slevitch (2011) the epistemology paradigm attempts to answer the questions below:

- How do we know what we know?
- What is the truth?
- What is legitimate knowledge?
- What is the nature of the relationship between the investigator and what can be known?

5.3.1. Positivist / Post-Positivist Research Paradigm

Positivism and post-positivism are generally regarded as deductive or quantitative research methods that are conducted by means of hypotheses testing (Cresswell, 2009). In some

instances, however, post-positivism may include qualitative research methodologies (Cresswell, 2009). The positivism/post-positivism paradigm is where quantitative research is situated and is based on a probabilistic and mechanistic view of reality; as such most times researchers that use this method reject the traditional positivist view of the absolute truth and use the deductive form of inquiry (Parylo, 2012). The term paradigm was invented by Thomas Kuhn which refers to sets of agreement and expectations shared by associates of specialist fields of analysis, which has been seen as a way of thinking and viewing the world and making sense of it (Van Griensven, Moore, and Hall 2014).

Therefore, the assumption behind the positivist science is that the reality of an objective can be examined and discovered, as a result the scientific method reduces the researcher's effect on the data bases in order not to taint the outcomes with subjectivity (Van Griensven et al., 2014). Cresswell (2009) states that each paradigm chosen informs the investigator in philosophical assumptions about the study and in the selection of participants, tools, instruments, and methods used in the examination. The paradigm selected for this study was the positivism research philosophy which holds the view that the researcher and the topic of the study are independent entities, as it investigates the relationship between variables and exploration of the independent and dependent variables. Moreover, the paradigm dictates that the researchers should follow a rigorous, standard procedure to ensure that the participant and topic can be studied by the researcher without bias (objectivism) (Ponterotto, 2005).

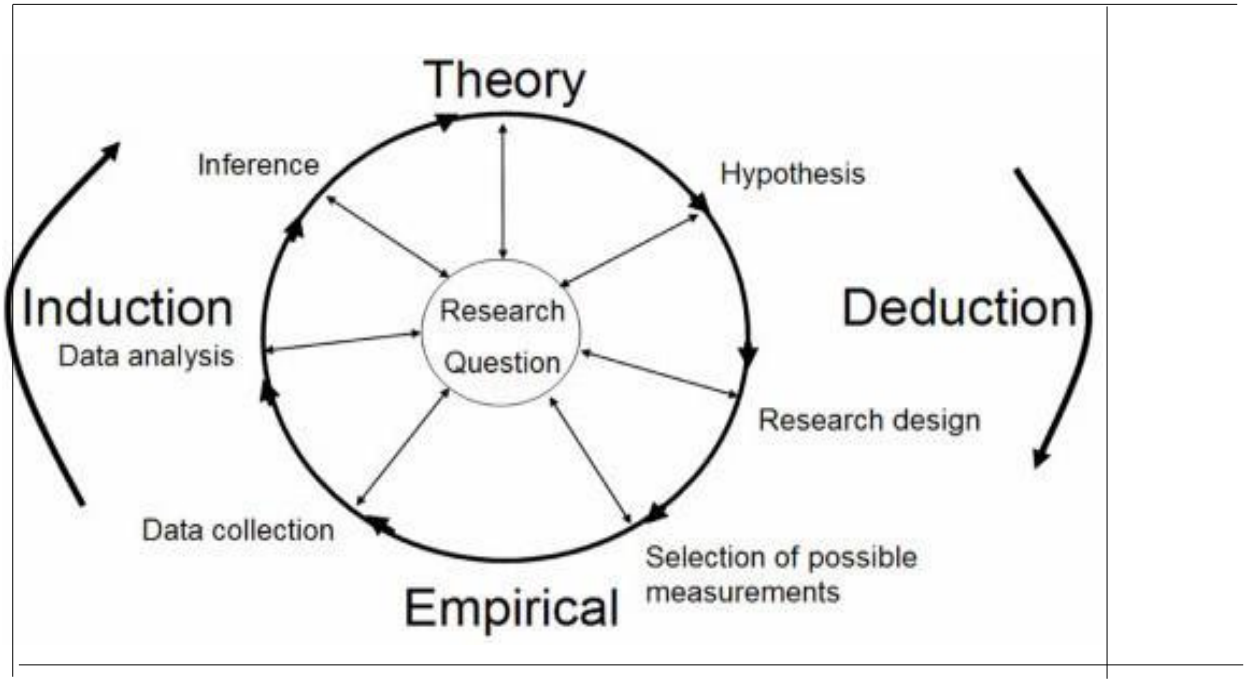
Hence, according to Krauss (2005) epistemologically, the positivist assumes that science is seen as the effective approach that obtains the truth about reality or phenomenon. The research started with a thorough investigation of related literature, followed by the development of a conceptual framework. From here, research hypotheses were developed to test the relationships between the dependent and independent variables. Furthermore, a quantitative research method was selected.

5.4. Research Design

A research design is an outline of how a marketing research project will be carried out and the process of selecting the design is subjective to the type of data, the collection technique, budget and sampling method (Shiu et al., 2009). According to Malhotra & Birks, (2012) when conducting research, a deductive or an inductive research method can be used. Deductive

research refers to the empirical study of conceptual and theoretical structures. On the contrary, inductive research develops theory through the observation of empirical reality. Furthermore, studies that take an inductive research approach follow little or no existing theoretical framework (Malhotra & Birks, 2012). Figure 5.1 shows the difference between deductive versus inductive research process. Hence, an inductive research approach begins with the empirical research from which theoretical inductions are generated, therefore it comprises the formulation of theory, built on the findings of the data collection. In contrast to an inductive approach, a deductive research approach emphasizes examining present theory through empirical research. The current research undertakes a deductive approach in which hypotheses that have been deduced from previous literature are tested.

Figure 5. 1 Deductive versus Inductive Research



Source: Malhorta & Birks (2012)

5.5. Research Method

5.5.1. Quantitative and Qualitative Research

Quantitative research undertakes a deductive approach, which has a positivism epistemology, and usually deals with numerical data, which can be said to be the most commonly used

approach for amplifying and forecasting human behavior (Cresswell, 2009). The term quantitative refers to the type of data, which is in existence of research methodologies and methods that obtain, process and account on the type of data (Van Griensven et al., 2014). Moreover, quantitative data is numerical and is based on manipulation of numbers and is highly hypothetico-deductive in nature (Van Griensven et al., 2014).

Quantitative research can be statistically analysed, in order to explain social phenomena and to examine for causal relationships between constructs. Hence, quantitative research methods use statistics to clarify the outcomes and uses induction by developing hypotheses (Van Griensven et al., 2014). Quantitative research method has been chosen as the appropriate strategy for this research, due to it allowing a large sample of data to be collected through the use of a questionnaire, which is structured as closed ended questions (Cresswell, 2009). There are several advantages and disadvantages to quantitative research, for instance, it is far less time-consuming to the qualitative research approach, and quite economical to include a large number of participants. However, the qualitative approach is practicable, not for gaining a deep understanding of peoples' behaviour and can be a challenge to analyse (Zikmund et al., 2007).

More advantages of quantitative research:

- Accommodates large sample sizes; increases generalising of results
- It is easier to administer and record questions and answers
- Ability to distinguish small differences
- Allows the use of advanced statistical analysis

This research involved the collection of quantitative data among a large group of respondents, and the results were statistically analysed in an effort to answer the research problem and also determine the cause-effect between Brand image and Brand preference (Zikmund et al., 2007).

5.5.2. Sampling Design

According to Grafstrom (2010) sampling design implementation should be simple and able to cover all the essentials parts of the sample generally in a very efficient way. Zikmund & Babin (2010) described a sample as a "subset or some part of a large population from which population characteristics are estimated". Hence, sampling is the process of investigating particular individuals from a given population of concentration, in order to understand or get their responses or behaviours towards a certain objective. The process of sampling in a given

population is quite cost effective and efficient rather than conducting research grounded on an entire population.

5.5.3. Target Population

A target population or population of interest refers to the universe of units that have the features that are required from which a sample is to be selected by the researcher (Bryman & Bell 2007). The target population should be defined exactly with tangible features, for instance, having it time and extent stated (Malhorta et al., 2007). The 'unit' of measure can be a sample of region, sample of cities, nations and firms and not necessarily a sample of human beings. It is generally agreed that 'sampling' is a central or vital element of research, which refers to a subset of the population (Malhorta & Birks, 2012). The population target of this research is the Witwatersrand University based in the City of Johannesburg, therefore shown below is the table illustrating the characteristics of the students' statistics which was a survey conducted in 2010.

Table 5. 1: Profile of WITS Students

Total student enrolments	36000
Postgraduate students	31%
International students	10%
Male students	69%
Female students	31%

Source: (University of the Witwatersrand, 2014)

The population target helps in the running and establishment of a test which Blumerberg, Cooper, & Schindler, (2008) describes as the individual elements that a researcher is directed to or seeks to make extrapolation upon.

5.5.4. Sample Frame

A sampling frame refers to a working population, researched environment which will provide the analysis of the unit in the research (Zikmund & Babin, 2010). Zikmund et, al., (2007) described sampling frame as the list of elements from which a sample will be chosen. As such, the sample used for the research was obtained from the registered students of the University of the Witwatersrand. A convenience sample of 380 students in the University of the

Witwatersrand from the age of 18 upwards was used to collect data for the purpose of the research. The age of 18 and above was used due to these being the kind of voters that will speak their minds without any iota of excuses and have the ability to make decisions on their own and answers the questions related to the influence of political party branding on voting brand preference among the youth in South Africa.

5.5.5. Sample Size

For the purpose of this present study, the sample size for this research is 380 respondents, which is statistical and relatively large giving to central limit theory; it will generate data results which are normally distributed (Selvanathan & Keller , 2011). The sample size can be described as the number of participants or respondents who will be surveyed (Lamb, Hair, McDaniel, Boshoff, Terblanche, Elliott & Klopper, 2013). Furthermore, Lamb, et, al., (2013) states that a larger sample is likely to yield more reliable and accurate data. The determination of a sample size is essential in statistical study. The Raosoft sample size calculator is used to determine the sample size.

5.5.6. Sampling Method

According to Bryman & Bell, (2007) there are two approaches to selecting a sample, which are, probability and non-probability sampling methods. A sample that has been selected using random selection is called a probability sampling; this method is used in order for each unit to have an equal chance of being selected (Bryman & Bell, 2007). The main aim of probability sampling is to minimize the possible sampling errors, hence, strengthening the validity of the outcomes. This approach is costly and time consuming. For the purpose of this research, the sampling method that is used for this research is convenience or non-probability sampling technique. This method selects respondents that are willing and conveniently available for the period of data collection. It is easy to administer, cost efficient, effective and time effective which are the main important aspects of the convenience sampling. Non-probability sampling is a technique use that trusts the decision of the researcher instead of using coincidental selection procedure to select persons for the sample group. The major disadvantage of convenience sampling is that there is no impartial way to evaluate the exactness of the results from the sample drawn (Marlhorta & Peterson, 2006).

5.5.7. Questionnaire Design

The instrument used for the collection of the primary data of this research is a questionnaire, which will be administered by the researcher to convenient and willing respondents at the Witwatersrand University in Johannesburg that are registered students from the age of 18 onwards. There are many methods of collection of data from respondents that a researcher can use, for instance, the use of telephone interviews, face to face interviews, mail, internet collections and self-administered questionnaires (Zikmund & Babin, 2010).

Questionnaires can be qualitative or quantitative; qualitative comprises open-ended questions such as requiring participants to write what they feel about the question being asked. The questionnaire comprising closed ended questions is structured in nature, which is why it is quantitative in nature. It requires participants to choose from the availability of the list of answers that are made available in the questionnaire. The questionnaire includes six sections, in alphabetical order of A, B, C, D, E and F. Furthermore, section A comprises the biographical or general information of the respondent, for example, 1) gender, 2) age, 3) employment status, 4) education level, 5) political party that appeals to you, 6) political party that might win majority of provincial elections, and 7) political party that will win the forthcoming national elections. Section B, C, D, E, F and G will employ 7 Point-Likert scales to generate answers from the participants based on the questions of the research model.

The questionnaire [Appendix A] illustrates the questions that were modified from academic journals for the use of this research and is designed in a way that it generated information on 1) Brand identity, 2) positive word of mouth, 3) brand authenticity, 4) brand image and 5) brand preference as the sub-headings as to what extent does the influence of political party branding on voting brand preference have among the youth in South Africa. The rating scale of 1 “strongly agree to 7 “strongly disagree” which can be coded in numerical form.

The distribution of the questionnaire was in one way:

- The researcher distributed the questionnaire in hard copy to the participants at the University of the Witwatersrand in Johannesburg.

5.6. Measurement Scales

5.6.1. Brand Identity

Brand identity was measured using Sääksjärvi and Samiee, (2011) 7- point item Likert scale. The dimensions were adapted to suit the context of the research. Participants were asked to rate their level of agreement on a 7-point Likert scale (1 – strongly disagree; 2 – disagree; 3 – slightly disagree; 4 – neutral; 5 – slightly agree; 6 – agree; 7 – strongly agree).
The following items were used to measure Brand identity.

Table 5. 2: Brand Identity Scale

I am familiar with the political brand that appeals to me
The political brand that appeals to me has a well-defined use /purpose (Manifesto)
The political brand that I support is uniquely different in terms of dressing from other political brand

5.6.2. Positive word of mouth

Positive word of mouth was measured using Morhart, Malar, Guevremont, Girardin & Grohmann, (2015) and (Tuškej et al., 2013) 5-item Likert scale (1 – disagree completely to 5 – agree completely). However, the scale was amended to be a 7-item Likert scale (1 – strongly disagree; 2 – disagree; 3 – slightly disagree; 4 – neutral; 5 – slightly agree; 6 – agree; 7 – strongly agree). The following items were used to measure positive word of mouth.

Table 5. 3: Positive word of mouth Scale

I transmit my personal experiences with this political brand that appeals to me to other people that I know
I give advice about this political party brand that appeals to me to people that I know
I talk about this political party brand because it offers value for money because they are adhering to their promises (service deliveries)
I would recommend this political brand to someone who seeks my advice
I say positive things about this brand to other people

5.6.3. Brand Authenticity

Brand identity was measured using Schallehn et al., (2014) 7-item Likert scale. The dimensions were adapted to suit the context of the research. Participants were asked to rate their level of agreement on a 7-point Likert scale (1 – strongly disagree; 2 – disagree; 3 – slightly disagree; 4 – neutral; 5 – slightly agree; 6 – agree; 7 – strongly agree). The following items were used to measure Brand Authenticity.

Table 5. 4: Brand Authenticity Scale

The political brand that appeals to me possesses some clear value/beliefs (which guides the brand promise)
The political party brand that appeals to me knows exactly what it stands for and does not promise anything which contradicts its essence and character
Considering its brand promise, this political party brand does not imitate other political parties
Considering its brand promise, the political party brand does not favour any racial group.
The political party brand misrepresents itself, to match present political trends
The saying "you trim your sails to every wind that blows" describes the political party brand that I support adequately

5.6.4. Mediating Variable

Pearl, (2012) states that the main purpose of mediation analysis is to reveal causal pathways between variables that are often disregarded in the valuations of non-linear models. Hence, by exploring the effect of mediators on the direct effect between X and Y, denotessignificantly to the quality of statistical analysis. Thus, this section offers an overview of the mediating variable that is used in the present research, namely: brand image.

5.6.4.1. Brand Image

Brand identity was measured using Sääksjärvi and Samiee, (2011) 7-item Likert scale. The dimensions were adapted to suit the context of the research. Participants were asked to rate their level of agreement on a 7-point Likert scale (1 – strongly disagree; 2 – disagree; 3 –

slightly disagree; 4 – neutral; 5 – slightly agree; 6 – agree; 7 – strongly agree). The following items were used to measure Brand Image.

Table 5. 5: Brand Image Scale

The political party brand offers a broad range of solutions to societal problems
The political party brand is credible/ believable in the eyes of the voters
The political brand lacks character for example (involved in lot of scandals)

5.6.5. Brand Preference

Brand preference was measured using Sääksjärvi and Samiee, (2011) 7-item Likert scale. The dimensions were adapted to suit the context of the research. Participants were asked to rate their level of agreement on a 7-point Likert scale (1 – strongly disagree; 2 – disagree; 3 – slightly disagree; 4 – neutral; 5 – slightly agree; 6 – agree; 7 – strongly agree). The following items were used to measure brand preference.

Table 5. 6: Brand Preference Scale

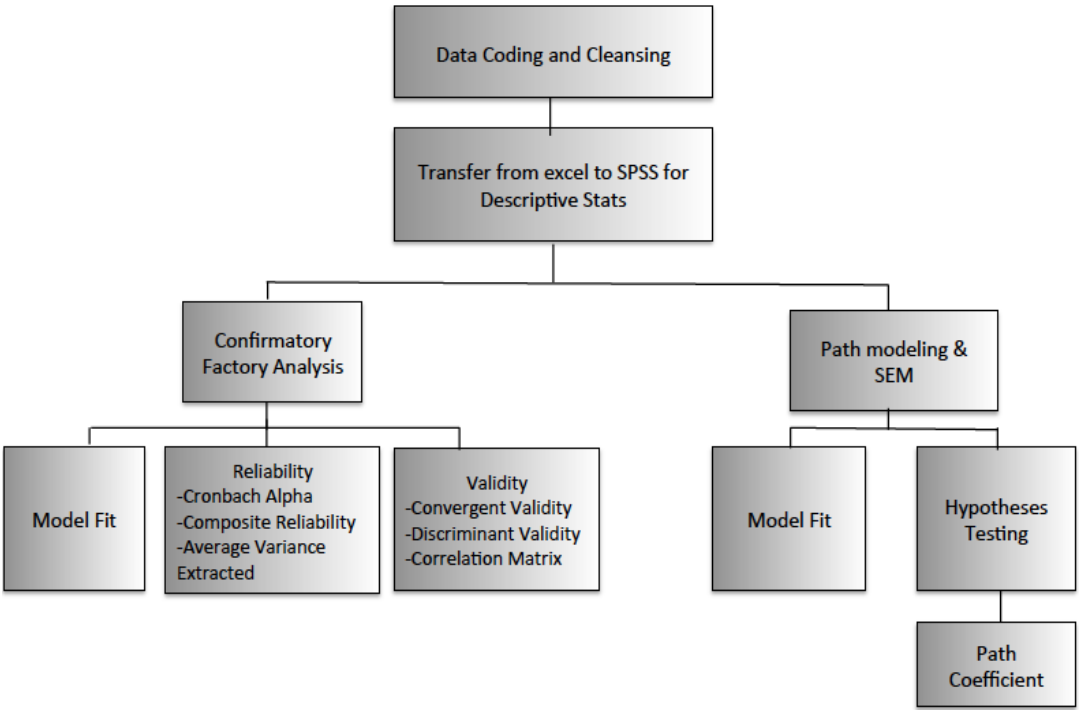
I visit the political party web site/ media/ newspaper/ information sites and electronic print frequently
I prefer this political party brand over other political parties
It is likely that I will vote this political brand products/ do business with this political brand
I definitely will donate time and effort towards supporting this political party brand
I have previously voted for this political party brand

All measurement items are adopted modified and measured on a 7-Point Likert-scale.

5.7. Statistical Modelling

The following section provides an overview (Figure 5.2) of the statistical analysis that is applied to the current study.

Figure 5. 2 Statistical Modelling



Source: Compiled by Researcher (2016)

5.8. Data Collection

Primary data was collected through a self-administered questionnaire in English which was distributed among the students of the Witwatersrand University in Johannesburg that were willing to participate in the study. A total of 400 questionnaires were distributed, however, a total of 380 were usable in the study.

On the other hand, secondary data was collected from other information formerly collected for other purposes other than that of the study at hand, though was relevant to the research subject. The researcher exploited recognized academic journals relevant to the present research to describe and express the key terms of the study obtained from the data bases available on the University of the Witwatersrand library website as well as text books available in the libraries of the University of the Witwatersrand.

5.9. Data Analysis

Data analysis is defined as the process of application of reasoning in which raw data is prepared and gathered to extract valuable information (Zikmund, 2011). The characteristics of the design will determine the type of analytic technique to be used, which may vary from simple frequency distribution to multivariate analysis, for example, two ways ANOVA and multiple regression. Zikmund (2011) identified the process of data analysis in three stages, which includes; coding, editing and statistical analysis.

After collection of data or questionnaires from the participants, editing was the first step. This process helps in getting the data organised for coding and the application of two types of data editing was implemented which was the field and the in-house editing. Field editing is done immediately at the spot where the administration of questionnaires is being carried out and is to avoid any form of technical omissions like responses that might have been written inconsistently. In-house editing is to guarantee that the data would not be affected during the inputting and storage on the statistical software.

Zikmund, (2011) coding refers to the data that has been gathered to be coded in an Excel spread sheet before it could be analysed, then a descriptive statistic was applied to show the standard deviation and mean of each element. The two important soft wares used in the data process were (SPSS) Statistical Packages for the Social Science used to run the descriptive statistics and (AMOS) Analysis of Moment Structures used to conduct the Path Modelling and Confirmatory Factor Analysis in order to verify the validity, the reliability and model fit of the data.

5.9.1. Advanced Statistical Analysis

SPSS generated advanced statistical analysis and the researcher carried out the subsequent statistical analysis on the data:

- The Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) test to examine the relationship between the research models: Confirmatory factor analysis.
- The Cronbach's Alpha test to check for the reliability and Composite reliability (CR)
- Chi-Square test for the independence of association between the variables and Average Variance Extracted (AVE).
- Model Fit (Goodness of fit)

5.10. Descriptive Statistics

The purpose of descriptive statistics is to acquire the basic responses to the questions, for example, 'are youth(s) familiar with the political brand that appeals to them; can they say a positive thing about the political brand to other people; does the political brand that appeals to them possesses a clear value (authentication) of their promises; is the political brand image credible in the eyes of the youth or voters?' and alignment of responses from strongly disagree to strongly agree in harmony to the scales. Descriptive statistics deals with measure of different aspects of a population. Simple summaries about the dimensions and samples of the data can be established in the form of frequency tables, bar charts or pie charts to show main data components. It also indicates the basic data of the main constituents of the research, such as the biographical or demographical data and cluster bar graph was used. In this research, the demographic characteristics were explored using the descriptive statistics (Hsu and Shine, 2007).

5.11. Measurement Model

The following section offers an overview of testing the measurement instrument for reliability and validity.

5.11.1. Reliability and Validity Measurement Scales

Reliability and validity are both in relation to determine the accuracy and logic of a test. Reliability is a key indicator or instrument that measures the internal consistency of a test, and it has a coefficient greater than 0.6 Cronbach's alpha and is being done numerically which shows that the reliability of the research is good. Validity on the other hand is to find out if the instrument measurement tool has measured what it was intended for. Validity asks the question if the experiment is personalised to properly answer the questions being asked, while reliability entails improved comparable experiments. Reliability is measured by repeatedly assessing the variables in the question, any value less than 0.6 is considered as an unsatisfactory reliability for that specific construct but any value above 0.6 is an indication of a good construct (Hair et al., 2009).

5.11.2. Cronbach Alpha Coefficient

To determine the Cronbach's alpha, the factor loadings and Composite Reliability (CR) values, the use of SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Science 23.0 and (AMOS) Analysis of Moment Structures 23.0 software were used to determine reliability. By examining the inter-correlation between the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and the research construct and the discriminate validity (shared variance) the discriminant and convergent validity of the research was determined. Reliability of the instrument describes the extent to which the scale yields consistent results when being re-used (Hair et al., 2009). Retesting is the techniques that are been used in testing reliability (Hair et al., 2009).

5.11.3. Composite Reliability

Wallace and Sheetz, (2014) state that in reliability analysis, a satisfactory CR value has to be above 0.7 which is the minimum threshold of survey research. The internal reliability and validity of each construct was assessed using this index test, composite reliability (CR). Composite Reliability was calculated by applying the formula below:

$CR\eta = (\Sigma\gamma y_i)^2 / [(\Sigma\gamma y_i)^2 + \Sigma\varepsilon_i]$,

This formula is understood in the following manner: Composite Reliability = (square of the summation of the factor loadings) / {(square of the summation of the factor loadings) + (summation of error variances)} (Hair et al., 2009).

5.11.4. Average Value Extracted (AVE)

It is used to determine both convergent and discriminant validity. Average variance extracted (AVE) test compares the variance-extracted estimates for two constructs of interest with the square of the correlation of the constructs. The validity of the test is demonstrated if both variance-extracted estimates are greater than the squared correlation. When the values are above 0.4 or greater than (0.05), it shows that the indicators represent the latent construct correctly (Fraering & Minor, 2006). Average variance extracted can be calculated as follows;

AVE = {(summation of the squared of factor loadings) / {(summation of the squared of factor loadings) + (summation of error variances)}. The formula below is used to calculate the Average Variance Extracted (AVE): $V\eta=\Sigma\lambda yi2/(\Sigma\lambda yi2+\Sigma\varepsilon i)$.

5.11.5. Convergent Validity

Schwab, (2006) states that Convergent validity indicates high integration between scores of two or more different procedures of the same construct. That is, it clarifies the correlation between scales in the same direction, with other measures of the same construct, and thus offers an indication of the validity of the construct and hence, the item loadings should be greater than 0.5 for a validity acceptability (Schwab, 2006).

5.11.6. Discriminant Validity

According to Schwab, (2006) Discriminant validity refers to when the scores from events of different constructs do not unite or converge. Therefore, providing a transparency on the uniqueness of the measurement construct. In other words, the heterogeneity between different constructs are proven (Schwab, 2006). Discriminant validity values of less than 0.8 are considered to be high and accurate, thus, to evaluate the presence of discriminant validity the inter-construct correlation matrix is used.

5.11.7. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

The test determines the validity of measurement scales or examines scale accuracy, which involves convergent reliability and discriminant validity using the AMOS 23.0. Confirmatory factor analysis assesses the hypotheses about the constructs that the test is measuring as such providing the empirical scientific interpretation and, also, is used to investigate that indicator variables load highly on predetermined factors, but do not load highly on unrelated factors, for example, the Incremental Fit Index (IFI), Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Chi-squared/degrees of freedom, Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), Normed Fit Index (NFI), Random Measure of Standard Error Approximation (RMSEA) and Composite Fit Index (CFI) all will be used to test the model fit (Wallace and Sheetz, 2014). The reason why CFA was used for the purpose of this research is twofold: firstly, to check the standardized factor loadings. Wallace and Sheetz, (2014) argue that the standardized factor loading values should be more than 0.6 in order to indicate strong connotation and secondly, to confirm that the relationships between the experiential variables and the latent variables met the unidimensional assumption. Confirmatory factor analysis is used to attain the standard regression weights (Wallace and Sheetz, 2014).

5.11.8. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) is one the techniques of choice for researchers in all disciplines especially in the social and business sciences and is mainly for the tenacity of analysing data, which has become a valued statistical technique to investigate theory in different fields of knowledge (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008). Another important use of SEM is to test the relationship between the research models. Structural equation modelling is defined as the multivariate statistical technique used to study the relationship between constructs or (latent variables) and observed variables that establish a model (Qureshi and Kang, 2014). SEM permits for multiple regression equation simultaneously and incorporates the latent variables and accounts for measurement errors in the approximation process (Nusair and Hua, 2010).

5.11.9. Model chi-square ($\chi 2$)

The Chi-square fit tests the hypothesis of exact fit in a population and the value is the traditional measure for assessing overall model fit and measures the magnitude of incongruity between the sample and fitted covariance's matrices (Hooper, et., al, 2008). Chi-square statistics are often considered to be either a 'lack of fit' or 'badness of fit' if the model provides an insignificant result of 0.05 threshold (Hooper, et. al, 2008). According to Chinomona (2011) a Chi-square value less than three 0.3 is measured as the acceptable model fit or good fit. While the Chi-Squared test maintains its popularity as a fit statistic, it can be said to have some pitfalls in its use. Firstly, McIntosh, (2006) states that Chi-Square test shoulders multivariate normality and severe deviations from normality can lead to the outcome or result in model rejections even when the model is properly specified. Secondly, Chi-Square is sensitive to sample size due to it being a statistical significance test, in other words, it nearly always rejects the model when large samples are being used (Hooper, et., al, 2008). On the other hand, where small samples are used, the Chi-Square statistic lacks power and hence, may not discriminate between good fitting models and poor fitting models (Hooper, et., al, 2008).

5.11.10. Comparative Fit Index (CFI)

According to Tabachnick and Fidell, (2007) the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) is a reviewed form of the NFI which considers sample size that executes well even when sample size is small. Bentler (1990) was the first to introduce the index and subsequently included part of the fit

indices in his EQS program (Hooper, et., al, 2008). Similar to the NFI, this statistic assumes that all latent variables are uncorrelated (independence / null model) and compares the sample covariance matrix with this null model (Hooper, et., al, 2008). The values for this statistic range between 0.0 and 1.0 with values closer to 1.0 indicating good fit. Moreover, a value of CFI ≥ 0.95 is presently recognised as indicative of good fit (Hooper, et., al, 2008). CFI index is involved in all SEM programs and is one of the most popularly reported fit indices due to it being significant with sample size (Hooper, et., al, 2008). For the purpose of this research, an acceptable CFI statistic is a value of greater than 0.9.

5.11.11. Goodness of fit Index (GFI)

Goodness-of-fit statistics was generated by Joreskog and Sorbom as a substitute to the Chi-Square test and "it calculates the proportion of variance that is accounted for by the estimated population covariance" (Hooper et.,al, 2008). The Chi-Square value is the traditional measure for the evaluation of overall model fit and it assesses the magnitude of the discrepancy between the fitted covariance's matrices and the sample (Hooper et. al., 2008). This statistic ranges from 0 to 1 with larger samples increasing its value. When there are a large number of degrees of freedom in comparison to sample size, the GFI has a downward bias. Furthermore, GFI increases as the number of parameters increases and also has an upward bias with large samples. Conventionally a cut-off point of 0.90 has been recommended for the GFI however, replication studies have shown that when factor loadings and sample sizes are low a higher cut-off of 0.95 is more appropriate (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007; Hooper et.,al, 2008). For the purpose of this study, an acceptable GFI statistic is a value of greater than 0.9.

5.12. Limitations

It is very important to be mindful of the quantitative rigour, referring to reliability as trustworthiness and consistency and validity as strength of statement, correctness, credibility or plausibility (Van Griensven et al., 2014). Wrem, Stevens, and Loudon, (2007) state that in quantitative research there are ways that rigour can creep in such as environmental factors, participants' mood, vagueness in questions and stress, as such the researcher applied the instruments of validity and reliability to reduce the consequence of the errors.

5.13. Conclusion

This chapter presented the methodology used to collect the data. Firstly, an explanation of the philosophical approach used for the study was discussed. This was followed by discussion of the theory underlying the research design, as well as the methodology adopted for this study. A comprehensive justification and rationale for the chosen method was discussed. This was followed by the sampling design, and the measurement instrument development that provided an overview of the scales that were adapted for the purpose of the present study. Lastly, the statistical analysis that was applied to the study was presented, followed by a description of the ethical considerations. The next chapter presents the data analysis, and findings from the study.

CHAPTER 6: DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the statistical analysis and empirical results of the research obtained from the data collected on how political party branding influences voting brand preference among the youth in South Africa. An overview is given of the descriptive statistics and accompanying tables, pie and bar charts. Thereafter, an analysis of the reliability and validity of the measurement instruments is considered, followed by an overview of CFA results and lastly, path modelling results are presented and analysed.

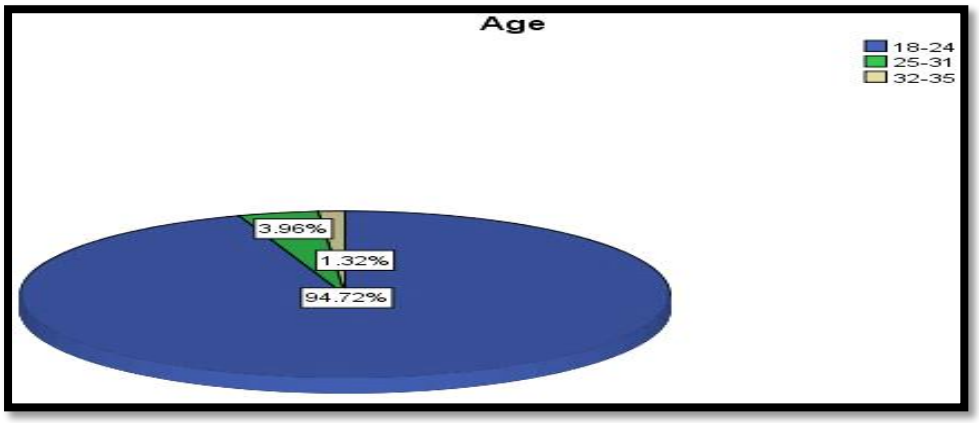
6.2. Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics are presented to illustrate characteristic information about the sample; it mainly focuses on demographic or descriptive traits of the sampled population. The aim is to discuss characteristics of the sample population in a shortened yet understandable manner.

6.2.1. Age

Figure 6.1 presents the age groups among the sample of respondents, followed by a discussion.

Figure 6. 1 Age Profile

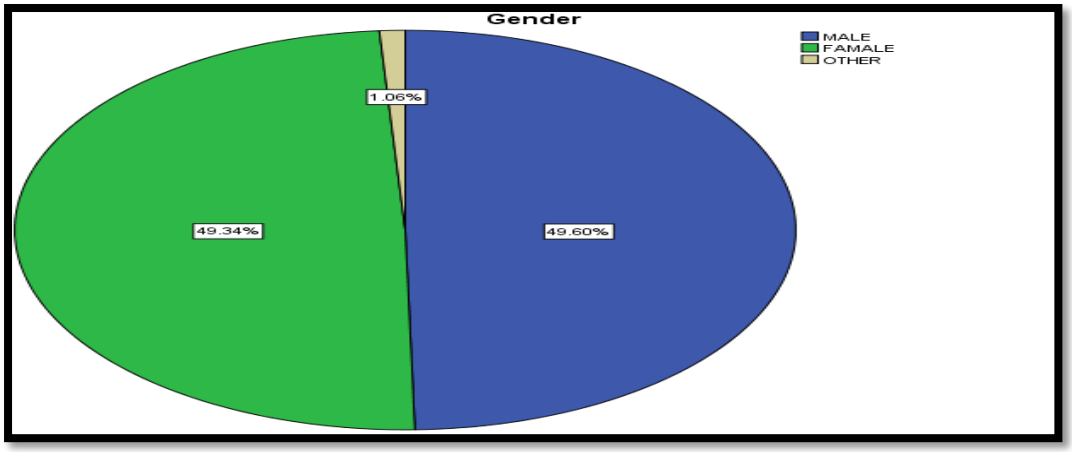


94.72 percent of the respondents are between the ages of 18 and 24, with 3.96 percent between 25 and 31, and 1.32 percent being between 32 and 35 years of age.

6.2.2. Gender

The gender profile of respondents is represented in the Figure 6.2 and is followed by a discussion.

Figure 6. 2: Gender Profile

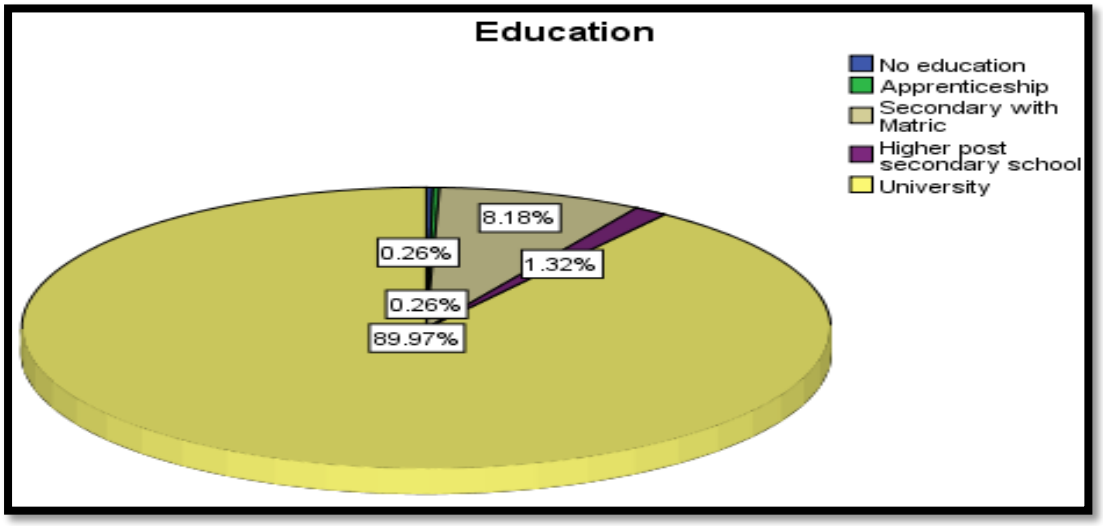


Of the respondents, 49.60 percent are male and 49.34 percent were female while 1.06 percent represents the other, hence it can be said to be normally distributed among the respondents to get a desirable result.

6.2.3. Education

The education profile of respondents is presented in Figure 6.3 and is followed by a discussion.

Figure 6. 3: Education Profile



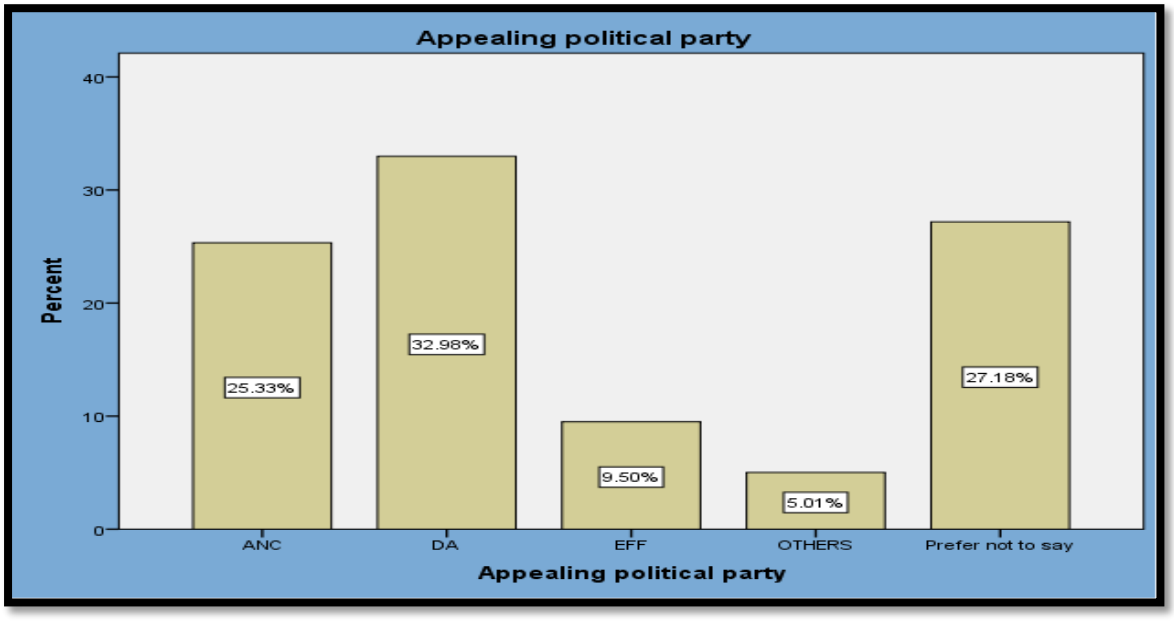
In relation to education, the profile indicates that the majority of the respondents (89.97%) are educated on a university level, while 8.18% and 1,32% respectively either have a secondary certificate with matric, or higher post-secondary school certificate while in university to obtain

a degree. The remainder, which accounts for 0.26% of respondents, has no education or has an apprenticeship.

6.2.4. Appealing Political Party

The political party that is most appealing to the respondents is represented in Figure 6.4 and is followed by a discussion.

Figure 6. 4: Appealing Political Party

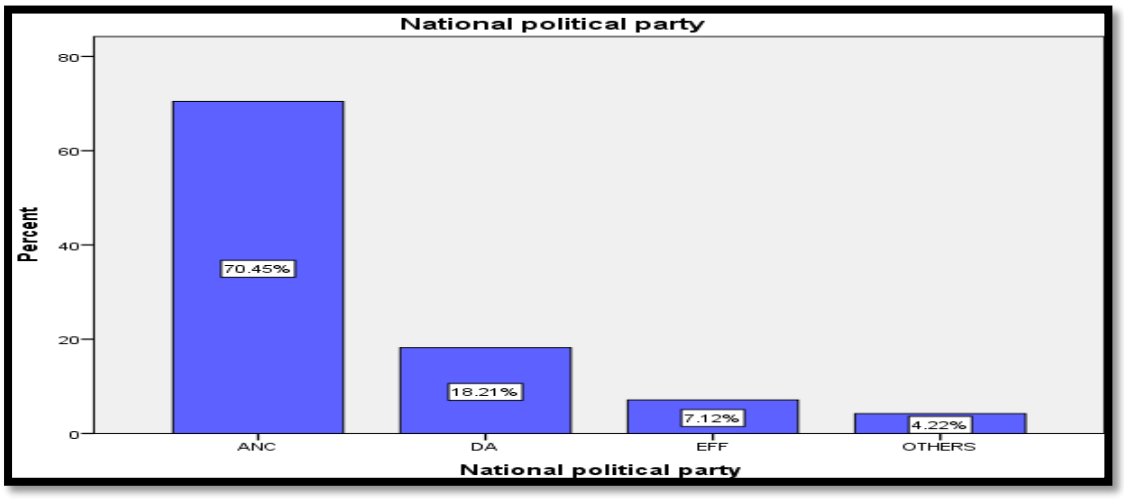


In the graph above, it shows that the most appealing political party to the respondents is the DA with 32.98% of the profile, and 27.18% respondents prefer not to say, stating that it is personal and would not want to disclose it, followed by the ANC with a close relation of 26.33% and the EFF with 9.50% less majority and 5.01% as others (parties).

6.2.4. National Political Party

The political party that will win the national election, as viewed by the respondents, is presented in Figure 6.5 and is followed by an interpretation.

Figure 6. 5: National Political Party

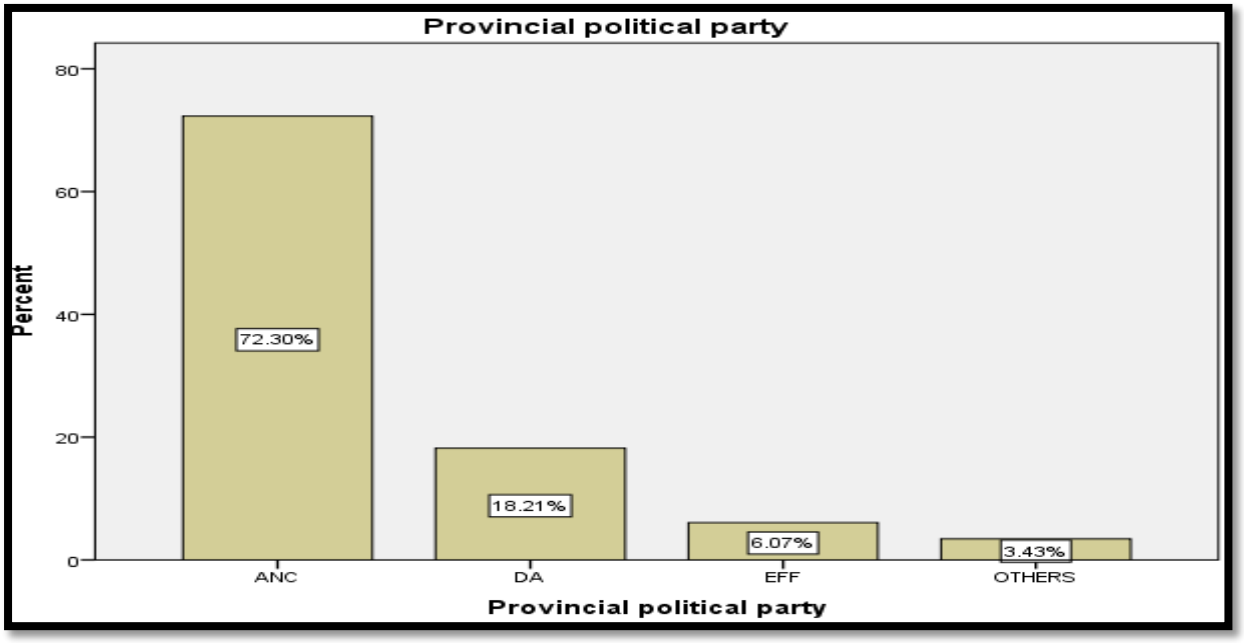


In terms of the political party winning the national election, the profile indicates that the majority of the respondents (70.45%) are aligning with the ANC winning, while 18.21% is for the DA and 7.12% for the EFF . The remainder, which accounts for 4.22% of participants, are for others (political parties).

6.2.5. Provincial Political Party

Figure 6.6 presents the political party that might win the provincial election according to the respondents (youths of South Africa) followed by a discussion.

Figure 6. 6: Provincial Political Party



The highest percentage goes to the current sitting provincial political party which is the ANC with 72.30% almost the same as the national election profile, followed by the DA with 18.21% same as the national and EFF with 6.07% and others 3.43%.

Enews, (2016), one of the South African television stations, stated the elections 2016 data shows the voting results of the election. The 2016 national voting results show that the results gathered from the present study do tally with the results of the election that was held in August 2016, showing positive. Though it seems that the percentage was quite different, but in correlation of the parties involved, it tallies. From the table below, it can be observed that voters might have preferred one party over another, or another party was appealing to them due to some certain personal attributes but, as predicted, still believe that another political party might win. It might be because of some political branding advantage during or before the election, hence there is a need for parties involved to implement and create awareness of what the party really represents, in essence; being authentic, the identity, the image of the brand. This can enhance the capacity and ability of voters and youths of the nation to adapt and believe in the party, thereby developing a brand preference of the party over others. The table below shows the current voting results for South Africa in 2016.

6.3. Current Voting Results for South Africa

Table 6. 1 Current Voting Results for South Africa

Registered Voters Counted:	26333353
Total Valid Votes:	38524158
Total Votes Cast:	39243059
Spoilt Votes:	718901
% Voter Turnout:	57.97

Table 6. 2 Political parties and their percentage

Political Party	* Percentage of total valid votes
ANC	56%
DA	25%
EFF	8%
IFP	5%
INDEPENDENT	1%
OTHER	6%

6.3. Measurement Instrument Assessment

Brand identity, positive word of mouth, brand authenticity, brand image and brand preference are the constructs under study and were measured to verify their reliability and validity test. In this section the Cronbach's Alpha, Composite reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) were conducted so as to measure the reliability, analyse, discuss and justify. The results are presented in the Table 6.3 below.

Table 6. 3: Accuracy Analysis Statistics

Research Construct		Descriptive Statistics				Cronbach's Test		C.R. Value	AVE Value	Highest Shared Variance	Factor Loading
		Mean Value		Standard Deviation		Item-total	α value				
BID	BID1	4,834	4,860	1,622	1,648	0,602	0,790	0,804	0,580	0,350	0,725
	BID2	4,992		1,589		0,714					0,862
	BID3	4,755		1,734		0,585					0,686
WOM	WOM1	3,945	4,237	1,805	1,967	0,630	0,806	0,815	0,476	0,381	0,630
	WOM2	3,712		1,864		0,661					0,626
	WOM3	3,942		1,733		0,668					0,749
	WOM4	4,773		1,804		0,671					0,880
	WOM5	4,815		2,630		0,443					0,507
BA	BA1	4,773	4,439	1,602	1,646	0,585	0,682	0,722	0,390	0,346	0,877
	BA2	4,575		1,654		0,583					0,849
	BA3	4,873		1,565		0,538					0,707
	BA4	4,739		1,697		0,440					0,547
	BA5	3,594		1,830		0,061					-0,099
	BA6	4,082		1,530		0,359					0,199
BIM	BIM1	4,802	4,825	1,575	1,560	0,615	0,762	0,763	0,618	0,311	-0,833
	BIM2	4,847		1,544		0,615					-0,736
BPR	BPR1	2,931	4,195	1,840	1,938	0,380	0,756	0,780	0,441	0,381	0,388
	BPR2	5,158		1,732		0,612					0,805
	BPR3	4,881		1,867		0,643					0,839
	BPR4	4,137		1,865		0,689					0,757
	BPR5	3,868		2,383		0,368					0,357

BID-Brand Identity; WOM-Positive Word of Mouth; BA-Brand Authenticity BIM-Brand Image; BPR-Brand Preference

6.3.1 Testing for Reliability

The Cronbach alpha coefficient, the composite reliability (CR) and the Average value extracted (AVE) are the measurement instruments for reliability and this section provides the results from these three tests.

6.3.1.1 Cronbach Alpha Coefficient

Lee Cronbach in 1951 developed the Alpha as a measurement of the internal consistency of a scale, which describes the degree to which all the items in a test measure the same construct (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). According to Tavakol and Dennick (2011) a Cronbach's Alpha that meets or exceeds 0.7 is regarded as adequate and reliable. When the alpha coefficient is

low it represents that there is poor interrelatedness between items, since the use of Cronbach's alpha has been largely used to measure reliability of a scale (Hair et al., 2009). From the results above, it is evident that all the variables indicate acceptable levels of reliability and the Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranged from 0.682 to 0.806 which confirms the reliability of the measures used in the present research. Furthermore, this study can conclude that the items are reliable.

6.4 Composite Reliability (CR)

Subsequent to the analysis of the Cronbach alpha coefficient, internal reliability was also assessed using the Composite Reliability (CR) index. According to Peterson and Kim, (2013) Cronbach alpha has been broadly used to measure reliability, but because of having a lower bound, it undervalues or underestimates true reliability. According to Yang & Lai (2010) and Nunkoo et,al., (2012) an acceptable CR value must exceed 0.7. In this study, the CR 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 manual calculation of the (CR) of the constructs are shown below the table and the results are presented below Table 6.5

Table 6. 4: Composite Reliability Estimates

Standised regression Estimates (all variables and instruments included)							
				Composite reliability (CR)			
					mmation of error ter		CRη=(Σλyi)2/[(Σλyi)2+(Σεi)]
				(∑λYi)²	ɛ́i	∑ɛ́i	CR
BID	<---	BID1	0,725	5,167	0,474	1,261	0,804
	<---	BID2	0,862		0,257		
	<---	BID3	0,686		0,529		
WOM	<---	WOM1	0,630	11,506	0,603	2,619	0,815
	<---	WOM2	0,626		0,608		
	<---	WOM3	0,749		0,439		
	<---	WOM4	0,880		0,226		
	<---	WOM5	0,507		0,743		
BA	<---	BA1	0,877	9,486	0,231	3,662	0,722
	<---	BA2	0,849		0,279		
	<---	BA3	0,707		0,500		
	<---	BA4	0,547		0,701		
	<---	BA5	-0,099		0,990		
	<---	BA6	0,199		0,960		
BIM	<---	BIM1	-0,833	2,4618	0,306	0,764	0,763
	<---	BIM2	-0,736		0,458		
BPR	<---	BPR1	0,388	9,8973	0,849	2,797	0,780
	<---	BPR2	0,805		0,352		
	<---	BPR3	0,839		0,296		
	<---	BPR4	0,757		0,427		
	<---	BPR5	0,357		0,873		

The outcomes in Table 6.4 above designate that composite reliability (C.R.) indices were between 0.722 and 0.815. These values exceeded the estimate measures used by past literature. Using the results of the construct 'Brand identity' to demonstrate, the calculation for Composite Reliability was shown as follows:

a) Brand Identity

Step 1: $(\Sigma\gamma y_i)^2 = (0.725 + 0.862 + 0.686)^2 = 5.167$

Step2: $\Sigma\varepsilon_i = [(1-0.725^2) + (1-0.862^2) + (1-0.686^2) = 1.261$

Step 3: $CR\eta = 5.167 / (5.167 + 1.261) = 0.804$

b) Positive Word of- mouth

Step 1: $(\Sigma\gamma y_i)^2 = (0.630 + 0.626 + 0.749 + 0.880 + 0.507)^2 = 11.506$

Step 2: $\Sigma\varepsilon_i = [(1-0.630^2) + (1-0.626^2) + (1-0.749^2) + (1-0.880^2) + (1-0.507^2) = 2.619$

Step 3: $CR\eta = 11.506 / (11.506 + 2.619) = 0.815$

c) Brand Authenticity

Step 1: $(\Sigma\gamma y_i)^2 = (0.877 + 0.849 + 0.707 + 0.547 + 0.099 + 0.199)^2 = 9.486$

Step 2: $\Sigma\varepsilon_i = [(1-0.877^2) + (1-0.849^2) + (1-0.707^2) + (1-0.547^2) + (1-0.099^2) + (1-0.199^2) = 3.662$

Step 3: $CR\eta = 9.486 / (9.486 + 3.662) = 0.722$

d) Brand Image

Step 1: $(\Sigma\gamma y_i)^2 = (0.833 + 0.736)^2 = 2.461$

Step 2: $\Sigma\varepsilon_i = [(1-0.833^2) + (1-0.736^2) = 0.764$

Step 3: $CR\eta = 2.461 / (2.461 + 0.764) = 0.763$

e) Brand Preference

Step 1: $(\Sigma\gamma y_i)^2 = (0.388 + 0.805 + 0.839 + 0.757 + 0.357)^2 = 9.897$

Step 2: $\Sigma\varepsilon_i = [(1-0.388^2) = (1-0.805^2) + (1-0.839^2) + (1-0.757^2) + (1-0.357^2) = 2.797$

Step 3: $CR\eta = 9.897 / (9.897 + 2.797) = 0.780$

6.5. Average Variance Extracted

According to Nusair & Hua, (2010) the average variance extracted estimate reveals the complete amount of variance in the indicators accounted for by the latent construct. Higher values for the variance extracted estimate (greater than 0.5) disclose that the indicators represent the latent construct, however values less than 0.5 will be adequate if the composite reliability is higher than 0.6 (Fraering & Minor, 2006., Huang, Wang, Wu, and Wang, 2013). Hence, Fraering & Minor, (2006) argue also that it is desirable if the values meet 0.4 for the construct to be measured reliably. Furthermore, to calculate the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) the standardised factor loading values in the CFA results are used. Table 6.6 below provides the evidence that the AVE for all the variables is between 0.390 and 0.618, providing evidence for acceptable levels of scale reliability.

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

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

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

Using the results of the construct BID to prove, the calculation for AVE was conducted as follows:

Step 1: $\Sigma\lambda yi^2 = (0.725^2 + 0.862^2 + 0.686^2) = 1.739$

Step 2: $\Sigma\varepsilon i = (1-0.725)^2 + (1-0.862)^2 + (1-0.686)^2 = 1.261$

Step 3: $V\eta = 1.739 / (1.739 + 1.261) = 0.580$

The above steps were demonstrated when calculating the AVE of each of the study constructs. As specified in Table 6.5 below, it thereby confirms a satisfactory demonstration of the latent construct by the items and are internally consistent.

Table 6. 5 : The calculations for Average Variance Extracted

			Estimate	λyi²	∑λyi²	ėi	∑ėi	∑λyi² / (∑λyi² + ∑ėi)
BID	<---	BID1	0,725	0,526	1,739	0,474	1,261	0,580
	<---	BID2	0,862	0,743		0,257		
	<---	BID3	0,686	0,471		0,529		
WOM	<---	WOM1	0,630	0,397	2,381	0,603	2,619	0,476
	<---	WOM2	0,626	0,392		0,608		
	<---	WOM3	0,749	0,561		0,439		
	<---	WOM4	0,880	0,774		0,226		
	<---	WOM5	0,507	0,257		0,743		
BA	<---	BA1	0,877	0,769	2,338	0,231	3,662	0,390
	<---	BA2	0,849	0,721		0,279		
	<---	BA3	0,707	0,500		0,500		
	<---	BA4	0,547	0,299		0,701		
	<---	BA5	-0,099	0,010		0,990		
	<---	BA6	0,199	0,040		0,960		
BIM	<---	BIM1	-0,833	0,694	1,236	0,306	0,764	0,618
	<---	BIM2	-0,736	0,542		0,458		
BPR	<---	BPR1	0,388	0,151	2,203	0,849	2,797	0,441
	<---	BPR2	0,805	0,648		0,352		
	<---	BPR3	0,839	0,704		0,296		
	<---	BPR4	0,757	0,573		0,427		
	<---	BPR5	0,357	0,127		0,873		

6.6. Testing for Validity

Chinomona, (2014) states that to evaluate discriminant validity, the AVE of the construct should be greater than the other model of the construct and the shared variance between the constructs. The level to which a measurement represents characteristics that exist in the constructs that were being investigated is called validity. This study will explore construct validity using the following measures: a correlation matrix, the average value extracted (AVE), the factor loadings and Shared value (SV).

6.6.1. Construct Validity

Shui et., al., (2009) argues that construct validity considers the extent to which variables in a study are precisely and completely identified prior to hypothesising any functional relationships.

6.6.2. Convergent Validity

Bryman et al., (2007) state that convergent validity permits the evaluation of a scale if it will be consistent in measuring the same concept under different circumstances and hence, Carlson & Herdman, (2012) relate to the weaker convergent validity when the value deviates from 1 which shows that there is a possible problem in the communication of the two measurement constructs. According to Shwab, (2006) the value is supposed to meet or be greater than 0.5. The table 6.6 below shows the results for the factor loading estimates of the variables in the constructs.

Table 6. 6: Factor Loading Estimates

Research Construct		Factor Loading
BID	BID1	0,725
	BID2	0,862
	BID3	0,686
WOM	WOM1	0,630
	WOM2	0,626
	WOM3	0,749
	WOM4	0,880
	WOM5	0,507
BA	BA1	0,877
	BA2	0,849
	BA3	0,707
	BA4	0,547
	BA5	-0,099
	BA6	0,199
BIM	BIM1	-0,833
	BIM2	-0,736
BPR	BPR1	0,388

	BPR2	0,805
	BPR3	0,839
	BPR4	0,757
	BPR5	0,357

From the table above, it is palpable that the majority of the items in the construct had the loadings exceeding the minimum threshold of 0.5. Hence, the majority of the loadings ranged between 0.5 and 0.88, with only four item loadings below 0.5. From the three items making the brand image, one item was deleted. This specifies acceptable separate item convergent validity, with more than 50 percent of each item's variance being shared with its corresponding variable. This indication supports the convergent validity and accuracy of the results of the study and scale items.

6.7. Discriminant Validity

6.7.1. Correlation Matrix

Malhotra et al. (2007) states that discriminant validity calculates if a measure does not correlate with other constructs from which it is hypothetical, therefore this distinction between constructs indicates discriminant validity. To assess discriminant validity, the AVE of the construct should be greater than the other model of the construct (Chinomona, 2014) and the shared variance (SV) between the construct (Chinomona, 2014). Table 6.8 below lists the correlation matrix with the square root AVE on the diagonal and correlation among the constructs. As shown in Table 6.7 the diagonal elements are 1 which are greater than the off-diagonal elements in the constant columns and rows, consequently approving that discriminant validity positively exists. In the table below, the highest correlation was between brand preference and word of mouth, which has the value (0.617) and the lowest correlation was between brand image and word of mouth with the value of (0.442), hence, indicating the existence of discriminant validity and is significant.

Table 6. 7: Inter-construct correlations matrix

	BID	WOM	BA	BIM	BPR
BID	1				
WOM	.592**	1			
BA	.550**	.588**	1		
BIM	.454**	.442**	.558**	1	
BPR	.588**	.617**	.557**	.450**	1
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).					

6.8. Average Value Extracted (AVE) and Shared variance (SV)

According to Nusair and Hau, (2010) the AVE value should be greater than the shared variance (SV) value, therefore following the analysis of the inter-construct correlation matrix or values, the discriminant validity was further examined. Fraering and Minor, (2006) state that it is perfect for the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) to be greater than 0.4 for the shared variance of the study to be measured reliable. The Table 6.8 below presents the shared variance values.

6.8.1. Highest Shared Variance

Table 6. 8: Shared variance

	BID	**WOM**	**BA**	**BIM**	**BPR**
BID	1				
WOM	0.350	1			
BA	0.303	0.346	1		
BIM	0.206	0.195	0.311	1	
BPR	0.346	0.381	0.310	0.203	1

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

In Table 6.9 below, the outcome of the average variance extracted (AVE) and the highest shared variance (SV) indicate the following: the average variance extracted (AVE) of BID is 0.580 which is greater than that of the square of the shared variance of BID and WOM. Similarly, the AVE for WOM is (0.476), BA is (0.390), BIM is (0.618), and BPR is (0.441) are all greater than, or nearer to, the highest shared variance (SV) values. This indicates that there is an existence of discriminant validity.

Table 6. 9: Average Value Extracted (AVE) and Highest Shared Variance (SV)

Research Construct		AVE Value	Highest Shared Variance
BID	BID1	0,580	0,350
	BID2		
	BID3		
WOM	WOM1	0,476	0,381
	WOM2		
	WOM3		
	WOM4		
	WOM5		
BA	BA1	0,390	0,346
	BA2		
	BA3		
	BA4		
	BA5		
	BA6		
BIM	BIM1	0,618	0,311
	BIM2		
BPR	BPR1	0,441	0,381
	BPR2		
	BPR3		
	BPR4		
	BPR5		

6.9. Structural Equation Modelling

The current research involved structural equation modelling (SEM) for the drive of analysing the data for the study and SEM is regarded as an advanced and favoured technique most researchers use across all disciplines (Nusair & Hua, 2010; Byrne, 2012). It is used for modelling complex relationships between indirectly and directly observed constructs.

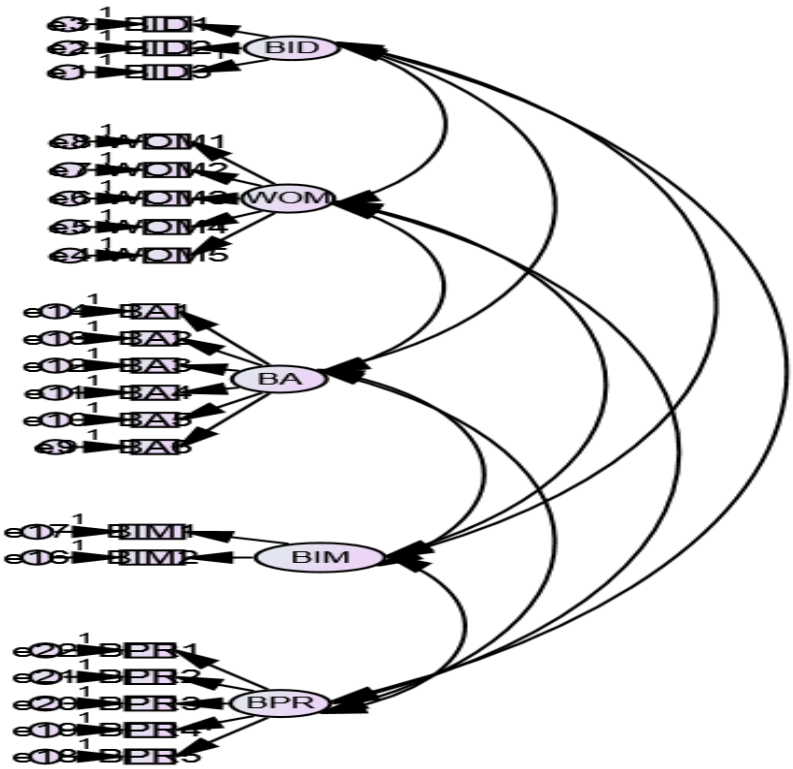
6.10. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

6.10.1. Model Fit Assessment

Xiong et al., 2015) state that the CFA models were mainly used for validation of current or newly developed frameworks and the SEM models were mainly used for exploring the interrelationships among latent variables. A two-step procedure was projected by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) for assessing model fit encompassing confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and hypotheses testing. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was mainly performed to examine scale accuracy (comprising discriminant validity, reliability and convergent validity) of the multiple-item construct measures using AMOS 23.

CFA allows for the description among indicator uniqueness (error variances) that can have significant importance. Thus, the CFA is greater in terms of its ability to evaluate every source of invariance in the factor solution and its modelling flexibility (Brown, 2006). The diagram below shows the Latent variables which are denoted by the oval shape and the observed variables were signified by the rectangular shapes. In addition, the observed variables are measurement errors thus represented by smaller circular shapes. The bi-directional arrows indicate the relationship between latent variables. Figure 6.7 presents the CFA model, followed by a discussion of the model fit indices.

Figure 6. 7: CFA Model



Note:

- **BID =** Brand Identity
- **WOM =** Positive Word of Mouth
- **BA** = Brand Authenticity
- **BIM** = Brand Image
- **BPR** = Brand Preference

6.11. Model Fit Indices/ Results

This section shows the analysis of the model fit by assessing a number of indices, to find out the level of good model fit of the sample data. The following indices are examined and the results are as follows: Chi-square ($\chi 2$/df) = 1.674, Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = 0.929, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0.968, Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) = 0.961, Incremental Fit Index

(IFI) = 0.969, Relative Fit Index (RFI) = 0.908, Norm Fit Index (NFI) = 0.926, Random Measure of Standard Error Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.042. According to Byrne (2010) CFA model is tested to return factor loadings of each item in the construct, as well as model fit indicators. Items that load below 0.5 are erased from the model; hence, the model fit indicators are run each time to reach acceptable levels (Byrne, 2010).

Table 6. 10: Model fit indicators

Model Fit Criteria	**Chi-square (χ_2 /DF)**	**GFI**	**CFI**	**TLI**	**IFI**	**RFI**	**NFI**	**RMSEA**
Indicator Value	1.674	0.929	0.968	0.961	0.969	0.908	0.926	0.042

6.11.1. Chi-Square

The first index that was examined was the (CMIN/DF) Chi-square. A good model fit would provide an insignificant result at a 0.05 threshold, hence, the Chi-square statistic often referred to as either 'lack of fit' (Hooper et., al., 2008) or 'badness of fit' (Kline, 2005). Table 6.12 shows the findings.

Table 6. 11: Chi-square Index

Model	**NPAR**	**CMIN**	**DF**	**P**	**CMIN/DF**
Default model	67	311,393	186	0	1,674
Saturated model	253	0	0		
Independence model	22	4197,757	231	0	18,172

Acceptable model fit was designated by chi-square value over degree of freedom (χ2/df) of value between 1 and 3. The chi-square value of 1.674, which is below the suggested upper limit of 3, Barrett, (2007) approves that annotations are not due to chance, therefore it is evident that the CMIN indicates a good model fit but rather fits the hypothesised model (Kline, 1998; Krommenhoek & Galpin, 2013), thus indicating goodness of fit. To conclude, after evaluating

the CMIN/ Chi-square, and the base line comparison indices with the RMSEA, it can be confirmed that the model indicates an acceptable fit (Hooper et., al., 2008).

6.11.2. Goodness of fit Index (GFI)

According to Hooper et., al., (2008) goodness of fit statistic (GFI) was developed by Joreskog and Sorbom as an alternative to the Chi-Square test and evaluates the proportion of variance (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007) that is being accounted for by the estimated population covariance. GFI values range from 0-1 and a cut-off point of 0.90 has been recommended for the GFI, however, a cut-off of 0.95 is more appropriate shown by simulation studies (Hooper, et., al., 2008) when the sample sizes and factor loadings are low. The present study has a GFI value of 0.929 representing an acceptable model fit.

6.11.3. The Norm fit index (NFI)

The recommending of values greater than 0.90 indicating a good fit, but more recent suggestions argue that the cut-off should be NFI 0.95. In addition, NFI reflects the proportion by which the researcher's model improves fit compared to the null model, that is comparing the model by X^2 value of the model to the X^2 value of the null model (Hooper et., al., 2008). The present study has a value of 0.926 indicating good fit.

6.11.4. CFI (Comparative fit index)

The comparative fit index is a revised form of the NFI, thus taking into account sample size but performs well even when sample size is small (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). It was first introduced by Bentler (1990). The statistic range between 0.0 and 0.1 with values nearer to 1.0 indicating good fit, as such a cut-off point of 0.9 or greater than 0.90 is recommended to ensure that mis-specified models are not accepted (Kline, 1998; Krommenhoek & Galpin, 2013), thus indicating goodness of fit (Hooper, et al. 2008).

6.11.5. Incremental fit indices

These indices are also known as the comparative or relative fit indices (Hooper et., al., 2008; Miles & Shevlin, 2007). IFI do not use Chi-square in its raw form but compare the Chi-square value to a baseline model, in addition, with these indices the null hypothesis is that all

constructs are uncorrelated (Miles & Shevlin,2007). For the model to be acceptable IFI should be equal to or greater than 0.90 and thus, the current study has an IFI of 0.969, hence the model is significant or acceptable.

6.11.6. Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)

In recent years RMSEA has been regarded as one of the most informative fit indices (Hooper, et. Al., 2008) because of its sensitivity to the number of estimated parameters in the model. The recommended range of RMSEA is between 0.05 and 0.10 as an indication of good fit but above 0.10 proves poor fit. Recently a cut-off point close to 0.06 or a stronger upper limit of 0.7 seems to be accepted (Steiger, 2007; Hooper et., al., 2008). RMSEA ability for a confidence interval to be evaluated around its value is one of its greatest advantages. The RMSEA value for this research is 0.042, therefore indicating good fit.

6.11.7. Path Modelling / Structural Model and Hypotheses Testing

According to Keith, (2015) the core advantage of path modelling (over regression analysis) is that the total effect and indirect effects are analysed in contrast to only analysing direct effects which is predominant while regression analysis is being used. In addition, Path modelling offers a more transparent understanding of the effect and cause between constructs (variables) (Keith, 2015) which might be seen as a better choice for the explanatory analysis of non-experimental data. In Table 6.13 below, the higher the value, the stronger the relationship, therefore, the path coefficients reflect the nature or landscape of the strength between the constructs. Furthermore, the p-values were being analysed to detect whether the hypotheses are significant or supported. Where there are three asterisks (***), it means that at a 95% level of significance, the hypotheses were supported.

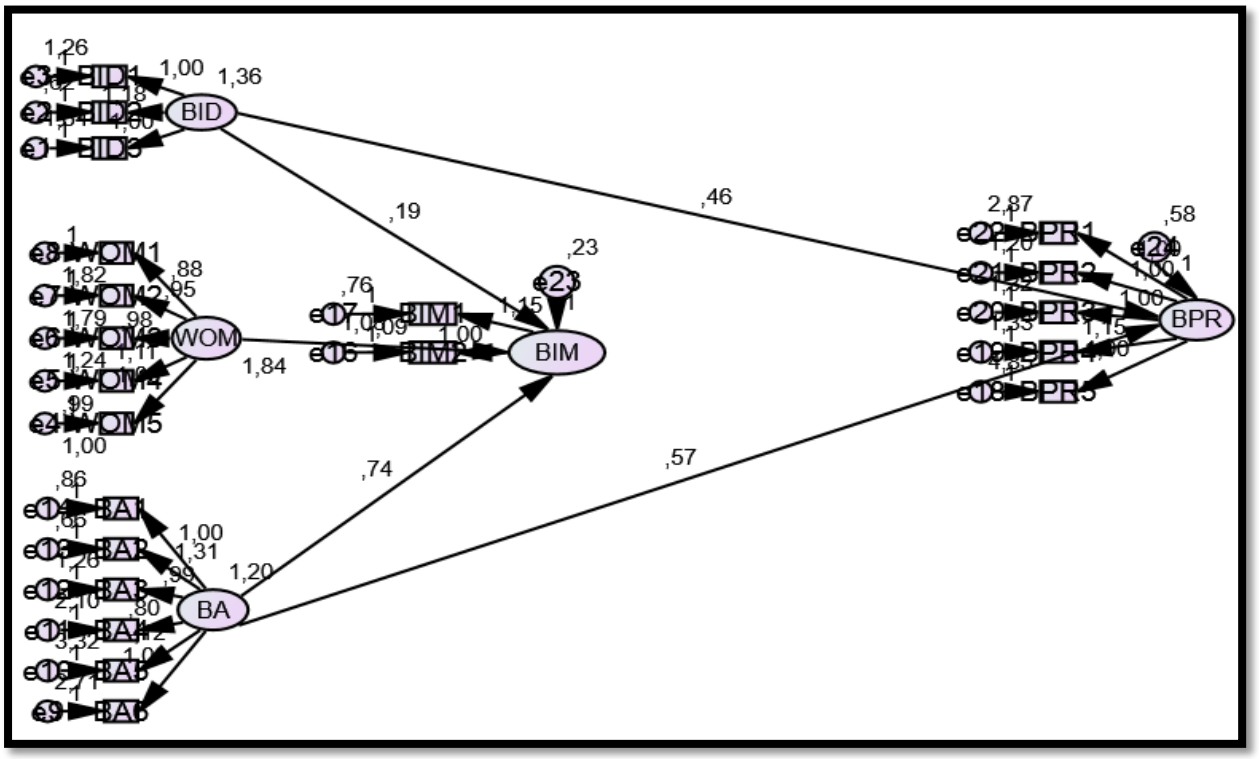
Table 6. 12: Hypotheses Results and Path Coefficients

Path Coefficient	Hypothesis	Estimate	P-Value	Result
Brand Identity → Brand Image	H1	0.185	***	Significant and Supported
Word of mouth → Brand Image	H2	0.092	***	Significant and Supported
Brand Authenticity → Brand Image	H3	0.742	***	Significant and Supported
Brand Identity→ Brand Preference	H4	0.464	***	Significant and Supported
Brand Authenticity→ Brand Preference	H5	0.572	***	Significant and Supported

*** Significant at a 0.05 significance level

In the table above, it can be seen that all five hypotheses are significant and supported, as such presenting the strongest relationship at hypothesis three, which tested the relationship between brand authenticity and brand image (0.742), thus indicating that brand authenticity has a strong positive influence on brand image. Furthermore, the weakest relationships were found to be between hypothesis two (positive word of mouth and brand image) and hypothesis one (brand identity and brand image) with path coefficients of 0.092 and 0.185 respectively. The remaining two hypotheses (H4 and H5) indicate moderately strong relationships with their path coefficients ranging between 0.464 and 0.572. Below shows the conceptual model Figure 6.8

Figure 6. 8: Conceptual Model



Source: Compiled by Researcher (2016)

6.12. Summary of Hypotheses Results

H1: There is a positive relationship between *brand identity* and *brand image.*

From the findings, the path coefficient for H1 was 0.185 indicating that there is a positive and strong relationship between brand identity and brand image, hence, it was supported and significant. This signifies that brand identity has a positive influence on brand image. In other words, the more a political party brand is being identified by voters (youths) the more likely the voters will understand the brand image of the party and what they represent.

H2: There is a positive relationship between *positive word of mouth* and *brand image*

Hypothesis 2 (H2) is significant and supported with a path coefficient of 0.092, the findings show that there is a positive relationship between positive word of mouth and brand image, as such it can be said that positive word of mouth positively influences brand image. Voters or

electorates are therefore more likely to speak positively to their friends, relatives and families about a political brand, that the brand image appeals to them, thus, the more powerful the image of a political party, the more positively the voters (youths) will speak about the party or parties. Though from the findings it indicates to be the weakest but it is still significant and supported.

H3: There is a positive relationship between *brand authenticity* and *brand image*

Hypothesis 3 (H3) has the strongest and most positive relationship and as such the hypothesis is supported with a path coefficient of 0.742. In other words, when political party or parties have a strong brand authentication, for example, standing on their promises to their electorates and fulfilling them, it will increase the image of the brand levels that voters have with the party or parties and thereby enhance the stability of the party where the voter is.

H4: There is a positive relationship between *brand identity* and *brand preference*

Hypothesis 4 is significant and supported, which shows a positive relationship between brand identity and brand preference. This indicates that, once voters can understand and identify with the political brand then voters are more likely to have a positive preference over the party. That is; standing strong with the party whether good or bad, which can be seen in the identity of the ANC party with the apartheid struggle, that is represented in the party's symbol or identity. The path coefficient was indicated with 0.464, hence, indicating a strong relationship between brand identity and brand preference.

H5: There is a positive relationship between *brand authenticity* and *brand preference*

Hypothesis 5 is significant according to the findings, thus was supported and thereby indicating that the brand authenticity influences brand preference in respect to voters or supporters of a party if they found out that their party is authentic in all their doings and have their concerns at heart, they are likely to portray brand preference over other parties. The path coefficient showcases the strength of this relationship with 0.574 which is strong and significant.

6.13. Conclusion

In conclusion, Chapter 6 provided all the statistical analysis for the study and the results obtained from the data gathered on the influence of political party branding on voting brand preference among the youth in South Africa. The following was discussed; an overview of the descriptive statistics, an analysis of the reliability and validity of the measurement instruments, and the overview of the model with the path modelling and its results of the hypotheses were presented and discussed.

Chapter 7: CONCLUSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONTRIBUTIONS

7.1. Introduction

This chapter will present an overview of the main findings and the conclusion of the study. Furthermore, it discusses the contributions, limitations and managerial implications of the study to practitioners and lastly, areas recommended for future research have been discussed at the end of the chapter.

7.2. Conclusion of the Main Findings

To conclude, it can be drawn from the results that the most appealing party to most youths (voters) is the DA with 32.98%, while 27% plus prefer not to say and the ANC follows with 26% plus. From the sample gathered most South African youths still believed that the ANC would win most of the major provincial and national elections that took place this year 2016. Furthermore, it can be seen that all five hypotheses were supported and significant, therefore, brand identity positively influences brand image and brand preference. Positive word of mouth positively influences brand image which ultimately has a positive influence on brand preference. Hence, the strength of these relationships vary significantly. From the findings, it is evident that the strongest relationship exists between brand authenticity and brand image.

Thus, it is paramount for political parties or candidates to pay serious attention in creating and maintaining a feasible or having strong brand authentication which will enhance positive word of mouth, trust and peace of security in the minds of the youths. This will lead to a memorable brand image on youths (young voters) of the nation who are the pillars of the nation, to be positive and be decisive to the political party they want to represent them rather than casting votes anyhow during election periods. Secondly, the findings show that the brand authenticity has a strong influence on brand preference. In other words, brand preferences represent consumer or voters' character to favour a particular brand, which can be incorporated as the behavioural tendency of favouring one political brand over another.

Therefore, to maintain authenticity, or being authentic as a brand, can enhance the positivity of voters especially the youth towards preferring one political party over another. In essence, the youths will be satisfied with the offerings of the political brand. The political party or parties will benefit from this, as most voters are likely to return to vote for the party at any time and

during election and stand by the party or their representatives in any condition, due to the authenticity that the party has developed over time and has led to trust and brand preference of the people. Moderate relationships were found to be between brand identity and brand preference. As a result, political parties need to focus on creating and developing a strong brand and enhancing their brand identity to achieve better, strong, positive and vibrant voters, as such having an edge over other political parties in the nation, as in brand preference. In comparison to the mentioned hypotheses results above, the relationships between brand identity, positive word of mouth and brand image were found to be slightly weaker. Hence indicating that although political parties may have created a good brand image where their voters are, it is not enough to entice or keep the upcoming pillars of the nation (youths) and thus, might not be strong enough to move them back to the party that is appealing to them.

In addition, the possibility of voters voting for that party may be lower than expected in years to come, however, it is still positive. Political parties need to implement appropriate methods for motivating, bringing out the zeal, trust, fulfilment of their promises through rebranding their identity to the youth. As such, they will increase and achieve their main aim in drawing the youth towards their brand, thereby achieving voters' brand preference of the party and getting them involved in politics and political issues, and involvement in what is happening in their surrounding and what the party stands for and represents.

7.3. Managerial Implications

Despite the level of branding recognition in marketing, political marketing is another area that is upcoming in the marketing field. Hence, political branding on voting brand preference among the youth in South Africa poses a concern in the aspect of understanding the practical aspects of branding that lead to brand preference and what the electorates, and the parties at large, can implement to enhance the awareness of their parties to the youth (voters). The current study has both academic and practical managerial implications. Previous literature proves that customer brand identification leads to positive word of mouth, brand authenticity leads to brand trust and brand image leads to brand preference. Therefore, this study provides empirical evidence suggesting that brand identity, positive word of mouth, brand authenticity and brand image lead to brand preference.

The results of the current study provide general information to guide political parties or politics in South Africa in developing marketing / branding strategies based on the concept of brand preference. These contributions will help different types of political parties in having the knowledge of the critical role of brand preference and its implementation. According to Ebrahim, (2012) the majority of voters tend to seek brands that will intrigue them in an emotional, sensorial and creative way and create a memorable experience which influences their preferences towards the brand. In addition, these aspects of emotional and sensorial creativities can be said to be within political parties' control to develop, invest in and commit to in achieving the most desired outcome.

In essence, while implementing these levels of creativities in their parties and bringing them to the public (youths) it is critical to ensure that they relate to their voters and involve them while developing and implementing. President Obama is an example of a political candidate who uses political branding (political marketing) to gain the attention of the youth and attract their votes and liking during and after the election. With the launch of the 'YES WE CAN' campaign, the party established the use of social media to amplify the campaign and to have a personal relationship with the youths of the nation. The use of Facebook, Twitter and so on was used to understand what their voters think about the party, their image, identification, word of mouth, that later lead to a massive recognition and purpose of the party to the public at large and due to that, brand preference was conceded to their party (the democratic party) in leading the election.

Conveying these notions and ideas into the local politics for the purpose of this research, the following is being recommended: a political brand like ANC could offer an interaction platform service in social media with free Internet access for the engagement of the party with their respective voters (youths). In addition, these platforms will help in understanding what the youths' or the public's needs are and also relating to the people what their motives and their intentions towards their needs are and how they are implementing solutions. Such an interaction and experience, if made unique and professional, can act as a motivation and sense of attraction to relate and as a come-back to the party. These could create a brand preference of voters to the party.

It is evident from the current study that brand identity has a positive influence on brand preference, therefore it is paramount that marketers of any political party should ensure that voters have a positive identity and clarification of the party towards the political party brand.

Marketers of the political party can focus on the party's symbols, colours, images, words written as touch points and make sure that voters, especially the youths, are in line with them and that voters receive these in a positive and interactive manner. In addition, with the present stage of technology and technological development or change, if political brand identity is not well structured and managed, it can lead to attitude formation, which might be negative or positive as the situation might pose. Thus, political branding marketers can utilise social media to influence voters' attitude towards the voting brand that they prefer. The use of political marketing/branding either during a campaign or events can contribute to positive word of mouth or increase brand image of the party positively.

7.4. The conceptual Contribution

Conceptually, the current study makes a noteworthy contribution to research in a South African political context, predominantly Johannesburg. This study was conducted amongst the youth at the University of the Witwatersrand South Africa, looking at the age group 18 -34 years old. Most importantly, it studied the crucial and important influence of political party branding on voting brand preference. Previous studies on political marketing have explored this phenomenon in a broad, specific, global context in another continent, thus, this study investigates voting brand preference and branding constructs within a South African framework.

By exploring political party branding on brand preference, it therefore adds to *contextual knowledge and understanding* on voting and youths' preference factors used to influence voters' intentions on clinging to one brand and making it their own. Furthermore, branding constructs, such as brand identity, brand authenticity, brand image and positive word of mouth *have not been used formerly as a holistic framework* to investigate and measure the effect and impact of political branding on voting brand preference, rather, it has been used to measure voting intentions in the political context.

7.5. Theoretical / Academic Contribution

On the academic aspect, this study provides significantly to the contribution of brand preference and the literature in the political marketing such as South African Politics, through exploring the impact of political party branding on brand identity, positive word of mouth, brand authenticity and brand image with the end outcome factor to be achieved and reaching

the goal of brand preference of the political party in the political branding in the South African context. This research contributes to the theory of political marketing by providing an authenticated theoretical framework, which explains the relationship between the constructs of branding and brand preference.

Therefore, the results of this research are anticipated to provide productive points in relation to, all predictors' constructs as predictors of brand image, and brand authenticity to brand image are very important influences on brand preference. This research presents descriptive findings from factors influencing voting brand preference of political parties in South Africa among the youth and the relationships between all these variables and allows political marketers to understand the impact brand images, being authentic of the parties, can have on the youth before, during and after campaigning and elections. As a rising body of literature is exploring the use of political marketing in politics to create a competitive advantage, this research provides researchers with a comprehensive knowledge of voters' responses to branding in a political setting. Within the field of politics, researchers will have extensive access to present literature on voting political brand preference and the important factors associated with and surrounding the youth in the decision-making process and through it all, adding to the existing knowledge on political branding.

Furthermore, the present study was underpinned on three theories: Firstly, the attribution theory, which was identified as the eagerness of the youth to see causes of the electorates' behaviour which might have an effect on the way the youths view the authenticity of the political party brand. The second is the information integration theory, which relates to the information search through the Internet by the young citizens on the parties and, thirdly, the Social identity theory that is the representation of perception of sameness between political brand and their voters. In all, the theories can be incorporated or relate to the models of voting behaviours which have been explored in detail in Chapters 2 and 3. The results in the study still prove that both attribution, information integration and social identity theory best described the brand preference from the youths' perspective.

7.6. Limitation of the study

This study was limited to the students of the University of the Witwatersrand, who are registered students and also the youths of the Republic of South Africa. This study attempted to gain a good understanding of the political branding and the impact on brand preference.

Although this study can be said to have made great contributions to literature and political marketing practitioners, it also has some limitations. The first limitation has been mentioned in the area of limiting the study to University of Witwatersrand students, and this may have an effect on the generalisability of the results. The political parties mentioned in this study were the three major parties and others were generalised, in this case if all the parties were mentioned separately, it might have different results and hence, might be seen in another perspective and what the youth of the nation really think of, or how they view, other parties.

Not only that, this study was conducted in Johannesburg and, as such, might not be relevant to other cities like Cape Town, Durban and so on in South Africa. Moreover, with regards to the South African context, the sample that was used was youths (18-35yrs) but with the sample almost equal to gender (female and male), whose idea and view of politics can be said to have different aspects, due to age, technology, peers, psychographic and geographic groups and also involvement in political issues around the country. Another limitation was time by the researcher in getting the ethics number before distribution of the questionnaire and environment distraction might be included during completion of the survey by the respondents. There was no interpretation or clarification of the questionnaire in other dialects except in English, which is a second or third language of preference, and not the first language of the majority of the respondents, hence, was the form in which it was administered.

This might have caused misunderstanding, notwithstanding the care taken to ensure that there was a proper understanding of the questionnaire while answering, thus might have affected the results. The study was designed based on political marketing, the sample size that was used comprised 380 respondents, as such can be termed small sample size and small geographical region, with five constructs and the demographical profile was limited. In addition, the data collection and analysis processes were done based on AMOS, SPSS software and other factor analyses, maybe when analysed with other software, might have given different results. There are other predictor variables that were not used in the study and some questions in the questionnaire that may have influenced brand preference, such as trust, brand experience and value. These aspects of branding, if implemented might give more insight on what leads to a better outcome of brand preference.

7.7. Future Research

The results of the research contribute to the literature on political marketing, its attributes, political branding and management of political brands and winning voters' attention about the brand at large. In addition, from the study it can be summarised that the proposed model is a practical and functional model, thereby providing a critical analysis of the political party branding and its impact on youths and their behaviour towards politics. Hence, political parties and their electorate should be mindful and have a vast knowledge and understanding of what their brand entails in the eyes of the youth and how to entice them and to enhance their brand accordingly, through managing brand image, authenticity, and identity to the taste of their voters and as such, influencing brand preference of the youth (voters).

Having highlighted the vital points of the study, future study can address this theme in an online aspect, in relation to the power of integration of the youth in politics, through social media and networking in the South African context. From a youth's perspective, Generation Y tend to sync, share, express their feelings and experiences through these mediums; even the poor have access to online activities in one way or the other. This current study can also be extended to other nations in Africa, like Zimbabwe, Nigeria, Namibia, Kenya and those countries that have not identified the importance of online branding in politics and how to maximise the relationship between the party and the voters, which will result in brand preference of the party.

Another aspect to look into is to examine the relationships in the current conceptual model in other business or political sectors of the nation, with different variables from the political sectors and political marketing. Extension of the study through studying the relationships between brand consistency and brand individuality in regard to political parties or branding. Future research also does not need to be limited to youths / university students but explore the South African population in this regard to establish a reliable and more accurate result, through which to have more knowledge of what it requires to maintain and acquire well branded voters/ youths with the situation of politics in the political sector.

In this study, it was found that the African National Congress (ANC) has the highest number or percentage to win the national and provincial election but is second in line, after the Democratic Alliance (DA), as the most appealing political party for the youth in the sample size used for the study. Therefore, there is a gap in this regard and future research should look into this gap to find out why the most appealing party was not expected to win the national and

provincial election and the second most appealing party was expected to win the elections. Furthermore, another avenue for future research is investigating the area of product offerings and services that can motivate the youth to communicate and participate in the running of politics in South Africa and hence, might give a different view and response to the way voters view and participate in elections and contribute to the notion of political brand preference.

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Appendix 1: Sample participation letter and questionnaire

Sample Participation Letter (SPL)

Date: 22nd June 2016

Good Day

My name is Promise Omo-Obas and a Masters student in the Marketing Division at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. I want to conduct research on "The influence of political party branding on voting intentions of youths in South Africa" The extent to which a political party brand can influence the voting intention of youths in voting during election.

As youths in South Africa that follow one or two of the political parties in South Africa, you are **invited** to take part in this survey. The purpose of this survey is to find out to what extent does the influence of political party branding on voting brand preference among the youth in South Africa.

Your response is important and there are no right or wrong answers. This survey is both confidential and anonymous. Anonymity and confidentiality are guaranteed by not needing to enter your name on the questionnaire. Your participation is completely voluntary and involves no risk, penalty, or loss of benefits whether or not you participate. You may withdraw from the survey at any stage.

The part A of the survey captures some profile data. Please tick whichever boxes are applicable. The part B of the survey comprises 23 statements. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement, by ticking in the appropriate box. The entire survey should take between 10 to 15 minutes to complete.

Thank you for considering participating. Should you have any questions, or should you wish to obtain a copy of the results of the survey, please contact me on at 1054140@students.wits.ac.za
My contact details: 1054140@students.wits.ac.za – Cell number: 0730920094
My supervisor's name and email are: Norman Chiliya – norman.chiliya@wits.ac.za

(Researcher's Signature)
Kind regards
Promise Omo-obas
Honours Student: Division of Marketing
School of Economic and Business Sciences
University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg

SECTION A

GENERAL INFORMATION

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

A1 Please indicate your gender

Male	1
Female	2
Other	3

A2 Please indicate your age group

18 – 24 years' old	1
25 - 31years old	2
32 – 35years old	3

A3 Please indicate your employment status

Currently not working	1
Less than 1 year	2
1 to 4 years	3
5 to 8 years	4
9 to12 years	5

A4 Please indicate your Education Level

No Education	1
Primary school	2
Apprenticeship	3
Secondary with Matric	4
Higher post-secondary schools	5
University	6

A5 Please indicate the Political party(s) that appeals to you

ANC	1
DA	2
EFF	3
others	4
Prefer not to say	5

A5 Please indicate the political party that you think will win majority provincial local elections

ANC	1
DA	2

EFF	3
OTHERS	4

A6 Please indicate the political party that will win the fourth coming national elections

ANC	1
DA	2
EFF	3
OTHERS	4

SECTION B

BRAND IDENTITY

Below are statements about Timeliness. You can indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement by ticking the corresponding number in the 7 point Likert-political party scale below:

1= Strongly Disagree **2=** Disagree **3=** Somewhat Disagree **4=** Neutral **5=** Somewhat Agree **6=** Agree **7=** Strongly Disagree

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

Please tick only one number for each statement with regards to the political brand that appeals to you the most:

BID 1	I am familiar with the political brand that appeals to me	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
BID 2	The political brand that appeals to me has a well-defined use /purpose (Manifesto)	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
BID 3	The political brand that I support is uniquely different in terms of dressing from other political	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree

SECTION C

POSITIVE WORD-OF MOUTH

Below are statements about Positive word of mouth. You are required to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements below by ticking the appropriate number where:

1= Strongly Disagree **2=** Disagree **3=** Somewhat Disagree **4=** Neutral **5=** Somewhat Agree **6=** Agree **7=** Strongly Disagree

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

Please tick only one number for each statement with regards to the political brand that appeals to you the most:

WOM 1	I transmit my personal experiences with this political brand that appeals to me to other people that I know	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
WOM 2	I give advice about this political party brand that appeals to me to people I know	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
WOM 3	I talk about this political party brand because it offers value for money because they are adhered to their promises (service deliveries)	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
WOM 4	I would recommend this political brand to someone who seeks my advice	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
WOM 5	I say positive things about this brand to other people	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree

SECTION D

BRAND Authenticity

Below are statements about Brand Continuity. You may agree or disagree with each statement by ticking the appropriate number provided where:

1= Strongly Disagree **2=** Disagree **3=** Somewhat Disagree **4=** Neutral **5=** Somewhat Agree **6=** Agree **7=** Strongly Disagree

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

Please tick only one number for each statement with regards to the political brand that appeals to you the most:

BA1	The political brand that appeals to me possesses a clear value/belief (which guides the brand promise)	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
BA2	The political party brand that appeals to me knows exactly what it stands for and does not promise anything which contradicts its essence and character	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
BA3	Considering its brand promise, this political party brand does not imitate other political parties	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
BA4	Considering its brand promise, the political party brand does not favour any racial group.	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
BA5	The political party brand misrepresents itself, to match present political trends	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
BA6	The saying "you trim your sails to every wind that blows" describes the political party brand that I support adequately	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree

SECTION E

BRAND IMAGE

Below are statements about Brand Image. You may agree or disagree with each statement by ticking the appropriate number provided where:

1= Strongly Disagree **2=** Disagree **3=** Somewhat Disagree **4=** Neutral **5=** Somewhat Agree **6=** Agree **7=** Strongly Disagree

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

Please tick only one number for each statement with regards to the political brand that appeals to you the most:

BIM1	The political party brand offers a broad range of solutions to societal problems	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
BIM2	This political party brand is credible/ believable in the eyes of the voters	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
BIM3	This political brand lacks character for example (involves in lot of scandals)	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree

SECTION F

Brand Preference

Below are statements about Brand preference. You may agree or disagree with each statement by ticking the appropriate number provided where:

1= Strongly Disagree **2=** Disagree **3=** Somewhat Disagree **4=** Neutral **5=** Somewhat Agree **6=** Agree **7=** Strongly Disagree

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

Please tick only one number for each statement with regards to the political brand that appeals to you the most:

BPR 1	I visit the political party web site/ media/ newspaper/ information sites and electronic print frequently	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
BPR 2	I prefer this political party brand over other political parties	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
BPR 3	It is likely that I will vote this political brand products/ do business with this political brand	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
BPR 4	I definitely will donate time and effort towards supporting this political party brand	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
BPR 5	I have previously voted for this political party brand	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree

THANK YOU

APPENDIX 2: Cronbach Coefficient Alpha's

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0,790	3

Item Statistics			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
BID1	4,83	1,622	379
BID2	4,99	1,589	379
BID3	4,75	1,734	379

Item-Total Statistics				
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
BID1	9,75	8,819	0,602	0,745
BID2	9,59	8,222	0,714	0,629
BID3	9,83	8,377	0,585	0,769

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0,806	5

Item Statistics			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
WOM1	3,94	1,805	379
WOM2	3,71	1,864	379
WOM3	3,94	1,733	379
WOM4	4,77	1,804	379
WOM5	4,82	2,630	379

Item-Total Statistics				
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
WOM1	17,24	38,703	0,630	0,760
WOM2	17,47	37,541	0,661	0,750
WOM3	17,25	38,715	0,668	0,751
WOM4	16,41	37,942	0,671	0,748
WOM5	16,37	35,340	0,443	0,843

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0,682	6

Item Statistics			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
BA1	4,77	1,602	379
BA2	4,58	1,654	379
BA3	4,87	1,565	379
BA4	4,74	1,697	379
BA5	3,59	1,830	379
BA6	4,08	1,530	379

Item-Total Statistics				
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
BA1	21,86	25,727	0,585	0,582
BA2	22,06	25,353	0,583	0,580
BA3	21,76	26,658	0,538	0,599
BA4	21,90	27,145	0,440	0,631
BA5	23,04	33,173	0,061	0,761
BA6	22,55	29,502	0,359	0,658

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0,762	2

Item Statistics			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
BIM1	4,80	1,575	379
BIM2	4,85	1,544	379

Item-Total Statistics				
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
BIM1	4,85	2,384	0,615	
BIM2	4,80	2,482	0,615	

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0,756	5

Item Statistics			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
BPR1	2,93	1,840	379
BPR2	5,16	1,732	379
BPR3	4,88	1,867	379
BPR4	4,14	1,865	379
BPR5	3,87	2,383	379

Item-Total Statistics				
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
BPR1	18,04	36,313	0,380	0,759
BPR2	15,82	32,954	0,612	0,685
BPR3	16,09	31,229	0,643	0,670

BPR4	16,84	30,463	0,689	0,653
BPR5	17,11	32,446	0,368	0,785