

The Influence of Place and Communicated Identity on Place Image and Attractiveness of the City of Johannesburg

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requirements for the degree of Master of Management of Strategic Marketing**

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ABSTRACT

Place branding is defined as the application of marketing techniques and activities, to differentiate and attract interest to promote the social and economic growth of cities, regions and countries.

If marketers are to market their respective places effectively, they need to get a sense of the key characteristics that make up a place identity, with particular attention paid to what is perceived or understood as the image. The role of local residents is emphasised in the process of identifying the key attributes that comprise the identity and image of a place.

The purpose of this research is to establish the identity of the City of Johannesburg from the perspective of stakeholders responsible for branding the metropolitan and to investigate the perceptions and image of the metropolitan by local residents.

The research methodology adopted was a mixed method approach. Semi-structured in-depth interviews were conducted with destination marketing practitioners and the results were content analysed to identify key themes. The quantitative study sought to investigate the perceptions and image of the City of Johannesburg held by local residents using a structured questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of questions relating to views on place identity, place image and communicated identity. Structural equation modelling was employed in the study for the purpose of analysing the quantitative data.

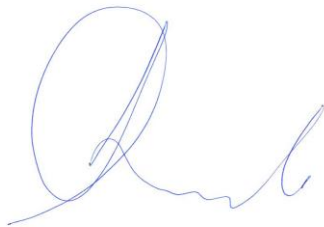
Given the common brand associations made by practitioners and local residents interviewed, one can conclude that the City of Johannesburg is fundamentally South Africa's business hub and associated with opportunities and these associations are unlikely to change and will stay constant as the City goes through various growth cycles.

The multi-faceted image of the City of Johannesburg was demonstrated by the different responses elicited from marketing practitioners and local residents. The crime association image does not bode well for the metropolitan and concerted

efforts are required from all stakeholders involved in marketing the City to deal with the city's negative image.

DECLARATION

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



.....

RUTENDO NXUMALO

Signed at Johannesburg

On the 12th day of April 2016

DEDICATION

To Me,

For facing my fears, challenging myself to unleash my potential and achieving a goal
that I set for myself.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my gratitude to the following people for their support and contribution in assisting me to complete this research report:

- My beloved mother for being my inspiration, for the constant encouragement and consistent prayers.
- My dearest sons, Daniel and David, for standing by me even when I was absent from home and encouraging me when the going got rough.
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ABBREVIATIONS

List of Abbreviations

NTSS – National Tourism Sector Strategy

STATS SA – Statistics South Africa

SAT – South Africa Tourism

SAT GCS– South African Tourism’ Global Competitive Study

WEF – World Economic Forum

1 CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this research is to establish the identity of the City of Johannesburg and to investigate the perceptions and image of the metropolitan by local residents. The works of Matlovicova (2010) and Rainisto (2003) afford valuable insights into the importance of building the identity of a place through place branding, and how place branding itself is inseparably connected to the image and identity of a place.

There is agreement among numerous academics (Allen, 2007; Anholt, 2010; Baxter & Kerr, 2010a; Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005; Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005) on the rise in interest in the place branding concept, which reflects the observation and reality that “globalisation has become the game changer in the way places market themselves, where the market place for ideas, culture, reputation, in addition to products, services and funds are fusing into a single global community” (Allen, 2007, p. 61). Allen (2007, p. 61) puts forward his view about how the concept of place branding has gained popularity and interest due to the need to “differentiate places in an increasingly competitive, globalizing marketplace that rests on memorability and emotional connection with consumers, delivered through all points of contact in the product/service value chain”. Anholt (2010) suggests that a case can certainly be made that many place names are a type of brand name - people respond to them as they respond to brands, they can acquire and lose equity like brands, and in some cases place names are even deliberately coined as brands.

1.2 Context of Study

Research findings on the adoption of branding strategies to market places is far from reaching a consensus, with varying views on definitions and application of relevant ideas and plans. Eshuis, Braun, and Klijn (2013) suggest that place branding is a component of place marketing, which focuses on persuading and/or changing people’s thoughts by shaping their emotional and psychological associations with a place. On the other hand, Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2005) point out that the

application of place marketing is mainly reliant on the formation, communication and management of a city's image, because fundamentally and simply, encounters between cities and their occupants occur through perceptions and images. Branding, as further argued by Eshuis et al. (2013), is an increasingly important strategy within place marketing used to address the image of a place and arguably people's associations with the place. Brand association, as explained by the early work of Aaker (1991) in clarifying the brand equity construct, shows that people associate the value of a brand with five principal emotions, namely, brand association, name awareness, brand loyalty, perceived quality and other proprietary brand assets.

Branding has traditionally been applied to consumer products. Simply, a product is "something that can be acquired via exchange to satisfy a need or want" (Ferrell & Hartline, 2005, p. 8). The aim of branding, as argued by Boisen, Terlouw, and van Gorp (2011), is to add value to a specific product, service or organisation. When this is applied to places, the aim would be to add value to the place in question in a broad sense. The idea of places pursuing formalised brand strategies only originated, on any significant scale, in the 1990s (Ashworth & Kavaratzis, 2010). Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2005) further assert that place branding or place management is not a new phenomenon historically. According to Kavaratzis and Ashworth, (2005), places have long felt the necessity to differentiate themselves from one another in order to assert their uniqueness and distinct features in the quest of various economic, political or socio-psychological objectives. However, these traditional efforts at place branding remained largely informal and unsystematic. The development of place branding, as presented by Hankinson (2010) with regard to marketing, has mainly been through tourism, with the focus on places viewed as tourist destinations. Tourism, as highlighted by Elliot, Papadopoulos, and Kim (2001), is predominantly an image-driven industry. The compelling argument put forward by Anholt (2010) broadens the concept of place branding and suggests that a case can certainly be made that many place names are a type of brand name. People respond to the names or identity of places as they respond to brands; places can acquire and lose equity like brands; and in some cases, places are even deliberately coined as brands.

A distinction, however, is made by Anholt (2010) that when most people talk about place branding, they are not usually talking about giving a name or a symbol to a place, because places already have names and many already have symbols. He argues that they are talking about doing something to enhance the image of the place - thus place branding is believed to be a way of making places famous. While place branding is clearly important for tourism, it also serves other purposes. For example, cities such as London and New York have positioned themselves as centres for finance, along with certain branding aims to draw investment.

Given the importance of tourism as a driver of growth and development broadly, as stated by SouthAfrica.Info (2014), the South African government has acknowledged the tourism sector's capability in bringing about economic development and creating employment. According to the Minister of Tourism in his foreword message in the Department of Tourism's National Tourism Sector Strategy (NTSS), the importance of tourism is further highlighted by its positioning as one of the six core pillars of growth in the country's New Growth Path framework. It was reported in the same executive summary that the NTSS has committed to creating a total of 225 000 additional jobs by the year 2020.

The Department of Tourism asserts that domestic tourism tends to be the main sustainability factor for most successful destinations, with South Africa's tourist volumes being derived from domestic tourists. Domestically, the most visited provinces by domestic tourists are KwaZulu Natal (31%), followed by Limpopo (18%) and Gauteng (17%), according to South Africa Tourism (SAT) website.

1.3 Background to Johannesburg's and South Africa's Tourism

According to the City of Johannesburg's official website, Johannesburg is the economic powerhouse of South Africa, and Southern Africa. Founded in 1886 with the discovery of gold on the Reef, Johannesburg has grown into a world-class city. It is the provincial capital of Gauteng and the financial centre of the country and is often compared to Los Angeles, with a similar urban sprawl linked by huge highway interchanges. In terms of popularity, Breitenbach (2014) reports that the

MasterCard's Third Annual Global Destination Cities Index ranks Johannesburg as the most popular destination in Africa.

The City of Johannesburg Integrated Annual Report (The City of Johannesburg, 2012/2013), positions Johannesburg as the largest and wealthiest city in South Africa, accounting for 16% of the country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). SouthAfrica.Info (2014) highlights the following key factors about Johannesburg:

The metropolitan employs 12 percent of the national workforce; it hosts South Africa's largest corporations, with more than 70 percent of South African companies having their headquarters in Johannesburg, as well as many other international corporations operating on the African continent; it is home to the Johannesburg Securities Exchange (JSE) Limited, the largest stock exchange on the continent and the 16th biggest in the world; Johannesburg is the provincial capital of Gauteng, the wealthiest and most popular province in South Africa; and is one of the 40 largest metropolitan areas in the world.

SouthAfrica.Info (2014) further reports that Gauteng province contributes more than 33% to the national economy and a phenomenal 10% to the GDP of the entire African continent. The inner city is not just the historical centre of Johannesburg, but is also its symbolic, economic and cultural centre, and is of strategic importance to the city.

1.3.1 South Africa's Global Tourism Competitiveness

According to the South African Tourism's (SAT) Global Competitiveness Study (GCS) (2010), South Africa shows high growth in tourism's gross domestic product (GDP) contribution, at 13%, but that the industry's dependence on foreign visitor arrivals renders it vulnerable. The WEF Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Report, highlights South Africa's strongest areas as including its natural sites and cultural resources, attractive price competitiveness, good air transport infrastructure, and favourable policy rules and regulations. The report flags certain weaknesses as

well, including safety and security, access to health services, high ticket taxes and airport charges, and a lack of sufficiently skilled labour.

In a report prepared by the Strategic Research Unit of SA Tourism, for the second quarter of 2013, leisure (at 64.0%) remained the primary reason for tourists visiting South Africa, with hospitable and friendly people (at 59.1%), good service (at 45.8%) and visiting family/friends (at 37.7%) being the best experiences of foreign tourists to South Africa in the second quarter of 2013. Domestically, the most visited provinces by domestic tourists are KwaZulu Natal (31%), followed by Limpopo (18%) and Gauteng (17%), according to South Africa Tourism (SAT) website.

The NTSS Executive Summary reports that there is a general agreement that the backbone of any tourism industry is its domestic component, with research indicating that domestic tourism tends to be the main sustainability factor for most successful tourism destinations. This appears to ring true for South Africa, with significant volumes being derived from domestic tourists, making it by far the largest segment of the industry. To support this assertion, statistics provided by the Department of Tourism indicate that approximately 14.6 million adult South Africans undertook about 30 million domestic trips in 2009. The South Africa Tourism Domestic indicators for the quarter January to March 2013, reveal that 5,3 million domestic trips taken in the first quarter of 2013, indicates a 3% decrease relative to the 5,4 million trips taken in the first quarter of 2012. Comparatively, 6,9 million domestic trips were taken in the second quarter of 2014, a 24% increase relative to the 5,5 million trips taken during the same period in 2013. It is also reported that visiting friends and relatives (VFR) remains the major source of domestic trips.

1.4 Problem statement

The aforementioned information is testament to Johannesburg's competitiveness. However, the key attributes that comprise the identity and image of Johannesburg as a place are not clear. The most neglected role of residents in place branding is that of citizens. Johannesburg seems to be viewed more as a business tourist city rather

than as a leisure tourist destination. This perception is supported by the City of Johannesburg Integrated Annual Report of 2012/2013 which highlights that, as the economic hub of the country and the region, Johannesburg is a primary destination for job seekers across the region and the country as a whole. The Director of Tourism and Economic Development of the City of Johannesburg, Phelisa Manguc, was quoted as saying that “while business tourism was popular in Johannesburg, it had to be viewed as more than a quick in and out, but as way to grow leisure tourism in the city”.

1.4.1 Main problem

Although the City of Johannesburg is seen as an economic hub and a business destination, there remains potential to grow its attractiveness and popularity as a holiday destination. The city does face significant competition from the popular coastal cities of Cape Town and Durban.

This study seeks to explore ways in which the place identity and the place image of the City of Johannesburg, can be aligned to position the City as a domestic tourist destination.

1.4.2 Sub problem 1

To establish the existing identity of the City of Johannesburg from the perspective of stakeholders responsible for branding the metropolitan.

1.4.3 Sub problem 2

To investigate the perceptions and image of the City of Johannesburg held by local residents.

1.4.4 Sub problem 3

To determine the changes needed to transform the identity and image of Johannesburg into an attractive tourist destination.

1.5 Significance of the study

The study contributes to the body of literature on place branding as well as ascertains the appropriateness of theories and their relevant policies on the development of place branding.

It is hoped that it will provide useful insights into place branding and thus inform practitioners, tourist boards, investment promotion agencies, and the corporate sector, on how to employ various strategies to effectively communicate the identity and image of a place that resonates with local residents, who are crucial stakeholders in the various economic, political or socio-psychological objectives of a place.

1.6 Delimitations of the study

- This research report focused on respondents in Gauteng only.
- The study included persons of all races and religions.
- The study included males and females.
- The study included individuals of varying education levels.
- The study included individuals' employment status
- The study included individuals' residence status

1.7 Definition of Terms:

Place branding - “the practice of applying brand strategy and other wide range of marketing efforts, techniques and disciplines to the economic, social, political and cultural development of cities, regions and countries” (Ashworth & Kavaratzis, 2010, p. 90).

Place marketing - “Marketing designed to influence target audiences to behave in some positive manner with respect to the products or services associated with a specific place” American Marketing Association.

Place image – A set of subjective views, ideas, senses and feelings that people get from a place (Matlovičová, 2010).

Tourist – A visitor who stays, at least, one night in the place visited (STATS SA).

Domestic tourist – A resident visitor who visits within the economic territory of the country of reference (STATS SA).

Business tourism and/or business travel – A trip undertaken with the purpose being to conduct commercial or formal transactions or activities that are related to one's job or business ("Business Tourism Sector Study: Executive Summary, ", 2006)

1.8 Assumptions

The following assumptions have been made regarding the study:

- a. The sample respondents had the required information, were willing to share their perceptions of key attributes that comprise the identity and image of Johannesburg as a tourist destination of choice for business as well as leisure tourism.
- b. If a respondent did not wish to share information, they would have informed the interviewer that this was the case.
- c. Respondents did not necessarily share similar perspectives due to the fact that perceptions are intrinsically personal and based on experiences and associations.

2 CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter contains a literature review on the key themes of relevance to the study of place branding. The first section provides a background discussion to the development of place branding, followed by key approaches to place branding. Literature review summary and emergent research questions and hypotheses conclude the literature review.

2.2 Background discussion

A good deal has been written on branding, particularly with regard to consumer products branding, with the work of Aaker (1991, p. 7) setting the scene with the initial definition of a brand as:

“.... a distinguishing name and/or symbol (such as logo, trademark, or package design) intended to identify the goods or services of either one seller or group of sellers, and to differentiate those goods and services from those of competitors. A brand thus signals to the customer the source of the product, and protects both the customer and the producer from competitors who would attempt to provide products that appear to be identical”.

The branding construct has evolved from being defined as a distinctive name and/or symbol to being associated and described as residing in the mind of the consumer. Anholt (2010, p. 10) asserts that “branding is a process that takes place in the mind of the consumer – the accumulation of respect and liking for the brand – and cannot be seen as a single technique or set of techniques that directly builds respect or liking”. This view is partially supported by Ries and Ries (1998, p. 172) who define a brand as “a singular idea or concept that you own inside the mind of the prospect”. Therefore, the power and influence of a brand is now in the mind of the consumer, is not easily controlled and has to signify importance for the consumer. The objective

of a brand as suggested by Pike (2004), is to create a unique and memorable identity in the market place that symbolises a basis of value for the consumer.

In terms of applicability, branding has traditionally been applied to consumer products as a tactic to differentiate a product from its competition, but the idea of places pursuing formalised brand strategies only originated on any scale in the 1990s (Ashworth & Kavaratzis, 2010).

It is commonly acknowledged that cities cannot be regarded simply as products (Ashworth & Kavaratzis, 2009). The place product itself, according to Hankinson (2009, p. 98), is a “unique combination of buildings, facilities and venues which represent production by a multiplicity of autonomous services businesses, both public and private”. Anholt (2010, p.2) quotes the concept of ‘strategic place marketing’ developed by Kotler et al. in 1993, as the “first to take the explicit position that places needed to run themselves like businesses, and market themselves like businesses, if they were to respond adequately to the threats of global competition, technological change and urban decay”.

Furthermore, Anholt (2010) suggests that a case can certainly be made that many place names are a type of brand name; people respond to them as they respond to brands, they can acquire and lose equity like brands, and in some cases, they are even deliberately coined as brands. He argues however, that when most people talk about place branding, they are not usually talking about giving a name or a symbol to a place, because places already have names and many already have symbols. Instead they are talking about doing something to enhance the brand image of the place - place branding is believed to be a way of making places famous. Pike (2004) points out that branding is at the very heart of marketing strategy, and so the drive of all destination marketing activity must be to enhance the importance of the brand. Notwithstanding the above, a frequent criticism of place marketing, according to Ashworth and Kavaratzis (2010) is that place marketing tends to overstate the disparity between projected image and experienced reality.

2.2.1 Defining Place Branding

The terms 'place marketing' and 'place branding' seem to be used interchangeably, although the two concepts are often regarded differently. Some authors present place marketing as the overarching concept and place branding, a subset of the former. Moreover, Merrilees, Miller, and Herington (2009) assert that destination and place branding are arguably interchangeable terms as well. According to Eshuis et al. (2013, p. 508), place marketing "involves the application of marketing instruments to geographic locations, such as nations, cities, regions, and communities". The authors further argue that place marketing is not just about developing favourable images and communicating them to different target groups, but also about developing a place that fits the needs and wants of citizens, visitors, and investors.

Similarly, place marketing as explained by Baxter, Kerr, & Clarke (2013) encompasses the use of marketing theories to places. Correspondingly, place branding in place marketing, according to Rainisto (2003), is aimed especially at increasing the attractiveness of a place. Conversely, Ashworth and Kavaratzis (2010, p. 90) define place branding as "the practice of applying brand strategy and other marketing techniques and disciplines to the economic, social, political and cultural development of cities, regions and countries". To conclude the debate on the definition of terms, according to Papadopoulos (2004, p. 36), place branding, "refers to the broad set of efforts by country, regional and city governments, and b industry groups, aimed at marketing the places and sectors they represent", He argues that place branding efforts are specifically intended to accomplish one or more of four main objectives:

- Improve the place's exports
- Protect its domestic businesses from 'foreign' competition
- Attract or retain factors of development
- Position the place for advantage domestically and internationally in economic, political and social terms.

Scrutiny of these definitions reveals no significant variances in the meaning of the concepts. One can conclude that they are interchangeable constructs, although it does appear there is confusion and/or no consensus on the categorisation in terms of what comes first, place marketing or place branding. The common thread in these definitions is the application of techniques and activities, and in this case, marketing techniques, to differentiate and attract interest in an effort to promote the social, and economic growth of cities, regions and countries. Fundamentally, and as highlighted by Kalandides, Braun, Kavaratzis, and Zenker, (2013), place marketing and branding are customer orientated approaches and have to integrate all different customers of a city.

2.2.2 The Development of Place Branding

There is agreement among numerous academics (Allen, 2007; Anholt, 2006; Hanna & Rowley, 2008) on the rise in interest of the place branding concept / trend, which follows the observation and reality that globalisation has become the game changer in the way places market themselves. Allen (2007, p. 61) puts forward his view that the concept of place branding has gained popularity and interest due to the need to “differentiate places in an increasingly competitive, globalizing marketplace that rests on memorability and emotional connection with consumers delivered through all points of contact in the product/service value chain”. In support of this view, Baxter and Kerr (2010b) highlight that place marketing has emerged through a recognition that places operate in a competitive environment; that is, competing with other places for resources. Anholt (2010) succinctly summarises that place branding, both as a necessity and a phenomenon, is mainly provoked by globalisation processes where the market place for ideas, culture and reputation; in addition to products, services and funds, are blending into a single global community.

Place branding (Hankinson, 2010) has its roots in place promotion literature, which is linked with literature on urban policy, an area of study which has received interest from researchers from a range of academic areas that include geographers, sociologists, anthropologists and regional economists. The author explains that literature on place branding has developed separately from mainstream marketing due to critics of place promotion who regard it as a process leading to the

'commodification' of places. Proponents of place promotion view place branding as inappropriate, as traditionally, branding has been based on fast-moving consumer goods marketing, practised by private sector organisations in contrast to place products, which have largely been the responsibility of the public sector. Despite these views, Hankinson (2010) indicates that it is only recently, that the opposing viewpoints are starting to be brought together, resulting in the emergence of a richer and more useful theory of place branding.

An interesting distinction is made by Hankinson (2010) that places are not designed to meet a market need in the way that new products and services are – they evolve organically and are defined geographically by stature without reference to commercial considerations.

Hankinson (2010) points out that a repeated theme in the urban policy literature has been the nature of the place product, its historical development and the marketing implications of its distinctive features. The author cites Sleipen (1988), who highlights that the place product is dualistic, consisting of a 'nuclear' product (the product as a holistic conceptual entity) and its contributory elements (services, activities and features that comprise the place). On the other hand, Van den Berg and Braun (1999) are quoted as giving the view that the place product is divided into three levels: the individual service (e.g. a tourist attraction), clusters of related services (e.g. tourism services) and urban agglomeration (collection of all services that make up the place). Ashworth and Voogd (1990b) similarly point out that places operate at different spatial scales from regions to towns and cities to individual buildings, with different spatial purposes intended to meet the needs of different consumer groups. Within these spaces, consumers draw together their own unique product from the range of services offered by the place. As a consequence, a space can be sold for different purposes to different groups of people by different producers. Thus, places can be both multi-functional and co-consumed. Additionally, consumers are free to choose their own unique combination of services from the varied selection on offer, and therefore the place marketer has little control over the consumer experience. Hankinson (2010) discusses trends of place branding which have emerged, with an acknowledgment that the topic of place branding is unquestionably complex and ascertained trends that typify the numerous aspects that bring about this complexity.

The role of marketing in the urban policy literature frequently adopts a selling approach to place promotion, rather than the consumer-focused role encapsulated in the marketing concept. The same view is echoed by Anholt (2010), who argues that there has to be a shift in mind-set in the way place marketing is defined. In his view, it is still seen fundamentally as a tool for selling the products, services and attractions of the place more effectively, and not for addressing or dealing with the overall image or reputation of the place in any direct way.

To sum up the literature review on the development of place branding, the work of Kavaratzis (2009) affords valuable insights and contributes considerably to the academic dialogue on city branding. Kavaratzis (2009) fills an important gap in the literature by bringing together the fragmented suggestions on how city branding should be implemented; the author concurs that place branding is a complex issue and what seems to be missing is a 'common language' that would facilitate interaction and further theoretical clarification of the issues involved. Kavaratzis (2009) makes the observation that the most common application of place branding has focused on the visual elements of branding, such as the creation of a new logo, the incorporation of a new logo, and, at best, the design of advertising campaigns around those visual elements. The author criticises this approach as he contends that branding incorporates other fields of activity and intervention that distinctly impact and form a place brand. Illustrations of cities that embark on a "thorough and more careful implementation of the city marketing process as a whole are rather exceptions to the rule" (Ashworth & Kavaratzis, 2009, p. 522). Table 2.1 demonstrates the comparison of product branding versus place branding which illustrates a valid point made by Stubbs and Warnaby (2015, p. 15) that "one of the most important distinctions between a consumer brand and a place brand relates to ownership of the brand itself".

Table 2.1: Comparison of Product Branding vs Place Branding

Tend to or Typically....	Product Branding	Place Branding
Carried out by specific parties	Commonly carried out by private sector organisations	Commonly carried out by a partnership between public and private sector stakeholders
Adopts a specific objective	Designed to meet a need	Multi-functional and co-consumed Consumers are free to choose their own unique combination of services from the varied selection.
Invokes these associations	Emotional attachment by consumers	Emotional attachment by consumers Dependent on residents for economic, social, cultural and environmental vibrancy.
Focuses on	Benefits and value are important determinants	Image and identity are important determinants

2.2.3 Destination branding theory

Kavaratzis (2005) identifies destination branding theory as the most developed in theory and most used in practice within place branding, as a means to investigate the role of branding in the marketing of tourism destinations. According to the theory, as explained by the same author, destinations are visited because of their prior images, and they are consumed based on a first-hand comparison of those images with the reality faced in the destination itself. In Table 2.2, the work of Caldwell and Freire (2004, p. 52) also contributes to the concept of destination branding by categorising a destination into two dimensions:

Table 2.2: Destination dimensions

Dimension	Description
Representational :	Attributes linked to the individual's self -expression
Functional :	Utilitarian aspects of the destinations – sun, reefs, sky, culture, etc.

Source: Caldwell and Freire (2004, p. 52)

The latter authors make a submission that destinations, treated as brands, are satisfying basic and self-actualisation needs (based on the theory developed by Maslow to explain the hierarchy of needs), as people choose to travel to certain destinations according to their desire for particular characteristics.

Campelo, Aitken, Thyne, and Gnoth (2014) suggest that for destination branding strategy to be effective, the initial step is an understanding of the various meanings and experiences that local residents value to make up a sense of the place. It is Kalandides et al., (2013)'s contention that the most overlooked role of residents in place branding is that of citizens. The authors' **Sense of Place model**, presented in Figure 2.1, identifies four concepts -- namely, time, ancestry, landscape and community. These elements integrate to create a sense of place, and highlight the

significance of placing the residents of the place at the core of a branding strategy for the development of an effective destination brand. Campelo et al. (2014) maintain that there is a gap in understanding sense of place as local residents experience it, and its consequences for an effective destination brand as what makes up a sense of place is predominantly defined by the meanings given to it by residents of a place. The authors acknowledge that although this approach has its challenges in terms of representation inclusivity, the overall legitimacy provided by the residents contributes to a resilient sense of brand ownership. Recognition of the cultural characteristics of place; understanding the residents of the place; and an appreciation of how a sense of place is established and experienced, is, according to the authors, crucial for a destination branding strategy.

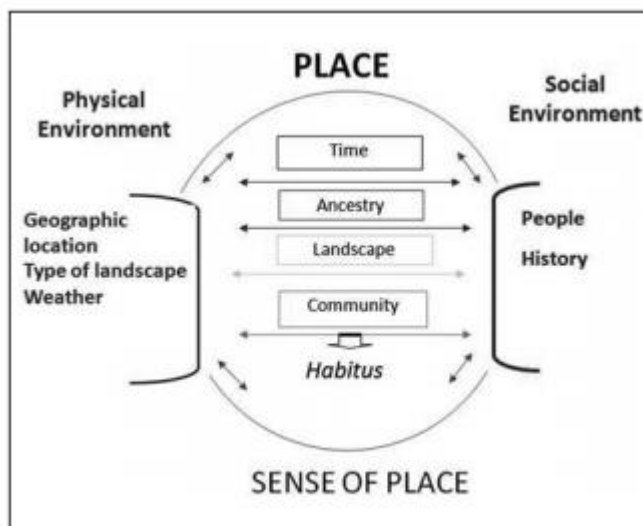


Figure 2.1: Sense of Place Model by Campelo et al. (2014)

2.3 Brand Identity Theory

Prior to the consideration of the link between brand identity and place identity, the concept of brand identity is introduced below.

Aaker (1996, p. 68) defines brand identity as “a unique set of brand associations that represent what the brand stands for and implies a promise to customers from the organisation members”. Simply put, brand identity addresses the question: “who are you?” (Keller, 2008). Similarly, brand identity, as explained by Hanna and

Rowley (2011, p. 468) is “the component associated with the creation of the essence of the brand.” Furthermore, the main fundamentals in the brand identity are the functional and experiential attributes of the brand. Aaker (1996) formulated a brand identity structure as depicted in Figure 2.2 which illustrates the core two elements of a brand identity. Additionally, the identity components are structured into appealing arrangements of meaning, originating from the core identity elements.

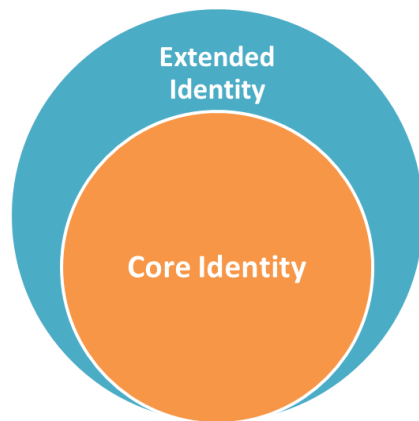


Figure 2.2: The Identity Structure

The core identity embodies the core of the brand which is fundamental to the meaning and success of the brand, and contains the associations that are unlikely to change and stay constant as the product goes through various growth cycles. The extended identity comprises features that define what the brand stands for. Aaker (1996) suggests that a brand identity has the potential to create a connection between the brand and the customer by producing a value proposition comprising functional, emotional or self-expressive benefits. Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2005) offered a further explanation by arguing that the process of identifying the core identity of a brand, is, in itself, a differentiation tool of one product from another. The authors summarised their view on the link between brand identity, brand positioning and brand image, by explaining that brand identity is centred on how the owners want the brand to be perceived, brand image relates to how the brand is perceived, and brand positioning is that part of the value proposition that is communicated to a target group in order to demonstrate competitive advantage.

Similarly, three inter-related components of the destination brand construct, as presented by Pike (2004) are brand identity, brand position and brand image, with

brand identity having an internal focus on issues such as self-image and a vision for motivating stakeholders, and brand image representing the actual image held in the market. Brand positioning is the interface between the two. This relationship is depicted in Figure 2.3.

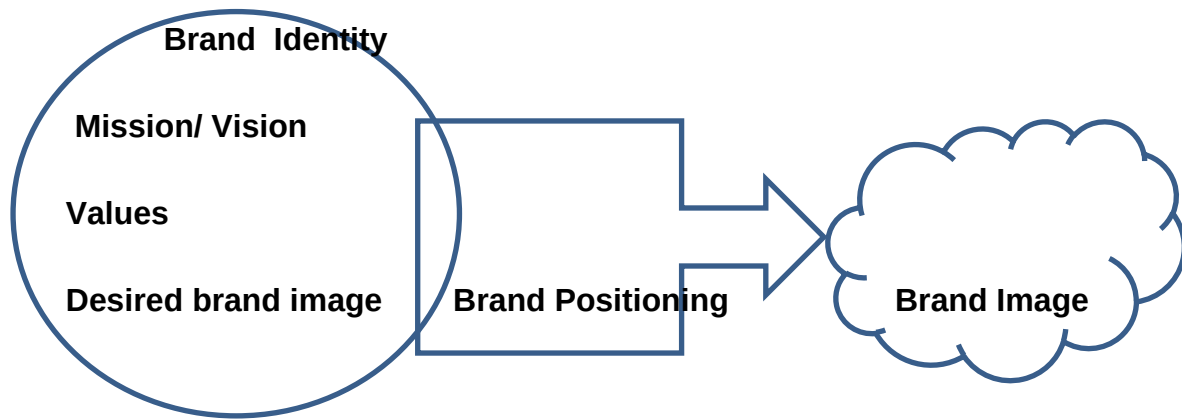


Figure 2.3: Brand Identity, brand positioning and brand image

Brand identity symbolises the ideals and core of the destination community, and is the self-perception desired in the market place, with an internal emphasis on inspiring and guiding stakeholders (Pike, 2004).

2.3.1 Place Identity

A place can be regarded as a location containing a single identity with multiple facets, a history, and cultural heritage, and pre-existing perceptions (Skinner, 2008). Furthermore, as discussed by Beckmann and Zenker (2012), the place brand is built through the identity of a place and how its image differs between target groups. According to Rainisto (2003), the application of the brand identity and brand image constructs to a place, reveals that central in place branding is building the identity for the place. This concept is supported by Matlovicova (2010, p. 11) who states that 'place branding itself is inseparably linked to its image and identity'. This view is maintained by Trueman, Klemm, and Giroud (2004b) who argue that cities, like corporations, require a clear identity, a firm grasp of major strengths as well as a future vision in order to attract investment, business and tourism. The main concern

in developing a place brand identity, according to Glinska and Florek (2013), is to discover and define its core distinguishing features. Identity distinguishing features of a place, for example a city, are those characteristics which make it significantly distinct from other competitive cities on the market, thus determining its uniqueness, individuality and character. An alternative considered view on developing a place identity is a recommendation made by Kotler, Haider and Rein (1993) that the process starts with a place audit, comprising a systematic examination of a place's economy, design, physical assets, quality of life and people. Taking on a slightly different approach, Merrilees et al. (2009) argue that identifying factors influencing city brand attitudes provide a deeper understanding of how branding works in the context of city branding, and provide a framework in which local governments can change and modify such attitudes for the public good. In the case of the City of Johannesburg, the question that arises is what are the key identity distinguishing features which differentiate the metropolitan from other competitive cities in South Africa?

The realisation that competition has intensified for places to distinguish themselves from one another (Baxter & Kerr, 2010a) has meant that marketing strategies are now being implemented competitively. The authors suggest that if marketers are to effectively market their respective places, they need to get a sense of the key characteristics which make up a place identity, with particular attention paid to what is perceived or understood as image. The role of local residents is emphasised in the process of identifying the key attributes that comprise the identity and image of a place, and this process involves understanding what the local residents 'believe' about their place and 'what they think others believe' about their place. Similarly, Kalandides et al. (2013) argue that there is an urgent need for resident involvement and participation in place branding because residents simultaneously fulfil different roles in the place marketing process.

This view is supported by Stylidis, Biran, Sit, and Szivas (2014) who argue that consideration should be given to the local community residents' image of a place rather than only that of tourists, if tourism growth is to benefit the local community. Glinska and Florek (2013) support Baxter and Kerr's (2010) suggestions, by stating that one of the approaches used to attain competitiveness over other places, is the

deliberate and planned shaping of the positive image of the respective place. This is accomplished by the selection of the main attributes of place identity to be applied in the development and shaping of the desired image. The authors further argue that regardless of the numerous views on brand identity, the focus should be on defining the 'meaning, intent and mission' of the brand. The city brand should not be simply about grouping attributes which differentiate it from other cities, but should also have a goal, 'intent' and 'mission', dependent mainly on the city's marketing and intentional expansion objectives.

In providing the process of identifying a place's distinctive features, specifically identity attributes, Glinska and Florek (2013) present several rules that should be followed:

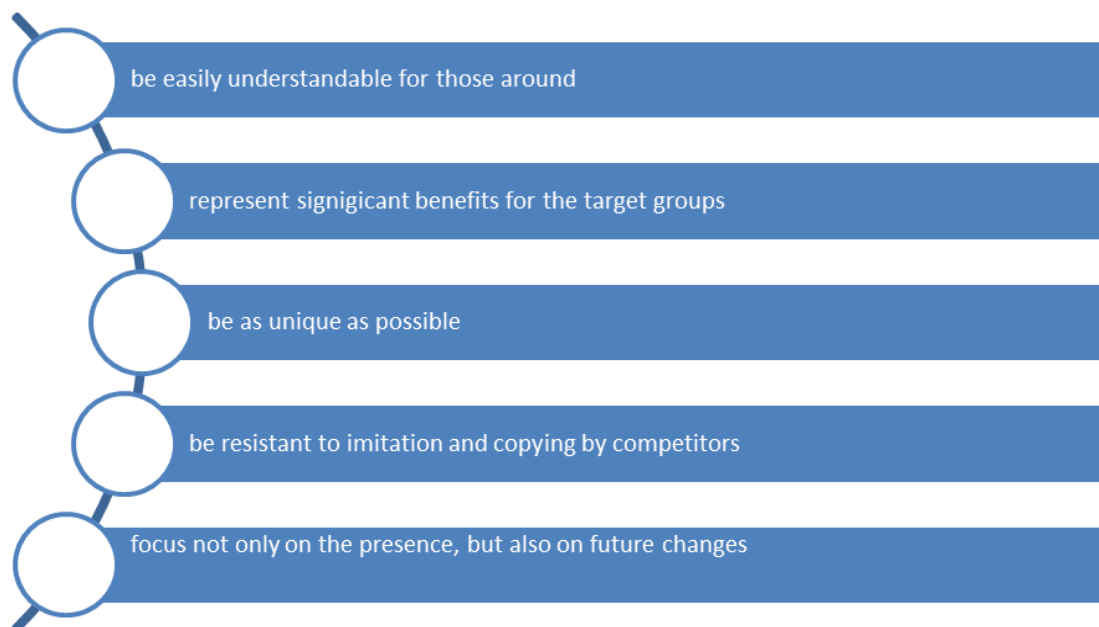


Figure 2.4: Guidelines for identifying a place's distinctive features, specifically identity attributes

Source: Glinska and Florek (2013, p. 201)

It is acknowledged by Glinska and Florek (2013, p.201) that "selection of a city or town's main identity attributes is a challenging task, as one aspect that has to be considered is the nature of the features in the context of brand building possibilities". Furthermore, it is difficult to formulate a recipe that would strictly indicate how many attributes should be used in the territorial brand building, and how they should be

promoted. Glinska and Florek (2013), citing Insch and Florek (2008), argue that cities, by their nature, depend on their residents for economic, social, cultural and environmental vibrancy. In turn, residents' satisfaction with the city is shaped, in part, by the nature or perceived quality of these interrelated environments. Irrefutably and as presented by Stubbs and Warnaby (2015, p. 105), residents have several roles to play relative to place branding:

- (1) As an integrated part of the place brand, through their characteristics and behaviour;
- (2) As ambassadors, granting credibility to communicated messages; and,
- (3) As citizens and voters, who are instrumental in the political legitimization of place branding.

The insights from the literature review reveal the importance of involving local residents in the process of identifying the key attributes that comprise the identity and image of a place.

Anholt (2006) offers a different approach with The City Brand hexagon model, illustrated in Figure 2.5, which describes a framework for evaluating city brands, and was subsequently used to create the Anholt GMI City Brands Index. It consists of six attributes that are considered necessary for evaluating a city brand, namely, presence, place, pulse, potential, people and prerequisites. Presence determines the city's international status and standing; the physical aspects of the city are determined by place; potential examines the opportunities that the city has to offer; the existence of a vibrant urban lifestyle is measured under pulse; people measures the openness and warmth of the local population; and the prerequisites investigate the basic qualities of the city with regard to the standards and price of accommodation and public amenities.

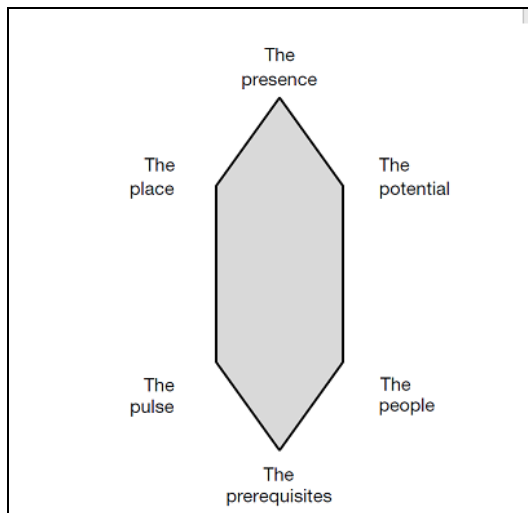


Figure 2.5: The City Brand Hexagon : Source: Anholt (2006, p. 19)

The preceding insights on brand and place identity from the literature lead to the development of the following research question and hypothesis.

Research Questions

Research Questions

1. What are the brand associations and key characteristics that represent the City of Johannesburg?
2. What are the key identity distinguishing features which differentiate the City of Johannesburg from other competitive cities in South Africa?

2.4 Brand Image Theory and Place Image

Brand image relates to existing perceptions of a brand (Aaker, 1996). Keller (2008, p. 51) offers a similar definition by stating that, “brand image is consumers’ perception about a brand, as reflected by the brand associations held in consumer memory.” Likewise, De Chernatony and McDonald (1998) explain that brand image is a reflection of the perceptions that consumers hold of a brand’s characteristics,

and can be evaluated by the associations they hold in their memory. They further illustrate that the various brand associations can be categorised according to the level of thought, information volume held, associations that are either product-related or non-product related and associations aligned to attributes that consumers consider vital. By contrast, Abratt and Kleyn (2012, p. 1049) point out that a range of viewpoints have been used to demonstrate how consumers interpret their 'imagery of a brand and these include 'brand experiences, brand relationships and brand communities'. In support of the vital link between image and place branding, Sevin (2014, p. 48) proposes that "a place brand is based on the perceptions of target audiences - which might or might not be influenced by the physical and communicative aspects of a city."

What is clear from these definitions is that perceptions are formed in the mind of the consumer, based on associations, experience and interactions with the brand and beyond external influence. De Chernatony (1999) succinctly summarises the difference between brand identity and image by highlighting that the former is firm-centred and the latter is customer-centred. This view is also supported by Nandan (2005) who maintains that from a communications perspective, the key variance between brand identity and brand image lies in the fact that identity stems from the source, or company, and image is received by the receiver, or consumer, Table 2.3 summarises the differences between brand identity and brand image.

Table 2.3: Differences between brand identity and brand image

Brand Identity	Brand Image
Source/company focused	Receiver/target audience focused
Created by managerial activities	Created by perceptions of the consumer
Encoded by 'brand originator'	Decoded by 'brand receiver'
Identity is sent	Image is received/perceived

Source: Nandan (2005)

In the case of a place, a challenge arises regarding identity, given the various stakeholders linked to a place and the fact that there is no sole owner to drive the reality of the city. The image construct is certainly applicable to a place as this is driven by consumers' perceptions based on various associations and interactions. Similarly Abratt and Kleyn (2012, p. 1055), highlight the importance of brand experiences in brand image formation, as they argue that 'without any experience of a brand a consumer cannot build a strong brand image'. Therefore, brand experiences reinforce consumers' recollections and extent of reminiscence with brands (Abratt & Kleyn, 2012).

According to Baloglu and McCleary (1999, p. 870), image is an important concept in understanding the selection process that tourists follow when choosing a destination. They argue that "the image concept has generally been considered as an attitudinal construct consisting of an individual's mental representation of knowledge (beliefs), feelings and global impression about an object or destination". The authors' research highlighted a key finding that destination image is shaped by a combination of stimulus factors and tourists' characteristics. According to Baloglu and McCleary (1999), many academics concur that image is predominantly formed by two key forces: stimulus factors and personal factors, with the former emanating from the external stimulus and physical object, as well as prior experience, and the latter comprising the individual social and psychological characteristics of the perceiver. This is depicted in Figure 2.6.

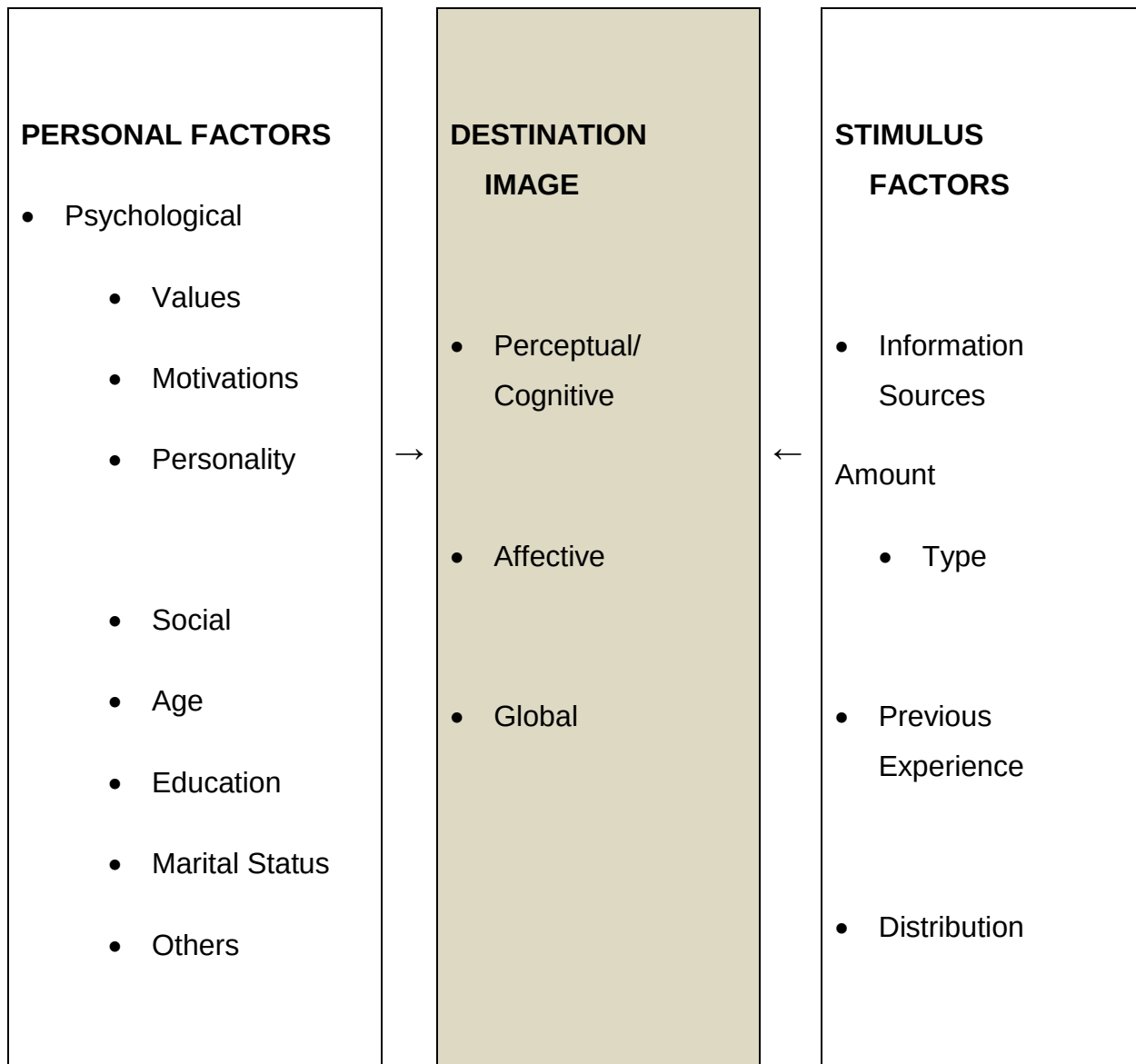


Figure 2.6: A General Framework of Destination Image Formation

2.4.1 Place Image Theory

Although the significance of place image is recognised in place marketing, with Elliot et al. (2001, p. 520) highlighting that ‘central to place marketing and branding theory is the concept of place image’, the authors highlight the complexities around this concept and the lack of theoretical development in this area. Eshuis et al. (2013) caution however, that place marketing is not merely about developing favourable images and communicating to various target groups, but rather developing a place that fits the needs and wants of citizens, visitors and investors. Simply put, “places are arguably first and foremost about the people who live there, and the social relations that exist therein” (Stubbs & Warnaby, 2015, p. 102). A place’s image therefore can be described as “the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a people have about a place and to be effective, it must be credible, simple, distinctive and have appeal (Kotler et al., 1993, p. 20).

Hankinson (2005) indicates that research in the area of destination brand images has concentrated on the features forming destination images, with some identifying brand image characteristics of particular destinations, and others identifying collective characteristics across destinations. The purpose of Hankinson’s article was to examine destination brand images from the perspective of a business tourist (people visiting destinations for business meetings, conferences and exhibitions), versus the predominantly examined perspective of the leisure tourist. Hankinson (2005) examines their connection with perceived quality and commercial criteria and identifies eight main groups of brand image attributes:

- [1] Physical environment,
- [2] Economic activity,
- [3] Business tourism facilities,
- [4] Accessibility,
- [5] Social facilities,

[6] Strength of reputation,

[7] People characteristics

[8] Destination size.

It is worthwhile to note that the identified clusters were comparable to those categorised in the leisure tourism context, such as features related to the physical environment. The general appeal of the destination and its pace of life, are applicable to both leisure and business tourism images. Hankinson (2005) concludes that the resemblances between the brand image characteristics connected with business tourism, and those connected with leisure, present a strong case for the two approaches to be managed together in an effort to avoid communicating two conflicting images.

2.4.2 The importance of Image in Tourism Marketing

Pike (2004) argues that tourism products are predominantly services rather than physical goods, and can often only compete via images. This view is supported by Page, Brunt, Busby, and Connell (2001) who indicate that the tourism industry is considered as a 'service industry'. In the perspective of the marketing requirements of tourism services, there are numerous unique attributes that vary from the marketing requirements of a specific product. The key characteristics are reflected in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4: Characteristics of tourism services

Intangibility

Tourism as a service is essentially intangible. It is not easy to test out the tourism services before it is purchased. Opinions and attitudes may be sought beforehand, or a repeat purchase may rely upon previous holiday experiences, but ultimately the purchase of tourism products is the purchase of a service, i.e, something intangible.

Inseparability

In this sense the production of the service (say the holiday) and the consumption of it (by tourists) occurs at the same time. It is clear that the tourist needs to be present to consume the service, i.e. the two are inseparable. In fact, the tourist's use of the service is crucial to its overall success. Their participation and enjoyment of the holiday (the tourism service) is central.

Heterogeneity

In tourism, as in other services, it is often difficult to achieve standardization in the output of services. No two holidays are alike. Hotel rooms in the same establishment may differ, the weather changes or holidays may be designed for individual customers. It is often the case that tourism services do differ and hence heterogeneity is a feature of tourism.

Perishability

Tourism services cannot be stocked or held over. Hotel rooms or aircraft seats left vacant on one night cannot be kept for future use. If they are not used when available, they are lost forever. Thus service products are said to be perishable.

Source: (Page et al., 2001)

In addition to the above-mentioned characteristics, Pike (2004) presents another feature which expresses the substitutable nature of tourism products. He argues

that destinations compete in crowded markets, as holidaymakers have access to a range of destinations that will satisfy their needs.

The preceding insights on brand and place image from the literature, lead to the development of the following research question and hypothesis:

Research Questions

What images are associated with the City of Johannesburg?

2.5 Communicated Identity Theory

Brand communications is the “component that focuses on the activities associated with the communication of the brand identity” (Hanna & Rowley, 2011, p. 469). According to Hankinson (2009), understanding the brand identity requires a clear definition of what to communicate and a presentation that will appeal to all levels in the organisation. Similarly, Ashworth and Kavaratzis (2009) suggest that crafting or prompting expectations about the city happens through communication and promotional activities.

Hankinson (2009) argues that brands, conventionally, have concentrated on external communication to a selected target consumer market, but that with the growth of corporate branding there is a requirement to communicate to a wider range of stakeholders – investors, local communities, suppliers and other business partners. Kavaratzis (2005) says that the entirety of what takes place in the city, the sum total of what a city consists of and does, communicates messages about the city’s brand. Additionally, Kavaratzis (2005) contends that a brand is communicated through two distinct types of communication - primary and secondary. The primary communication is not influenced by deliberate communicative actions, but rather by implicit actions split into four general areas of participation: landscape strategies; infrastructure projects; organisational and administrative structure; and the city behaviour. The formal and deliberate communication that is visible, such as advertising, public relations, graphic design and the use of a logo, characterises secondary communication (similar to promotion in the traditional marketing mix).

Kavaratzis (2005), however, cautions against confusing the entire branding effort of a place with the aforementioned practices. He says that secondary communication should complement all the other components of the brand, and, critically, blend with the reality of the city as experienced by numerous parties.

An additional communications approach involves tertiary communication which refers to Word of Mouth, reinforced by the media and a wide variety of city users. Word of Mouth serves as a form of communication largely beyond the control of place marketers (Kavaratzis, 2009). Word of mouth is the “component that encompasses that processes associated with the informal communication between ‘consumers’ of the brand experience” (Hanna & Rowley, 2011, p. 470). Furthermore, Word of Mouth delivers extremely trustworthy means of influence, since the communicator is not seen having a deliberate interest (Hanna & Rowley, 2011).

Focusing specifically on identity, the work of Balmer (2001) presents a framework of five identity types, which might prove valuable in examining the effectiveness of a city or place in communicating its image and identity, namely, actual identity (A), the communicated identity (C), the conceived identity (C^2), the ideal identity (I) and the desired identity (D). The identity types are explained by Ashworth and Kavaratzis (2009, p. 523) as follows:

- [1] *Actual identity*: the current attributes of the corporation
- 2] *Communicated identity* – revealed through controllable corporate communication
- [3] *Conceived identity* – perceptions of the company held by relevant stakeholders
- [4] *Ideal identity* - the optimum positioning of the organisation in its market in a given time-frame
- [5] *Desired identity* – the vision of corporate leaders for the organisation.

Inconsistencies can be seen if there are gaps in communication between any of these components where corporate propaganda is not in line with reality.

In the case of the City of Johannesburg, the actual reality is reflected in its cultural history, historical buildings, residents and business communities’ behaviour; and

their familiarity with and experience of its services and infrastructure, that is, what people actually see and feel about Johannesburg. The difficulty with conceived identity is that it refers to perceptual concepts such as corporate image, corporate reputation and corporate branding as held by relevant stakeholders (Balmer & Greyser, 2002). A judgement call is required from management as to which group's perceptions are most vital. The communicated identity however, is centred on a city that aspires to world class standards, although when one considers its basic infrastructure and services, there is considerable work to be done to reach those standards. The ideal identity, representing the optimum positioning of the organisation in its market, is arguably driven by strategic planners. In the case of the City of Johannesburg, the question is who are the main stakeholders who can optimally position the city? The desired identity is seen to be driven by a CEO and management board, and, in the case of the City of Johannesburg, multiple stakeholders are involved, including the government, the City of Johannesburg, various marketing companies, such as City of Johannesburg Tourism Company, Brand SA and South African Tourism Company.

The foregoing insights into the literature on communicated identity lead to the development of the following research question:

Research Question

What is the City of Johannesburg's actual identity and is this reflected in the communicated identity?

2.6 Conceptual Model and Hypothesis Development

Based on the review of literature, the conceptual model was developed as shown in Figure 2.7. Three basic constructs, which were discussed in the preceding section, make up the model. These constructs are place identity, place image and communicated identity. The relationships between the proposed constructs in the conceptual model are as follows, place identity positively impacts on the relationship between place image; which is positively related to communicated identity and finally the positive correlation between communicated identity to place image.

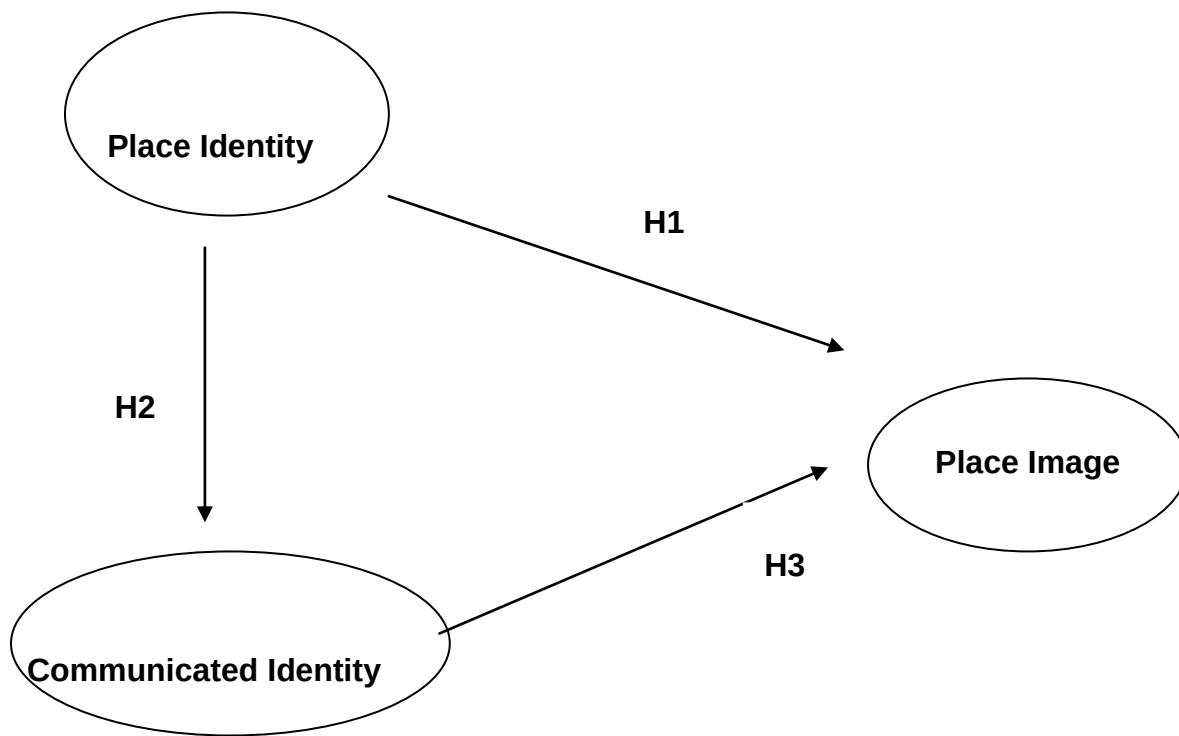


Figure 2.7: A Conceptual model

The three hypotheses are examined with regard to the research model.

2.6.1 Place Identity

According to Rainisto (2003), the application of the brand identity and brand image constructs to a place, reveals that central in place branding is building the identity for the place. This concept is supported by Matlovicova (2010, p. 11) who states that ‘place branding itself is inseparably linked to its image and identity’. A study conducted by Kavaratzis and Hatch (2013) revealed that branding has a role to play in all parts of identity formation and effectively done, expresses the place’s culture, leaves impressions on others, mirrors these impressions on the identity, and reflects the changes evoked back into the place culture. According to Ashworth and Kavaratzis (2010), the image of an area (region, city) reflects its identity and these images show the values that the various groups connect to the area, to its characteristics and its identity. Merrilees et al. (2009) surveyed 878 residents of the

city of Gold Coast and tested 10 hypotheses regarding the antecedents of city brand attitudes. Therefore, this study expects to see a positive relationship between place identity and place image and posits that:

H1: Place identity is positively related to place image.

2.6.2 Place Image

According to Kavartzis (2005), destinations are visited because of their prior images, and they are consumed based on a first-hand comparison of those images with the reality faced in the destination itself. The significance of place image is recognised in place marketing, with Elliot et al. (2001, p. 520) highlighting that 'central to place marketing and branding theory is the concept of place image'. The image construct is certainly applicable to a place as this is driven by consumers' perceptions based on various associations and interactions. Kotler and Gestner (2002) maintain that even when a country does not consciously manage its name as a brand, people still have images of countries that can be activated by simply voicing the name. They indicate that country images and arguably, cities, are likely to influence people's decisions related to purchasing, investing, changing residence and travelling. Kotler and Gestner (2002, p. 251) explain that "images represent a simplification of a large number of associations and places of information connected with a place, and that they are a product of the mind trying to process and pick out essential information from huge amounts of data about a place". A study conducted by Elliot, Papadopoulos, and Szamosi (2013) concluded that a systematic approach of studying a mix of place image components, both qualitatively and quantitatively, can help a place to identify its unique strengths and assess its vulnerabilities. Based on this the following hypothesis has been proposed:

H2: Place identity is positively related to communicated identity.

2.6.3 Communicated Identity

Everything a city consists of, everything that takes place in the city and is done by the city, communicates messages about the city's brand (Kavartzis, 2004). Brand

communications is the “component that focuses on the activities associated with the communication of the brand identity” (Hanna & Rowley, 2011, p. 469). According to Hankinson (2009), understanding the brand identity requires a clear definition of what to communicate and a presentation that will appeal to all levels in society. Kavaratzis (2005) contends that a brand is communicated through two distinct types of communication - primary and secondary. The primary communication is not influenced by deliberate communicative actions, but rather by implicit actions split into four general areas of participation: landscape strategies; infrastructure projects; organisational and administrative structure; and the city behaviour. The formal and deliberate communication that is visible, such as advertising, public relations, graphic design and the use of a logo, characterises secondary communication (similar to promotion in the traditional marketing mix).

An additional communications approach involves tertiary communication which refers to Word of Mouth, reinforced by the media and a wide variety of city users. Word of Mouth serves as a form of communication largely beyond the control of place marketers (Kavaratzis, 2009). A clear-cut indicator of place branding success as observed by Braun, Eshuis, and Klijn (2014) is the improvement of the place brand image. A study conducted by Braun et al. (2014) demonstrated a positive effect for both physical place brand communication and positive word-of-mouth that is mediated by the place brand image. Based on the literature above, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H3: Communicated identity is positively related to place image.

2.7 Literature Review Summary

The realisation that competition has intensified in order for places to distinguish themselves from each other, has led to marketing strategies being implemented so as to market places more competitively (Baxter & Kerr, 2010a). Baxter and Kerr suggest that if marketers are to effectively market their respective places, there need to be criteria to determine, and get a sense of, the key characteristics which make up a place identity, with specific attention paid to what is perceived or understood as image.

Given the multiple stakeholder views, and the range of issues that contribute to the overall image and identity of a place, place branding remains a complex issue. However, the literature review reveals how place branding is inseparably connected to its image and identity. This review also shows the importance of understanding the various meanings and experiences that make local residents value a specific place. This is essential in developing a sense of the place and determining the key characteristics that make up a place identity,

From the review of the literature relevant to the research topic, the following research questions and testable hypotheses emerge:

2.7.1 Summary of Emergent research questions

Research Questions

Place Identity
1. What are the brand associations and key characteristics that represent the City of Johannesburg? 2. What are the key identity distinguishing features which differentiate the City of Johannesburg from other competitive cities in South Africa?
Place Image
What images are associated with the City of Johannesburg?
Place Communicated Identity
What is the City of Johannesburg's actual identity and is this reflected in the communicated identity?

2.7.2 *Summary of Emergent Hypotheses*

H1: Place identity is positively related to place image.

H2: Place identity is positively related to communicated identity.

H3: Communicated identity is positively related to place image.

3 CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

This study followed a mixed methods research design. Mixed method research is an approach to inquiry involving collecting both qualitative and quantitative data (Creswell, 2013). The research design was chosen as a result of the research problem. According to Creswell (2013), the central supposition of a mixed method approach is that the combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches provides a more complete understanding of a research problem than either approach alone. This research methodology was deemed appropriate, as it allowed for the probing of questions through the qualitative research study, to establish the identity of the City of Johannesburg from the perspective of stakeholders responsible for branding the metropolitan; as well as investigating the perceptions and image of the City of Johannesburg through the quantitative research study.

In this study, the qualitative stage and quantitative stage are discussed separately. For each stage, the research instrument, data collection method and analysis, as well as validity and reliability are discussed.

3.2 Qualitative research study

The qualitative research study adopted the constructivist worldview philosophy. According to Creswell (2014), the objective of the inquiry is to rely mainly on the participants' interpretations of the situation being studied, and in this regard, this worldview is appropriate for the qualitative study. Similarly, "A phenomenological study is a study that attempts to understand people's perceptions, perspectives, and understanding of a particular situation" (Leedy & Omrod, 2010, p. 141).

3.2.1 Population and sample

3.2.1.1 Population

Industry experts responsible for marketing or branding a place, be it a country, province, region or city were considered as the population for this research, that is, tourism marketers, place branding practitioners and Chief Marketing Officers. The population represents the universe of units from which a sample will be drawn (Bryman, 2012). Bryman (2012, p. 714) defines population as “the universe of units from which a sample is to be selected.

3.2.1.2 Sample and sampling method

Purposive sampling was applied for the qualitative study. In purposive sampling, individuals are selected for a specific *purpose*, as the name implies (Leedy & Omrod, 2010). In this regard, data for this study was gathered from Chief Marketing Officers or senior team members from destination marketing organisations for their knowledge of, and responsibility for, the promotion of business and leisure tourism, specifically the City of Johannesburg. Similar to this purposive sampling approach, Hankinson (2004) collected data from a purposive sample of tourism marketers in the UK, representing 25 destination marketing organisations drawn from the membership of the British Association of Conference Destinations (BACD).

An overview of the participant profile is shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Participant Profile

Company	Job Title	Number Interviewed
City of Johannesburg	Director of Tourism and Economic Development	1
Gauteng Tourism	Director: Brand Management	1
Johannesburg Tourism	Head of PR & Communications Deputy Director : Destination Marketing	2
Sandton Convention Centre	Sales and Marketing Manager	1
Rainbow Tourism Group (South Africa)	Sales Executive	1
Total		6

Leedy and Ormrod (2010) recommend a typical sample size from 5 – 25 individuals, all of whom have direct experience with the phenomenon being studied.

3.2.2 *The qualitative research instrument*

A semi-structured interview format for data collection was used, guided by a list of open-ended questions that focused on core themes. The broad themes derived from the literature review informed the design of the research questions which consisted of three categories, namely place identity, place image and communicated identity. The questions were open-ended. A copy of the set of questions is presented in **Appendix A**, along with the introductory letter to the respondents.

3.3 Procedure for data collection

Personal interviews were scheduled with each respondent at their place of work. Individuals were contacted, primarily by email, and provided with background on the research and the purpose of the research. Interviews took place with respondents in Johannesburg between March and July 2015. Respondents reflected varying levels of seniority and held senior positions within the destination marketing industry.

Their involvement in the research and to be recorded was requested and consent sought, by respondents signing a consent form before interviews commenced.

The respondents' insights were recorded using a Dictaphone and then transcribed. Interviews were semi-structured with an average duration of 45 - 60 minutes.

3.3.1 *Data analysis and interpretation*

Merriam (2009) recommends that the ideal way to analyse data in qualitative research, is to do it concurrently with data collection. Transcripts from the in-depth interviews with respondents were analysed and themes, perceptions and opinions of respondents were identified and coded, common themes were grouped to draw out the validity of the propositions.

This analysis method according to Leedy and Omrod (2010), is an important task during data study of categorising collective themes in people's narratives of their experiences. The data obtained was applied to theories discussed in the literature review.

3.3.2 Validity and reliability

For the quantitative section, reliability and validity of measurement scales was completed by using Smart PLS.

Reliability and validity as submitted by Golafshani (2003, p. 603) "are conceptualized as trustworthiness, rigor and quality in qualitative paradigm. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011, p. 211) further suggest that in qualitative research, focus is placed more on validity than reliability "to determine whether the account provided by the researcher and the participants is accurate".

Krefting (1991) explains the required rigour in both qualitative and quantitative research as presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Comparison of Criteria by Research Approach

Criterion	Qualitative Approach	Quantitative Approach
Trust Value	Credibility	Internal Validity
Applicability	Transferability	External Validity
Consistency	Dependability	Reliability
Neutrality	Confirmability	Objectivity

Source: Krefting (1991, p. 217)

The table establishes that issues, such as validity and reliability in quantitative research are similar to credibility, transferability and dependability in qualitative research.

Several strategies exist for determining validity from member-checking to triangulation of data in qualitative research. For the purpose of determining the validity of information obtained from qualitative research, a peer examination was adopted as a strategy to establish trustworthy and credibility of the findings (Krefting, 1991). According to Krefting (1991, p. 219) “peer examination involves the researcher’s discussing the research process and findings with impartial colleagues who have experience with qualitative methods”.

3.3.3 External validity

- External validity is “concerned with the question of whether the results of a study can be generalized beyond the specific research context” (Bryman, 2012, p. 47). Similarly, Merriam (2009, p. 223) explains that external validity is “concerned with the extent to which the findings of one study can be applied to other situations”. The issue of how people are selected to participate in research becomes crucial in addressing the issue of external validity according to Bryman (2012). The quantitative research is limited to postgraduate students at the Wits Business School, whose views might be swayed by one’s education level and so cannot be assumed to be valid across the total population. The philosophies concerning place image and identity for example should, however, be valid across all local residents of a place, city or country.

3.4 Quantitative research study

The quantitative research study adopted the post-positivist worldview, which according to Creswell (2009) is the accepted approach to research by researchers who begin with a theory, and/or conceptualised relationships, and then collect data for empirical analyses that either supports or refutes the theory/ conceptual relationship. This approach was appropriate for this research because hypotheses were developed from theories that underpinned issues of the research topic and relevant data was collected from the sample population.

Creswell (2014, p. 4) defines a quantitative research approach as “an approach for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables. These variables, in turn, can be measured (typically with instruments) so that numbered data can be analysed using statistical procedures”.

3.4.1 Research Design

The survey method is appropriate for the study, as the research required a large sample size, which needed to be collected from Johannesburg residents. The research design for this study was one that assembled a cross sectional data set by way of a survey, and was conducted using an “explanatory research design which advances and tests hypotheses to confirm causal relationships” (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999, p. 879).

3.4.2 Population and sample

3.4.2.1 Population

The population of respondents for the research survey instrument included any Johannesburg resident with internet access and access to the survey link but pragmatically speaking, was limited to postgraduate students at the University of Witwatersrand Graduate School of Business (Wits Business School - WBS) attending various academic programmes and short courses.

3.4.2.2 Sample and sampling method

Respondents for the quantitative research were selected using convenience sampling as the population was easily accessible to the researcher. The selection of respondents was primarily postgraduate students at WBS in Johannesburg, Gauteng, attending various academic programmes and short courses. The survey link was also forwarded to colleagues and friends, who were asked to report their demographic information, including gender, age, education, employment status and residence status.

The number of respondents to be sampled was a minimum of 200. The size was chosen due to its sufficiency to run on the Smart PLS software. Of the total of 258 respondents who completed the questionnaire, 204 usable questionnaires were retrieved for the final data analysis, representing a response rate of 79.1%.

3.5 Procedure for data collection

The online questionnaire was completed using Qualtrics. The survey was designed using this application (<http://www.qualtrics.com>) and distributed to respondents via email.

Care was taken in constructing questions to avoid shoddily worded questions as this would have resulted in ambiguous responses that could not be interpreted or analysed (Lethbridge, Sim, & Singer, 2005). It is highly advisable by Lethbridge et al. (2005) to pilot test the questions and then re-design them as one gathers which questions positively tackle the relevant issues. In this regard, a pilot questionnaire was initially distributed to test and validate the questionnaire in order to ensure the reliability of the outcomes. The pilot was completed by distributing the online survey to 20 respondents, of these 50% completed the pilot survey. Modifications were then made to the questionnaire and these included around correcting numbering, rephrasing of questions to avoid ambiguity, addition of age groups of over 45 which had been omitted, an indication of how much time the survey would likely take was included, insertion of page breaks between sections and major blocks of questions,

and a question regarding marital status was removed as it did not have any relevance to the research problem.

The questionnaire consisted of 43 questions, divided into 3 sections as explained below.

Place Identity: these questions were based on those used by Merrilees, et al. (2009). 17 questions were asked under the following subsections headings: Place Identity; Business Creativity; Shopping Facilities; Cultural Activities and Transport Infrastructure. Respondents were required to indicate to what extent they agreed or disagreed with statements presented between 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'.

Place Image: these questions were based on those used by Merrilees et al. (2009). 16 questions were asked under the following subsections headings: Place Image; Government Services; and Brand Equity. Respondents were required to indicate to what extent they agreed or disagreed with statements presented between 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'.

Communicated Identity: these questions were based on the literature review, specifically the work of Balmer (2001) which presents a framework of five identity types, one of which is communicated identity. Seven questions were asked under this category. Respondents were required to indicate to what extent they agreed or disagreed with statements presented between 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'.

Demographics: these questions were used to determine the sex, gender, age, education, employment status and residence status of respondents.

The questionnaire had three to seven measurement items per construct. The scale and the measurement items are adapted from Merrilees et al. (2009) who conducted a study to determine and identify important city brand attitudes in Gold Coast City, a middle size city in South East Queensland, Australia. In this study the variables whose relationship was tested are place identity, place image and communicated identity.

All the measurement items were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree* to express the degree of agreement.

Measurement scales

Place Identity	
PI1	City of Johannesburg has access to outdoor recreational features
PI2	City of Johannesburg has many parks, braai and picnic facilities
PI3	City of Johannesburg has a variety of natural wonders
Business Creativity	
BC1	City of Johannesburg is a good place to do business
BC2	Business is innovative in the City of Johannesburg
BC3	Local business appears to be thriving in the City of Johannesburg
BC4	There are many self-employment opportunities in the City of Johannesburg
Shopping Facilities	
SF1	Fashion shopping is excellent in the City of Johannesburg
SF2	There are nice places for cups of coffee and snacks in the City of Johannesburg
SF3	There is wide choice of shopping in the City of Johannesburg
SF4	There is a diverse range of quality restaurants in the City of Johannesburg
Cultural Activities	
CA1	City of Johannesburg has a diverse range of cultural events and festivals

CA2	City of Johannesburg has numerous live shows
CA3	City of Johannesburg has adequate community centers.
CA4	City of Johannesburg has a modern day design and appeal is evident.
CA5	City of Johannesburg is cosmopolitan and sophisticated
Transport Infrastructure	
TI1	City of Johannesburg has sufficient road network
TI2	Traffic moves freely in the City of Johannesburg
TI3	Road works do not inconvenience in the City of Johannesburg
TI4	City of Johannesburg roads are well maintained and repaired quickly

Place Image	
PIM1	City of Johannesburg is good for families
PIM2	It is easy to make friends in the City of Johannesburg
PIM3	Family and friends enjoy visiting in the City of Johannesburg
PIM4	City of Johannesburg has cultural diversity
Government Services	
GS1	City of Johannesburg has good access to health care
GS2	Energy supplies are reliable in the City of Johannesburg
GS3	There are many educational facilities in the City of Johannesburg
GS4	The public transport in the City of Johannesburg is adequate

GS5	The local government in the City of Johannesburg is trusted to make sound decisions
GS6	Health needs of the old are catered for in the City of Johannesburg
GS7	Council's residential services are pleasing in the City of Johannesburg
Brand Equity	
BE1	Overall lifestyle is good in the City of Johannesburg
BE2	City of Johannesburg has a good reputation among its residents
BE3	I would rather live in the City of Johannesburg than any other place
BE4	I am proud to live in the City of Johannesburg
BE5	I am satisfied living in the City of Johannesburg
Communicated Identity	
CI1	City of Johannesburg identity is reflected in its cultural history
CI2	City of Johannesburg identity is reflected in its historical buildings
CI3	City of Johannesburg identity is reflected in residents' familiarity and experience about its services and infrastructure
CI4	The identity of the City of Johannesburg is reflected in the advertising message
CI5	The identity of the City of Johannesburg is reflected in the public relations campaigns
CI6	The identity of the City of Johannesburg is reflected in its graphic design and use of logo
CI7	Word of mouth influences the City of Johannesburg's identity as opposed to what is communicated

The questionnaire is attached as Appendix B.

3.5.1 Survey Instrument

The data collection questionnaire had a cover letter on the first page, clearly explaining what the survey is all about, with straight-forward instructions as to how to answer the questions. A pilot survey, distributed electronically, was used to pre-test and refine the instrument.

The research instrument was created after a review of a similar study by Merrilees et al. (2009). A seven-point Likert scale was used to measure responses.

An illustration of a seven-point Likert scale is depicted below.

Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
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Research questions were drafted to test the hypotheses derived from the literature review. Merrilees et al. (2009) used a quantitative research strategy, using a self-administered mail survey instrument, to determine and identify important city brand attitudes in Gold Coast City, a middle size city in South East Queensland, Australia.

Appendix B contains an illustration of the cover letter and the questionnaire design format.

3.6 Data analysis and interpretation

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

3.6.1 Structural Equation Modelling Approach

Structural equation modelling (SEM) was employed in the study for the purpose of analysing data. Structural equation modelling “is a general term that has been used to describe a large number of statistical models used to evaluate the validity of substantive theories with empirical data” (Lei & Wu, 2007, p. 33).

Scholars have advocated many advantages of SEM. They are as follows:

- SEM takes a confirmatory (hypothesis testing) approach to the multivariate analysis of structural theory, one that stipulates causal relations among multiple variables (Lei & Wu, 2007)
- SEM can extend explanatory power and statistical efficiency for model examination with one complete model (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998).
- It can include latent constructs in the analysis while accounting for measurement errors in the estimation process (Hair et al., 1998).
- SEM provides support for examining and validating hypotheses of causal relationships due not only to its ability to model measurement error, but also to its ability to do away with bias and distortion (Iriundo, Albert, & Escudero, 2003; Pugeseck & Tomer, 1995, p. 445);
- SEM has the ability to concurrently model and illustrate the direct and indirect interrelationships that exists among many dependent and independent constructs (Gefen, Straub, & Boudreau, 2000, p. 4);
- SEM possesses a gradual characteristic that allows it to produce separate and individually different coefficients (Jenatabadi & Ismail, 2014, p. 26);
- SEM technique allows for ensuring and evaluating a complete model generating goodness-of-fit statistics and assessing the overall fit (Ho, 2006);
- SEM permits researchers to model mediator constructs and to examine the entire system of indicators therefore enabling the establishment of rational models that need simultaneous assessment (Kline & Klammer, 2001, p. 213) and
- SEM is an efficient and most favourable method for evaluating and examining the relationships among mediator constructs (Dhanaraj, Lyles, Steensma, & Tihanyi, 2004, p. 434).

It was observed by Bearden, Sharma, and Teel (1982, p. 425) that the use of structural equation/ path analysis in marketing research has developed noticeably as the techniques “aid the researcher in accounting for both multiple relationships and interdependencies among variables”. Additionally, structural equation modelling has become a popular statistical technique to test theory in several fields of knowledge (Hair et al., 1998; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

According to Lei and Wu (2007), SEM involves the evaluation of two models: a measurement model and path model, both of which were utilised to analyse data in this study. In SEM, the measurement model refers to the linkages between the latent variables and their manifest variables and the structural model captures the hypothesised causal relationships among the research constructs (Chin & Newsted, 1999).

SEM is fundamentally a framework that involves concurrently solving systems of linear equations and includes procedures such as regression, factor analysis and path analysis (Beran & Violato, 2010, p. 267 Stein, Morris & Nock 2012, p. 495). SEM with Smart PLS involves performing a procedure known as Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and path analysis (Chen, Zhang, Liu, & Mo, 2011, p. 243) concurrently. The function of CFA is to evaluate how well the latent variables are measured by the observed variables (Chen et al., 2011, p. 243) while that of path analysis is to investigate causal relationships among unobserved variables (Nusair et al. 2010, p. 316).

3.6.1.1 Data coding using excel spreadsheet

Firstly, the collected data was coded in Excel spreadsheet before analysis. Coding involves assigning a number to each answer of a survey question. It is a process which was undertaken in the current study for the purpose of condensing data into a comprehensible format (Lethbridge, et al., 2005). After this, the coded data was subjected to a quantitative assessment (Lethbridge, et al., 2005).

3.6.1.2 Descriptive analysis using Smart PLS Statistical Package

To understand aspects of each variable, descriptive statistics analysis was utilised. This procedure was undertaken with the use of software known as Smart PLS. Smart PLS is a regression based technique that originates from path analysis. Smart PLS has emerged as a powerful approach to study causal models involving multiple constructs with multiple indicators (Chinomona & Surujlal, 2012) Smart PLS - a component-based method - has an ability to model latent constructs that are uncontaminated by measurement error under conditions of non-normality. It has the ability to handle complex predictive models in small-to-medium sample sizes. Since the current study sample size is relatively small (200) Smart PLS was found more appropriate and befitting the purpose of the current study. An advantage for the study in utilising the program was that it allowed for the score and assessment of the data quickly, and in several different ways. As soon the descriptive statistics of data were generated, the next procedure involved assessing the reliability and validity of the measurement scales.

3.6.1.3 Reliability and validity of measurement scales using Smart PLS

Muijs (2011) emphasises that validity and reliability are key concepts in quantitative research methods as they have to do with measurement; with validity addressing the question “are we measuring what we want to measure?” and reliability measures the level to which test scores are free of measurement error. Similarly, according to Wilckens (2010), reliability and validity have to do with understanding the logic and accuracy of the measurement scales. Reliability requires better comparable experiments, while validity asks the question if the experiment is tailored to answer appropriately the questions being asked; i.e. if the experiment is valid in logical terms (Wilckens, 2010). According to Hair et al. (1998), reliability is measured at two levels: item reliability and construct reliability.

Structural equation modelling is carried out in a two-staged approach: the first phase is conducted to evaluate the satisfactoriness of the measurement model. In this

stage, both construct reliability and item reliability are examined (Nusair & Hua, 2010).

Item reliability conveys the amount of variance in an item due to underlying construct rather than to error and can be obtained by squaring the factor loadings (Chau, 1997). Construct reliability relates to the extent to which a measurement scale reflects an underlying factor (Nusair et al., 2010). The current study examined construct reliability in particular through conducting a Cronbach alpha test, a “measure of the correlations between all the variables that make up the scale” (Muijs, 2011, p. 217). Muijs (2011) explains that the standard behind the measure is that if items measure the same concept, there will be a high level of correlation, and therefore a high Cronbach’s alpha indicates high levels of internal consistency. The current study Cronbach’s alpha coefficients ranged from 0.795 to 0.857, which meant that all the Cronbach’s alpha exceeded the recommended threshold of 0.7 in the literature (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994) thereby confirming that the measures used in this study are reliable. The internal reliability of each construct was also evaluated using the Composite Reliability (CR) index test.

A general rule to increasing reliability when it is not satisfactory is to eliminate one item or more from the scale (Bryman, et al., 2003). Having made certain that the observed instrument meets the needed level of reliability, the next step was to assess the measurement scale’s validity. Validity signifies the extent to which a set of measurement items accurately reflects the concept of interest (Hair, et al., 1998). There are various types of validity (Nusair, et al., 2010) however the current study placed the focus on convergent and discriminant validity.

Convergent validity was examined by observing the inter-correlation between measurement items and the particular research construct. Discriminant validity was examined by observing the correlation matrix as well as the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and shared variance which were identified in the next phase. Additionally, item reliability was also assessed in the next phase through running factor analysis and examining item loadings.

3.6.1.4 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

In CFA, the researcher specifies a particular number of constructs which are correlated and observed variables measuring each construct (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Accordingly in the data analysis conducted in the current study, model specification was carried out as the first procedure in CFA. This procedure entailed identifying the set of relationships intended to be tested and determined how to specify constructs within the model (Nusair & Hua, 2010). Having specified the model, the next step was model modification (Chen et al., 2011). This implies that if the variance covariance matrix approximated by the model did not sufficiently replicate the sample variance-covariance matrix, the model would have to have been improved and re-examined on the condition that the model is made to be identifiable (Nusair & Hua, 2010). From here on, the model fit is evaluated. The purpose of this procedure was to assess the degree to which the proposed theoretical model was validated by the sampled data (Nusair & Hua, 2010). Model fit was evaluated by examining the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI).

The justification for CFA is that it allows the researcher to generate a Composite Reliability value and standardised regression weights which can be used to assess convergent validity (Nusair & Hua, 2010). For both CFA and path modelling, SEM provides a model fit which evaluates whether the data collected fit the conceptual model. SEM also provides P-values used for assessing the significance of the hypothesised relationships (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Lastly, path modelling allows the research to generate path coefficients that are used to denote the strength of the relationship between variables in the conceptual model (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

3.6.1.5 Path Modelling

The next phase of data analysis through the use of SEM involved path analysis (Beran & Violato, 2010). Path modelling highlights the relationship between variables and theoretical constructs (Roche, Duffield, & White, 2011). It also tests and validates the structural paths of the conceptualized research model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The study's structural model was evaluated by examining the t-

values as well as standardised regression coefficients (Matzler & Renzl, 2006). In conducting path modelling, a particular responsibility is to explain standardised regression coefficients as well as predictive ability (Wu, 2010).

3.7 Limitations of the study

- The researcher was responsible for filtering the information shared by the participants, potentially introducing bias.
- Sampling bias could have been introduced due to the study being limited to postgraduate students at the Wits Business School. This limits the generalisation of the research.
- The size of the sample, relative to the population. The sample itself could be considered a limitation as the same research done widely at different institutions or included more local residents may have led to different results.
- Other limitations that may have affected the research are the number of people who responded to the survey - a larger response may have produced different results.
- The study involved Internet-based questionnaires which are likely to be biased in favour of computer-literate individuals with easy access to the Internet.

4 CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS – QUALITATIVE STUDY

This chapter summarises the key findings of the qualitative research results. Responses to the in-depth interviews are presented.

4.1 Demographic profile of respondents

This study reflects insights from interviews of six destination marketing practitioners. Interviews took place with respondents in Johannesburg between March and July 2015. An equal proportion of the respondents interviewed were male and female. This study assumed that gender is not of importance in the outcomes of this study.

Respondents reflected varying levels of seniority and held senior positions within the destination marketing industry, from a Sales Executive, Sales and Marketing Manager, Deputy Director: Destination Marketing; Head of PR & Communications, Director: Brand Management and Director: Tourism and Economic Development.

4.2 Practitioners' perceptions of the City of Johannesburg

The following section summarises the responses from the qualitative questions posed during the in-depth face-to-face interviews over an average period of 45 minutes that were held at the respondents' offices based in the Johannesburg area. All interviewees were contacted prior to the interview to gain permission to conduct the interview. All face-to-face interviews were recorded and treated with confidentiality. The questions were split into three categories, namely, place identity, place image and communicated identity.

4.3 Results pertaining to the City of Johannesburg place identity

In general, all respondents appeared to be in agreement with the brand associations that represent the City of Johannesburg. The marketing practitioners interviewed, agreed that the City of Johannesburg was associated with opportunities and vibrancy and is seen significantly as a business hub / centre of economic activity.

4.3.1 Associated with Opportunities

Three of the six respondents described Johannesburg as a place of opportunity or realising dreams. For example, Respondent 1 describes Johannesburg as a place one can “strike..... gold....”. Obviously, because, as Respondent 4 points out, “its history as [a] gold mine ‘boom town’”. It is fit for individuals seeking achievement, according to Respondent 5, if one can make it in Johannesburg, they can make it anywhere in the world. That is why, “whether [one is] ... coming to Johannesburg to do business, to study, to get a job, to invest, you are likely to make it in Johannesburg”.

4.3.2 Business hub / Centre of economic activity

The majority of respondents agreed that the City of Johannesburg is South Africa’s business hub. Respondent 2 refers to the City as “the business hub where all the major deals in Africa take place, [including funding, where], “people look at Johannesburg as the gateway to funding, particularly when you look at Sandton”. Although it can be argued whether the City is still the economic leader in the whole of Africa with Nigeria’s economy reported as the largest in Africa and outpacing South Africa, Respondent 3 echoed the same sentiments and gave the title of “business hub of Africa” to the City of Johannesburg and similarly, Respondent 5 described the City of Johannesburg as “the economic gateway to the continent”. Similarly, but with a different take, the City is viewed as a gateway from a “transport and air travel access point, [as] “most of the airlines that fly into the continent fly into Johannesburg and from that point of view, it is like the “centre of economic activity in the country”, as observed by Respondent 4.

4.3.3 Associated with vibrancy and is cosmopolitan

What was surprising was that only two of the respondents associated the City with being vibrant and cosmopolitan. Respondent 4 describes the City as a “very youthful city and is one of those phenomenal cities that has grown because of the gold and everything else that came as a result of that”. The one reference to being vibrant was made by Respondent 1 who mentioned the “City’s buzz” which takes place all the time – “24/7”. With reference to the physical brand of the City, particularly, the logo, Respondent 6 highlights that the “exclamation mark on the logo” expresses the city's identity as a “lively, vibrant and dynamic place”.

These themes and respondents’ views are summarised in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Practitioners’ views of the City of Johannesburg’s brand association

Theme 1: Associated with opportunities	
Respondent	Responses
R1:	<i>“Wealth - seeking achievement, land of opportunities; striking the gold opportunity”.</i>
R4:	<i>‘Primarily, it is a place of potential opportunity and promise and obviously that stems from its history as a gold mine - ‘boom town’.</i> <i>‘As much as cities like Cape Town came to be a design capital, a lot of the intellectual capital sits in Joburg. It is the industry of opportunity’.</i>
R5:	<i>“Joburg is a place where, you know how they explain New York, if you make it in New York, you can make it anywhere in the world. So Joburg is like that. Whether you are coming to Joburg to do business, to study, to get a job, to invest - Joburg is the place. Joburg is the place to pursue your dreams, - to</i>

	<i>develop your career, make money, etc”</i>
--	--

Theme 2: Business hub / centre of economic activity	
Respondent	Responses
R2:	<i>“Business hub in Africa - business hub where all the major deals in Africa take place, eg, funding, people look at Joburg as the gateway to funding, particularly when you look at Sandton. Some countries' economy are smaller than Sandton”.</i>
R3:	<i>“I think for Johannesburg, it's the business hub of Africa. I think it's the placement of the brand, I would say is more around business, commercial hub, if you think about stuff like that.</i>
R4:	<i>“I would think, primarily, it is a city of economic and commercial significance. That is the most important thing - people come here from all over the country, the continent and the world for career purposes essentially.</i>
R5:	<i>Johannesburg is the economic gateway to the continent.</i>

Theme 3: Associated with vibrancy and is cosmopolitan	
Respondent	Responses

R6:	<i>"It's a very youthful city and is one of those phenomenal cities that has grown because of the gold and everything else that came as a result of that."</i>
R3:	<i>" The exclamation mark on the logo expresses the city's identity as a "lively, vibrant and dynamic place" and the tower at the top shows its unique variety".</i>

4.3.4 Key identity distinguishing features of the City of Johannesburg

In response to the question of what the key identity distinguishing features of the City of Johannesburg are, from other competitive cities in South Africa, three of the respondents highlighted the City's developed infrastructure. For example, Respondent 2 mentioned that "Johannesburg is by far identified as highly developed and equated it to "first world infrastructure. The prolific "infrastructure development [is] an attempt to make the city look better" according to Respondent 3 and that sets "Johannesburg apart from other cities in the country" as highlighted by Respondent 6. The "model integration for transportation" was cited by Respondent 1 as positive although they felt that infrastructure was an issue for visitors". Infrastructure development is obviously another attempt to keep the City competitive. A Mckinsey report (September 2015, p. 45) emphasised that "These infrastructure investments represent a tremendous economic opportunity for South Africa, both in direct job creation in the development phase and in the much broader impact of successfully delivered infrastructure on the rest of the economy".

The respondents' views are summarised in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Practitioners' views of the City of Johannesburg's Infrastructure

Respondent	Responses
R2:	<i>"Characteristics of Johannesburg: infrastructure wise, Johannesburg is by far identified as highly developed. Gautrain, airport and so many other airports, Lanseria. First world infrastructure"</i>
R6:	<i>"Infrastructure overlay sets Johannesburg apart from other cities in the country".</i>
R3:	<i>"There is a lot of infrastructure development and an attempt to make the city look better".</i>

4.4 Diversity of the City

The diversity of the City of Johannesburg was overwhelmingly mentioned by five of the respondents as the most distinct for the metropolitan. For Respondent 3, "the diversity is represented through the multiplicity of cultures" and a further explanation that "there is the business aspect and culture and heritage that makes Johannesburg totally different". A common expression mentioned by respondents as a distinguishing feature for the City of Johannesburg was "melting pot of culture" (Respondent 4 and 5). For example, Respondent 4 indicated that "People always say something about Johannesburg as the melting pot of culture more than any other city in South Africa. It really is." Another common observation by respondents was the diversity of the people of Johannesburg itself, with Respondent 6 highlighting that "Its people makes it different from other cities" and Respondent 1

describing the people as “unique” and Respondent 2 highlighting that “the people who come to Johannesburg and settle here are passionate about the place”.

An element of being fast paced was associated with the City and additionally, “Johannesburg [setting] the trend” according to Respondent 1. Although Respondent 2 mentioned that “Johannesburg has a magnetism”, their comment about the City being “a take it or leave it” City was interesting with a further comment about “either [you] love it or it's not for you”.

The respondents’ views are summarised in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Practitioners’ views of the key identity distinguishing features of the City of Johannesburg

Respondent	Responses
R1:	<i>“Johannesburg sets the trend; unique people and demonstration of culture”.</i>
R4:	<i>“I would say it's the diversity that the city represents. People always say something about Joburg as the melting pot of culture more than any other city in South Africa. It really is”.</i>
R5:	<i>“There is the melting of cultures - that fusion, that makes it different from other destinations. Diversity of cultures is distinct in Johannesburg. That's what makes us different - there is the business aspect and culture and heritage, that makes Johannesburg totally different”.</i>
R6:	<i>“It's vibrant; fast - changes daily. Its people make it different from other cities”.</i>

4.4.1 Business Capital of South Africa

Another element that was highlighted as distinguishing the City of Johannesburg from other cities is the City being a business capital of the country. This is linked to earlier views expressed about the City being a place of opportunity. Respondent 5 commented that “What makes Joburg different from other destinations is that we are the business capital of South Africa, financial capital of South Africa”. “Johannesburg becomes that centre where you can do all those things related to business”. Similarly, Respondent 6 highlighted that Johannesburg is “the power house of South Africa – contributes almost 17% of the country’s economy” and “ ... home to the major banks; home to all television networks [and] home to 74% of all South African companies’ head offices and multinational companies”.

4.5 Results pertaining to the City of Johannesburg place image

Question 2 was intended to address the image of the City of Johannesburg, and asked practitioners about the image of the City of Johannesburg.

Respondents unanimously identified one common theme that comprises the image of the City of Johannesburg. Respondents generally agreed that the City of Johannesburg’s image is linked with crime, with a qualification by some respondents that this association is not uncharacteristic of big cities.

In the literature review conducted, it was noted that the image construct is certainly applicable to a place as this is driven by consumers’ perceptions based on various associations and interactions. The City of Johannesburg’s image, going by the responses of the majority of the respondents, has a ‘negative perception of crime’ (Respondent 6). “People fear the city - because they think it’s fast, furious and crime ridden and that is the only thing they kind of remember about it” (Respondent 4). A similar view was shared by Respondent 2 who emphatically said that “Image = crime” with regards to the City of Johannesburg image. Respondent 2 further expanded that “People do not feel safe. In as much as they want to do business in Johannesburg, they do not feel safe [and] that you cannot run away from”. The association with crime, however, was seen more as a perception than reality. The

perception of crime seemed to be synonymous “across all big cities” (Respondent 6). For example, Respondent 5 highlighted that “because [the City of Johannesburg] is a big city - there will be that element of crime, which is a perception sometimes. It is a perception that is associated with big cities. Yes, there will be crime because it is a big city, but sometimes it is blown into something that it is not. The crime association, in my view, is more a perception but that is not the identity of Johannesburg”. A different view with regards to the image of the City was that “it has huge tourism potential - however, [the tourism potential is impacted because of crime/ safety” according to Respondent 1. An acknowledgement was made by Respondent 2 that “the image of the City is something we battle with because it is very much a multi-faceted image”.

An outlier view was made by Respondent 1 on the cleanliness image of the City. According to Respondent 1, “the city is dirty despite beautification of tourist areas [and there are] vagrant issues”.

On the physical imagery side, Respondent 3 mentioned that “the Johannesburg skyline which is used as part of the logo” stands out for them, as well as the Telkom Tower. Similarly, Respondent 6 highlighted the following imagery associated with the City of Johannesburg:

“Telkom Tower which is part of City skyline and most companies that are based in Johannesburg use it as a imagery depicting Joburg. • Mandela Bridge • Carlton Centre • Sandton City the building itself • Old Johannesburg Stock Exchange glass building • Soccer City – FNB stadium (the calabash design) • Gautrain being the recent imagery”

The common theme and respondents’ views are summarised in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Practitioners' views of the City of Johannesburg Image

Theme : Associated with crime	
Respondent	Responses
R1:	<i>"Huge tourism potential - however, impacted because of crime/ safety".</i>
R2:	<i>"Image = crime. That you cannot run away from. People do not feel safe".</i>
R4:	<i>"People fear the city - because they think it's fast, furious and crime ridden and that is the only thing they kind of remember about it.</i>
R5:	<i>"Yes, because it is a big city - there will be that element of crime, which is a perception sometimes. It is a perception that is associated with big cities".</i>
R6:	<i>"The City has a negative perception of crime which is similar across all big cities"</i>

4.6 Results pertaining to the City of Johannesburg communicated identity

Question 3 was intended to address the communicated identity of the City of Johannesburg, particularly from destination marketing companies.

What is the City of Johannesburg's actual image and is this reflected in the communicated identity

Most of the respondents were in agreement that the City's image, which they described as "world class" (Respondent 6), is reflected in the communicated identity of the metropolitan. With the City's current position statement being communicated as "World class African City", Respondent 5 concurred that this is reflected in reality by the fact that "this is where you do business [and] this is where you find world-class infrastructure". Similarly, Respondent 2 indicated that "in terms of communicated identity - personally, I think they have tried to position it as a business hub and infrastructure development issues. I think they have done a good job in communicating that".

Although Respondent 3 also shared similar sentiments, they were quite adamant, that whilst the City is communicated effectively as a "business destination", the City "should not reinvent [itself] to become a leisure destination". Respondents further substantiated their view by saying that "if we own the business space, then that is what we should own and do everything possible to own that space. We cannot own beaches". They made the distinction that "people want to go to Cape Town for experience but if you look at a conference, for example, AfriCities - African Cities, you want to be in Johannesburg where you have all your corporates here".

Respondent 4 pointed out that the "standard PR message that we have used over the last few years, is that Johannesburg is an all year round global destination for business, but also for leisure". Leisure was described in terms of "things like sports, lifestyle, [and] shopping. Furthermore, "people come here for big events like conferences, big concerts, big sports matches [and] while they are here, they take in things like the theatre, night life, dining out - that kind of lifestyle experience".

4.7 Conclusion of the results

This chapter presented the results from the face to face interviews conducted with marketing practitioners.

The first section discussed respondents' views to the brand associations about the City of Johannesburg. It was evident that the metropolitan is associated with opportunities and, without doubt, is viewed as a business hub and centre of economic activity. Is this surprising – no! Another association made – although not unanimously made, was the City's vibrancy and cosmopolitan nature.

The second section explored the images associated with the City. Although different views and justifications were presented, what is concerning is that the City's image is associated with crime. Views varied on whether this was merely a perception to comments that the crime association is not a new phenomenon to major capital cities globally. It was evident that this crime association and image has negative connotation for the City. On the physical imagery, the City's skyline was mentioned as frequently used as an image depicting Johannesburg.

The final section explored whether the City of Johannesburg's actual image is reflected in the communicated identity of the metropolitan. There was unanimity from respondents that the City's identity as a business hub and associated developed infrastructure is communicated effectively. Evidently, the focus should be on these positive associations and not the mentioned crime associations!

5 CHAPTER 5: PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS – QUANTITATIVE STUDY

This chapter summarises the key findings of the quantitative research, primarily, the results for demographic data, measurement instrument reliability and validity and the path modelling statistics.

The presentation of the results in this chapter is structured into two main sections. Firstly, the demographic data descriptive statistics are presented. This involves a description of the sampled population with corresponding statistics and accompanying tables on the summary of scale items results. The second section provides the results of hypotheses testing. Reliability and validity assessment results are tabled and in particular, the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and path modelling is presented in this section.

5.1 Demographic Data descriptive results

5.1.1 Demographic profile of respondents

Quantitative data was collected from a population of Gauteng residents, the majority (76%), 156 respondents, are residents of the City of Johannesburg. Of the total of 258 respondents who completed the questionnaire, 204 usable questionnaires were retrieved for the final data analysis, representing a response rate of 79.1%.

5.1.2 Respondent Profile

The respondents were asked to provide their demographic information, including gender, age, education, employment status and residence status. The statistics below were run on Smart PLS to establish the respondent profile and to conduct comparisons on the respondents. The research is based on 204 respondents, whose demographic characteristics are summarised in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Sample Demographic Characteristics

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	121	59.3%
Female	83	40.7%
Total	204	100.0%
Age Distribution	Frequency	Percentage
18-25 years	5	2.5%
26-35 years	95	46.6%
36-45 years	84	41.2%
46-65 years	18	8.8%
66 and above	2	1.10%
Total	204	100%
Level of Education	Frequency	Percentage
High School	6	2.9%
Diploma	27	13.2%
Degree	47	23.0%
Postgraduate degree	117	57.4%
Other	7	3.4%
Total	204	100.0%
Employment Status	Frequency	Percentage
Student	13	6.4%
Employed	171	83.8%
Self-employed	17	8.3%
Unemployed	3	1.5%
Total	204	100.0%
Residential Status	Frequency	Percentage
Johannesburg resident - Yes	155	76.0
Johannesburg resident - No	49	24.0%
Total	204	100.0%

Out of a sample set of 204, the majority of the respondents was male and represented 59.3% (121 out of 204) of the total sample. On the other hand, female participants represented 40.7% (83 out of 204) of the total sample. The median age group of the respondent was 26-35 years (46.6%). This was followed by the 36 to 45 year age group, 46 to 65 year age group, 18 to 25 year age group and finally the smallest age group was the 66 and above age group.

Most of the participants had a post graduate degree and represented 57.4% (117) of the total population. These were followed by those who had an undergraduate degree representing 23% (47), those who had diplomas representing 27 (13.2%), those who had other qualifications representing 3.4% (7) and finally those who had high school education representing 2.9% (6) of the total sample.

As can be seen in Table 5.1, most of the respondents were employed and represented 83.8% (171) of the population. These were followed by those who were self-employed represented by 8.3% (17), those who were students represented by 6.4% (13) and finally those who were unemployed representing 1.5% (3) of the total sample.

Lastly, on the residence status, 76% (155) of the participants indicated that they were residents of Johannesburg as compared to those who were not and were represented by 24% (49) of the total of the sample.

5.2 Measurement Instruments Descriptive Statistics

5.2.1 Summary of scale item results

Table 5.2: Summary of scale item results – Place Identity

Items		*Strongly disagree		Slightly disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Slightly agree		Agree		Strongly Agree		Total
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
Place Identity	PI1	4	2.0%	8	3.9%	18	8.8%	16	7.8%	58	28.4%	81	39.7%	19	9.3%	204
	PI2	5	2.5%	11	5.4%	28	13.7%	21	10.3%	59	28.9%	60	29.4%	20	9.8%	204
	PI3	9	4.4%	31	15.2%	32	15.7%	33	16.2%	57	27.9%	32	15.7%	10	4.9%	204
	BC1	1	.5%	11	5.4%	3	1.5%	7	3.4%	37	18.1%	73	35.8%	72	35.3%	204
	BC2	2	1.0%	7	3.4%	11	5.4%	14	6.9%	49	24.0%	75	36.8%	45	22.1%	203
	BC3	2	1.0%	14	6.9%	14	6.9%	25	12.3%	63	30.9%	63	30.9%	23	11.3%	204
	BC4	6	2.9%	16	7.8%	17	8.3%	23	11.3%	53	26.0%	58	28.4%	31	15.2%	204
	SF1	3	1.5%	6	2.9%	5	2.5%	12	5.9%	27	13.2%	79	38.7%	72	35.3%	204
	SF2	2	1.0%	8	3.9%	6	2.9%	10	4.9%	29	14.2%	71	34.8%	78	38.2%	204
	SF3	2	1.0%	8	3.9%	1	.5%	8	3.9%	22	10.8%	80	39.2%	83	40.7%	204
	SF4	4	2.0%	8	3.9%	3	1.5%	11	5.4%	23	11.3%	75	36.8%	80	39.2%	204
	CA1	17	8.3%	49	24.0%	53	26.0%	27	13.2%	22	10.8%	23	11.3%	13	6.4%	204
	CA2	23	11.3%	76	37.3%	31	15.2%	21	10.3%	19	9.3%	19	9.3%	16	7.8%	204
	CA3	3	1.5%	35	17.2%	43	21.1%	51	25.0%	39	19.1%	25	12.3%	8	3.9%	204
	CA4	14	6.9%	32	15.7%	43	21.1%	30	14.7%	43	21.1%	29	14.2%	13	6.4%	204
	CA5	24	11.8%	44	21.6%	40	19.6%	24	11.8%	32	15.7%	23	11.3%	17	8.3%	204
	TI1	13	6.4%	32	15.7%	27	13.2%	12	5.9%	34	16.7%	34	16.7%	34	16.7%	204
	TI2	70	34.3%	57	27.9%	34	16.7%	6	2.9%	21	10.3%	10	4.9%	6	2.9%	204
	TI3	96	47.1%	45	22.1%	27	13.2%	10	4.9%	15	7.4%	8	3.9%	3	1.5%	204
	TI4	55	27.0%	48	23.5%	34	16.7%	17	8.3%	34	16.7%	11	5.4%	5	2.5%	204

Note: PI= Place Identity; BC = Business Creativity; SF = Shopping Facilities; CA = Cultural Activities; TI =Transport Infrastructure. Freq = Frequency – number of respondents

*Scores: 1 – Strongly Disagree; 4 – Neutral; 7 – Strongly Agree

The interpretation to Table 5.2 above is addressed below with some measurement items examined closely.

5.2.2 Place Identity

Within the place identity construct, several variables were measured, related to nature. The questions sought to elicit views from respondents on how they viewed the City of Johannesburg from a nature perspective. The results are reflected below in Figure 2.8 and Figure 2.9

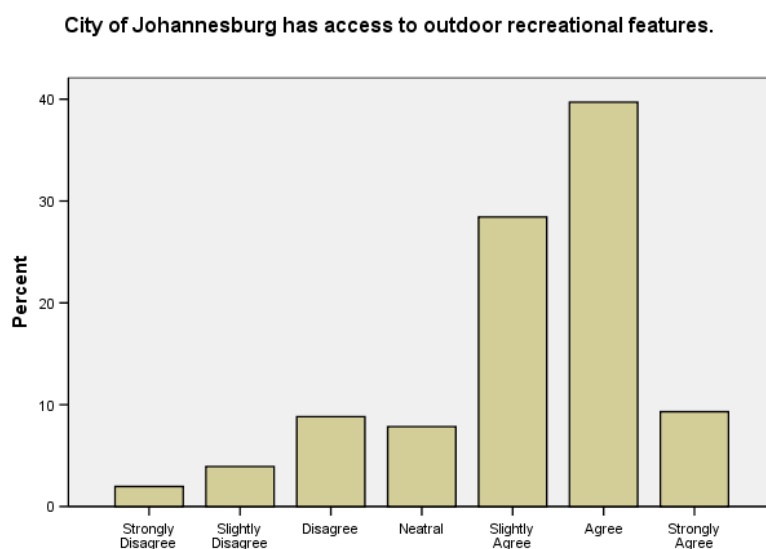


Figure 5.1: Detail on responses to recreational activities

139 respondents which is an equivalent of 68,1% slightly agree or agree that the City of Johannesburg has access to outdoor recreational features.

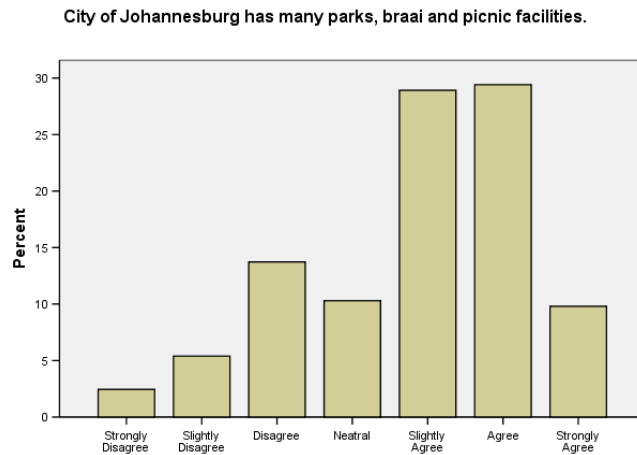


Figure 5.2: Detail on responses to recreational features

58,3% of the respondents (119) slightly agree or agree that the City of Johannesburg has many parks, braai and picnic facilities.

5.2.3 Business Creativity

City branding entails marketing and branding a city to businesses as a place to invest (Merrilees et al., 2009). In this regard, the questions raised sought to determine the level of agreement on the ease of doing business in the City. The results are reflected below in Figure 2.10 and Figure 2.11



Figure 5.3: Detail on level of agreement to doing business

145 respondents which is an equivalent of 71.1% of the respondents agree or strongly agree that the City of Johannesburg is a good place to do business.

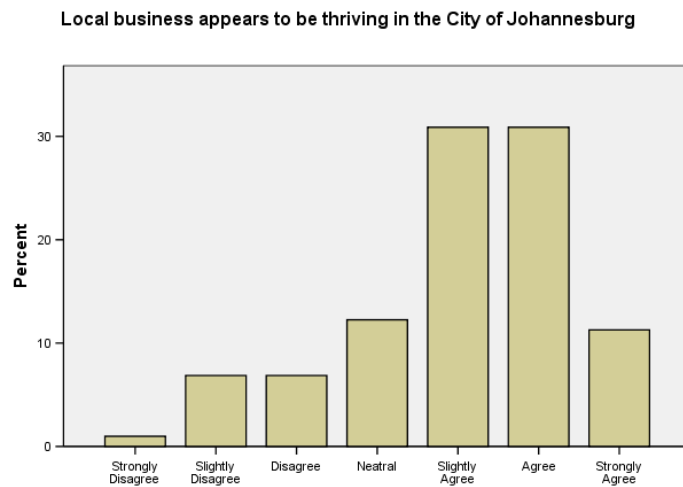


Figure 5.4: Detail on level of agreement to local business opportunities

61,8% of the respondents(126) were equally split between slightly agree and agree that local business appears to be thriving in the City of Johannesburg.

5.2.4 Shopping Facilities

Merrilees et al. (2009) highlight that literature suggests specific associations, such as retail shopping, can contribute to positive brand city attitudes. To validate this assertion, questions were raised to obtain respondents' views on this element. The levels of agreement are shown in Figures 2.12 and 2.13 below.



Figure 5.5: Detail on level of agreement to fashion shopping

151 respondents which is an equivalent of 74.% of the respondents agree or strongly agree that fashion shopping is excellent in the City of Johannesburg.

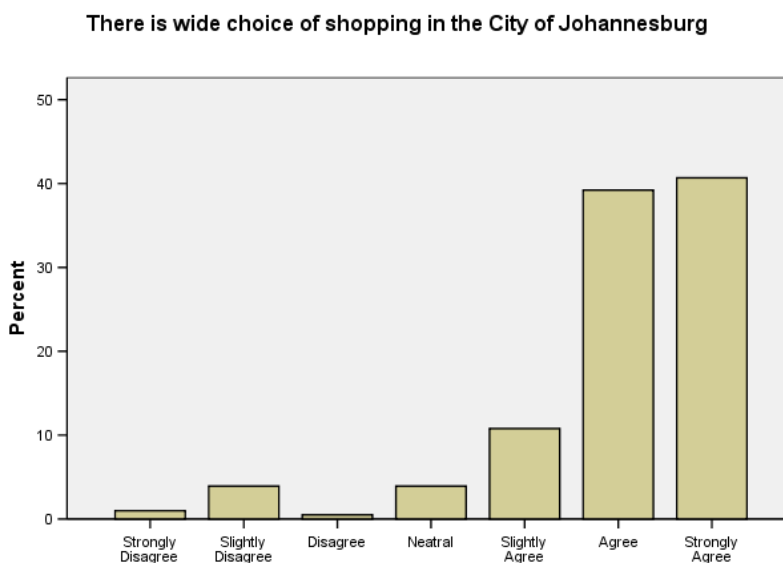


Figure 5.6: Detail on level of agreement to wide choice of shopping

Most of the respondents (79,9%) - 163, agreed to strongly agreed that there is wide choice of shopping in the City of Johannesburg.

Table 5.3: Summary of scale item results – Place Image

Items		*Strongly disagree		Slightly disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Slightly agree		Agree		Strongly Agree		Total
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.
Place Image	PIM1	16	7.8%	35	17.2%	47	23.0%	28	13.7%	41	20.1%	32	15.7%	32	15.7%	204
	PIM2	16	7.8%	17	8.3%	24	11.8%	24	11.8%	61	29.9%	44	21.6%	44	21.6%	203
	PIM3	16	7.8%	23	11.3%	26	12.7%	32	15.7%	47	23.0%	53	26.0%	7	3.4%	204
	PIM4	2	1.0%	10	4.9%	10	4.9%	8	3.9%	44	21.6%	76	37.3%	54	26.5%	204
	GS1	12	5.9%	42	20.6%	37	18.1%	31	15.2%	26	12.7%	32	15.7%	24	11.8%	204
	GS2	8	3.9%	13	6.4%	22	10.8%	20	9.8%	31	15.2%	51	25.0%	58	28.4%	203
	GS3	24	11.8%	61	29.9%	37	18.1%	22	10.8%	14	6.9%	33	16.2%	13	6.4%	204
	GS4	8	3.9%	16	7.8%	35	17.2%	25	12.3%	33	16.2%	45	22.1%	42	20.6%	204
	GS5	3	1.5%	14	6.9%	26	12.7%	32	15.7%	34	16.7%	41	20.1%	54	26.5%	204
	GS6	3	1.5%	11	5.4%	21	10.3%	66	32.4%	26	12.7%	41	20.1%	36	17.6%	204
	GS7	3	1.5%	9	4.4%	39	19.1%	53	26.0%	22	10.8%	31	15.2%	47	23.0%	204
	BE1	13	6.4%	22	10.8%	13	6.4%	23	11.3%	59	28.9%	54	26.5%	20	9.8%	204
	BE2	17	8.3%	30	14.7%	31	15.2%	36	17.6%	46	22.5%	36	17.6%	8	3.9%	204
	BE3	48	23.5%	37	18.1%	26	12.7%	26	12.7%	27	13.2%	20	9.8%	20	9.8%	204
	BE4	24	11.8%	16	7.8%	25	12.3%	51	25.0%	40	19.6%	33	16.2%	14	6.9%	203
	BE5	27	13.2%	29	14.2%	20	9.8%	38	18.6%	46	22.5%	28	13.7%	16	7.8%	204

Note: PIM = Place Image; GS = Government Services, BE = Brand Equity

Freq = Frequency – number of respondents

**Scores: 1 – Strongly Disagree; 4 – Neutral; 7 – Strongly Agree*

Place Image

Accordingly to Vanolo (2008), the image of a city in the sense of the broad meaning and idea of a place, is formed not only by visual images, but also by many other elements. Vanola (2008, p. 371) further makes reference to inputs made to the study of urban images that explain that places are fundamentally made of “material components of the city, (roads, monuments and buildings) as well as immaterial components such as the habits, routines, institutions regulating the life of inhabitants to stereotypes concerning the attitudes of residents”. With this in mind, several questions were asked under the place image construct. Some of the responses are depicted in the figures 2.14 and 2.15 below, with detailed information provided in Table 5.3 above.

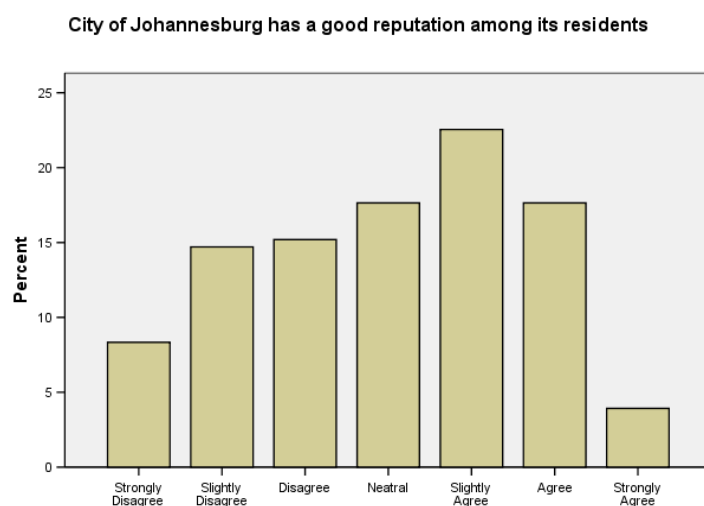


Figure 5.7: Detail on level of agreement to reputation of the City

There is no strong view from respondents on whether the City of Johannesburg has a good reputation among its residents, with only 3,9% of respondents (8) strongly agreeing with this statement.

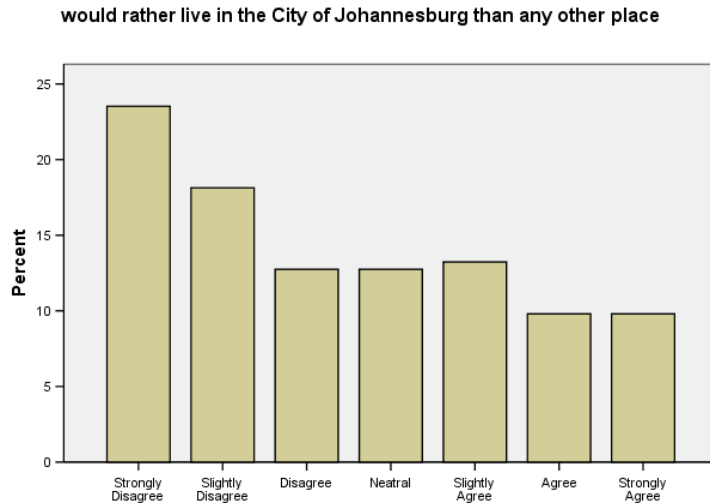


Figure 5.8: Detail on level of agreement to place preference

A surprising 19,6% of the respondents (40) were equally split between agree and strongly agree that they would rather live in the City of Johannesburg than any other place, compared to 41,6 of the respondents who strongly disagreed/ slightly agreed with the statement.

5.2.5 Communicated identity

Table 5.4: Summary of scale item results – Communicated Identity

Items		* Strongly disagree		Slightly disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Slightly agree		Agree		Strongly Agree		Total
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
Communicated Identity	CI1	5	2.5%	17	8.3%	30	14.7%	28	13.7%	62	30.4%	50	24.5%	12	5.9%	204
	CI2	4	2.0%	15	7.4%	33	16.2%	22	10.8%	59	28.9%	53	26.0%	17	8.3%	203
	CI3	8	3.9%	14	6.9%	29	14.2%	52	25.5%	48	23.5%	45	22.1%	8	3.9%	204
	CI4	8	3.9%	17	8.3%	35	17.2%	37	18.1%	55	27.0%	46	22.5%	6	2.9%	204
	CI5	4	2.0%	27	13.2%	36	17.6%	42	20.6%	50	24.5%	38	18.6%	7	3.4%	204
	CI6	6	2.9%	18	8.8%	28	13.7%	53	26.0%	51	25.0%	41	20.1%	7	3.4%	204
	CI7	2	1.0%	8	3.9%	9	4.4%	48	23.5%	52	25.5%	62	30.4%	23	11.3%	204

Note: CI = Communicated Identity Freq = Frequency – number of respondents

**Scores: 1 – Strongly Disagree; 4 – Neutral; 7 – Strongly Agree*

Communicated Identity

According to Hankinson (2009), understanding the brand identity requires a clear definition of what to communicate and a presentation that will appeal to various stakeholders. Similarly, Ashworth and Kavaratzis (2009) suggest that crafting or prompting expectations about the city happens through communication and promotional activities. Respondents were therefore probed on their views of how the City's identity is communicated. Summary of scale item results are provided in Table 5.3 above, with the figure below illustrating the level of agreement to the question on whether word of mouth influences the City's identity as opposed to what is communicated.

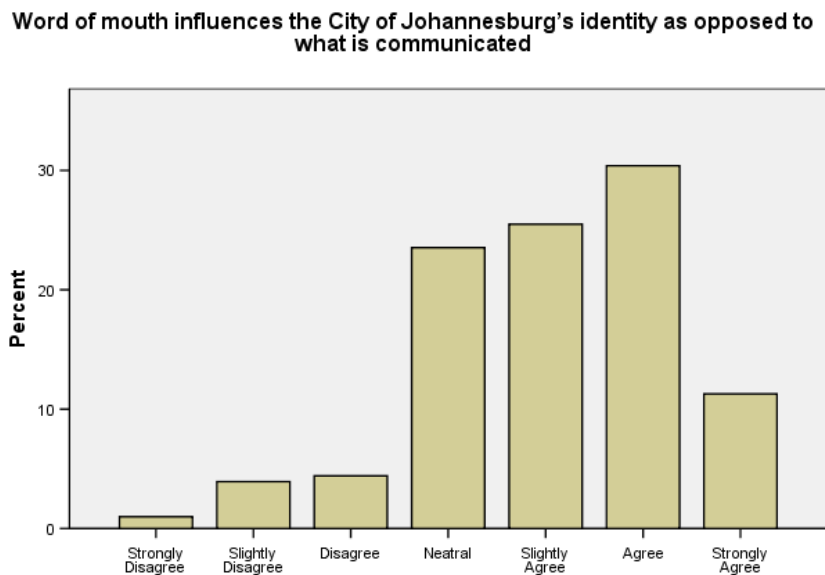


Figure 5.9: Detail on level of agreement to Word of Mouth influence

55,9% of the respondents (114) slightly agree and agree that word of mouth influences the City of Johannesburg's identity as opposed to what is communicated.

5.3 Assessment of Reliability and Validity

Table 5.5 presents a summary of the results produced, following reliability and validity assessments. These results are discussed hereafter.

Table 5.5: Summary of Measurement Accuracy Statistics

Research constructs		Descriptive statistics*		Cronbach's test		C.R.	AVE	Measurement Item Loadings
		Mean	SD	Item-total	α Value			
Place Identity (PI)	BC1	4.11	1.021	0.697	0.857	0.885	0.437	0.689
	BC2			0.721				0.688
	BC3			0.792				0.645
	BC4			0.516				0.596
	SF1			0.764				0.694
	SF2			0.814				0.654
	SF3			0.835				0.679
	SF4			0.809				0.668
Communicated Identity (CI)	CI1	4.51	1.076	0.482	0.843	0.886	0.564	0.626
	CI2			0.597				0.715
	CI3			0.571				0.701
	CI4			0.672				0.825
	CI5			0.714				0.848
	CI6			0.641				0.768
Place Image (PIM)	PIM1	4.48	1.071	0.539	0.795	0.864	0.505	0.746
	PIM2			0.474				0.534
	PIM3			0.591				0.720
	PIM4			0.310				

	BE1			0.599				0.737
	BE2			0.683				0.780
	BE3			0.715				0.742
	BE4			0.790				0.788
	BE5			0.742				0.780

Note: BC – Business Creativity; SF – Shopping Facilities; CI – Communicated Identity; PIM – Place Image; BE – Brand Equity

SD, standard deviation; AVE, average variance extracted; CR, composite reliability

It can be observed in Table 5.5 above, that the Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranged from 0.795 to 0.857, which meant that all the Cronbach's alpha exceeded the recommended threshold of 0.7 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994) thereby confirming that the measures used in this study are reliable. The AVE values ranged from 0.437 to 0.885 which is above the recommended threshold of 0.5, with the value 0.437 being marginally accepted. Furthermore the CR values range from 0.864 to 0.885 which is above the recommended threshold of 0.7.

5.3.1 Reliability and Validity tests in CFA

As advocated by Chau (1997, p. 324), the squaring of factor loadings was conducted to assess item reliability. Item reliability recognizes "the amount of variance in an item due to underlying construct rather than to error" (Chau, 1997, p. 324). Discriminant and convergent validity was also examined by using the AVE as suggested by Fornell and Larcker (1981, p. 39). According to Nusair and Hua, (2010, p. 316) a low-cross correlation signifies discriminant validity while the strong loading of items on their familiar construct is an indication of convergent validity. Sarstedt et al. (2014, p. 108) describes discriminant validity as the degree to which a construct is empirically different from other constructs in the model, both in terms of how it links with other constructs and in terms of how specifically the items represent only this single construct. Convergent validity alternatively is referred to as the degree to which a construct is represented by its measurement items (Sarstedt et al. 2014).

5.4 Measurement instrument assessment

5.4.1 Measurement of Reliability

5.4.1.1 Cronbach's Alpha test

Proceeding from the discussion of Cronbach's Alpha in chapter 3, literature asserts that a higher level of Cronbach's coefficient alpha indicates a higher reliability of the measurement scale (Chinomona 2011). From the results provided in Table 5.6, the Cronbach's Alpha value for each research construct ranges from 0.795 to 0.857 and as these are above 0.7 as recommended by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994, p. 43), validity is indicated. The Cronbach's Alpha results indicated in Table 5.6 therefore validate the reliability of measures used in the current study.

Table 5.6: Cronbach's Alpha Test

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Cronbach's Alpha</i>
<i>CI</i>	0.843
<i>PI</i>	0.857
<i>PIM</i>	0.795

Note: CI – Communicated Identity; PI – Place Identity; PIM – Place Image

5.4.1.2 Composite Reliability (CR) Test

The Composite Reliability test was also conducted to examine further the internal reliability of each research construct, as recommended by Chinomona (2011, p.108) and Nunnally (1967, p.81). A Composite Reliability index that is greater than 0.7

signifies sufficient internal consistency of the construct (Nunnally, 1967, p. 81). According to Fornell and Larcker (1981) and Yang and Lai (2010) in reliability analysis, an acceptable Composite Reliability (CR) value must exceed 0.7. In this regard, the results of Composite Reliability that ranges from 0.864 to 0.885, in Table 5.7 below confirm the existence of internal reliability for all constructs of the study.

It is calculated using the formula below.

$$(CR): CR_{\eta} = (\sum \lambda_{yi})^2 / [(\sum \lambda_{yi})^2 + (\sum \epsilon_i)]$$

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

Table 5.7: Composite Reliability Test

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Composite Reliability</i>
<i>CI</i>	0.885
<i>PI</i>	0.886
<i>PIM</i>	0.864

Note: CI – Communicated Identity; PI – Place Identity; PIM – Place Image

5.4.1.3 Average Variance Extracted (AVE)

According to Chinomona (2011, p. 109) “The average variance extracted estimate reflects the overall amount of variance in the indicators accounted for by the latent construct”. A good representation of the latent construct by the item is identified when the variance extracted estimate is above 0.5 (Sarstedt et al., 2014, p. 109; Fornell & Larcker, 1981, p. 284; Fraering & Minor, 2006). Higher values for the variance extracted estimate (greater than 0.50) reveal that the indicators represent the latent construct well (Fraering & Minor, 2006). As can be seen in Table 5.8

below, the AVE values ranged from 0.437 to 0.564 with is above the recommended threshold of 0.5. The range of 0.437 is marginally acceptable.

Table 5.8: Average Variance Extracted

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Average Variance Extracted</i>
<i>CI</i>	0.564
<i>PI</i>	0.437
<i>PIM</i>	0.505

Note: CI – Communicated Identity; PI – Place Identity; PIM – Place Image

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

$$V\eta = \Sigma\lambda y_i^2 / (\Sigma\lambda y_i^2 + \Sigma\epsilon_i)$$

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

5.4.2 Measurement of Validity

Validity tests were conducted and convergent and discriminant validity were evaluated. Both tests are described below as well as the findings.

5.4.2.1 Convergent validity

Convergent validity determines the degree to which a construct converges in its indicators by giving explanation of the items' variance (Sarstedt et al., 2014, p. 108). Apart from assessing the convergent validity of items through checking correlations in the item-total index (Nusair et al., 2010, p. 316), factor loadings were also

examined in order to identify convergent validity of measurement items as recommended by Sarstedt et al. (2014, p. 108). According to Nusair and Hua, (2010, p.316) items exhibit good convergent validity when they load strongly on their common construct. Literature maintains that a loading that is above 0.5 signifies convergent validity (Anderson et al., 1988, p. 411). In this regard, the final items used in the current study loaded well on their respective constructs with the values ranging from 0.534 - 0.848.

5.4.2.2 Discriminant validity

Inter-Construct Correlation Matrix

According to, Hult, Ringle and Sarstedt (2014, p.18), when determining whether there is discriminant validity or not, one must observe whether the variable of interest displays a higher loading on its own construct than on any other construct included in the structural model. To check if there is discriminant validity is to assess if the correlation between the research constructs is less than 1.0 as recommended by Chinomona (2011, p. 110).

The inter-construct correlation matrix was used to assess

the discriminant validity of the research constructs. Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) recommended correlation values between constructs to be less than 0.7 in confirming the existence of discriminant validity. As indicated in Table 5.9 below, the inter-correlation values for all paired latent variables are less than 0.7, therefore, showing the presence of discriminant validity.

Table 5.9: Inter-Construct Correlation Matrix

<i>Research Constructs</i>	<i>CI</i>	<i>PI</i>	<i>PIM</i>
<i>Communicated Identity (CI)</i>	1.000		
<i>Place Identity (PI)</i>	0.353	1.000	
<i>Place Image (PIM)</i>	0.409	0.376	1.000

Note: CI – Communicated Identity; PI – Place Identity; PIM – Place Image

Structural Model Testing

As the second procedure in Structural Equation Modelling (Chen et al., 2011, p. 243) structural modelling was conducted. Essentially, the process is performed for the purpose of evaluating causal relationships among latent variables Nusair and Hua, (2010, p.314). This procedure includes “multiple regression analysis and path analysis and models the relationship among latent variables” (Chen et al., 2011, p. 243). Figure 5.3 below is a representation of the modified path model. Much like the CFA model, the ovals represent the latent variables while the rectangles represent the observed variables.

From the literature review in Chapter 2, the conceptual model below was proposed. When run through the structural modelling test, figure 5.1 below is a representation of the original path model.

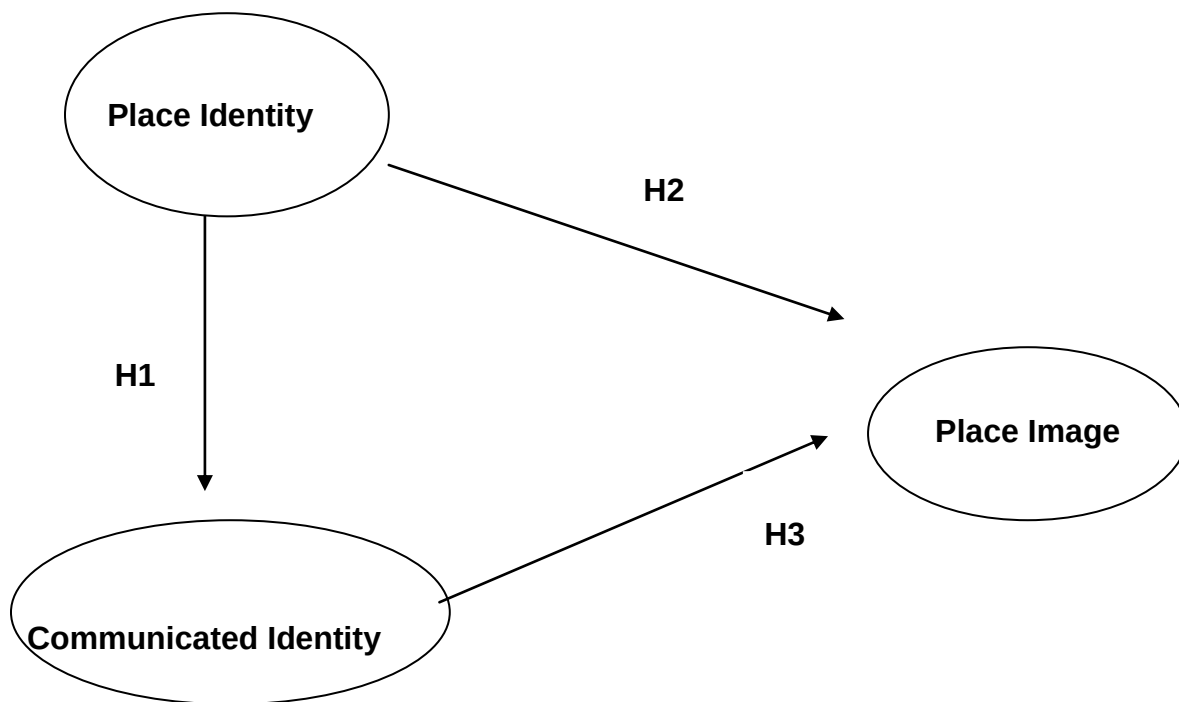


Figure 5.10: A Conceptual model

5.4.3 Path Modelling

Path modelling describes the relationships between observed or measured variables and theoretical constructs (Roche et al., 2011, p. 1480) and tests the structural paths of the conceptualised research model (Anderson et al. 1988, p. 411).

Two structural models were assessed in this study. The original path model is the conceptual research model. However, after other measurement instruments did not meet the acceptable threshold of 0.5, another path model was re-specified. Figure 5.11 shows the original model. The circle or oval shapes represent the latent variables while measurement items are represented by rectangles. Adjacent to measurement items are respective measurement item loadings and the unidirectional arrows between latent variables are used to convey the causal relations.

Literature maintains that a loading that is above 0.5 signifies convergent validity (Anderson et al. 1988, p. 411). From the original measurement model, variables which were below the 0.5 loading mark, were discarded, hence the modified model

in Figure 5.12. Table 5.10 is a summary of the original measurement item loadings.

Original Measurement Model

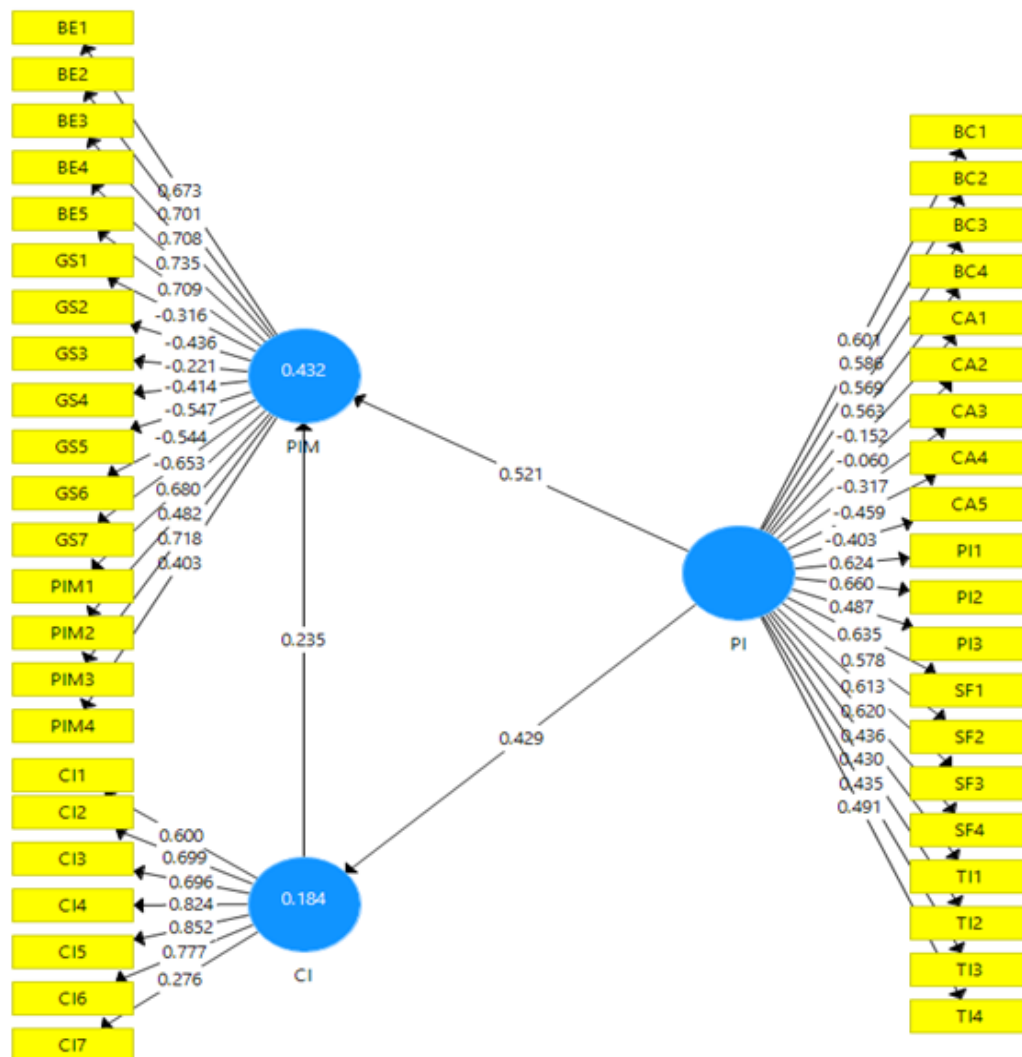


Figure 5.11: Original Measurement Model

Note: BE = Brand Equity; GS = Government Services; PIM = Place Image; CI = Communicated Identity; BC = Business Creativity; CA = Cultural Activities; PI= Place Identity; SF = Shopping Facilities; TI = Transport Infrastructure

All the measurement items that did not meet the acceptable threshold of 0.5 were deleted. A re-specified model is provided in Figure 5.12.

Table 5.10 highlights that not all the individual item loadings were above the recommended 0.5 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The item loadings below the acceptable individual item reliabilities were discarded as they were less than 50 per cent of each item's variance and not shared with its respective construct.

5.4.4 Summary of Measurement Item Loadings

Table 5.10: Measurement of Item Loadings analysis

Research constructs		Measurement Item loadings
Place Identity	PI1	0.624
	PI2	0.660
	PI3	0.487
	BC1	0.601
	BC2	0.586
	BC3	0.569
	BC4	0.563
	SF1	0.635
	SF2	0.578
	SF3	0.613
	SF4	0.620
	CA1	-0.152
	CA2	-0.060
	CA3	-0.317
	CA4	-0.459
	CA5	-0.403
	TI1	0.436
	TI2	0.430
	TI3	0.435
	TI4	0.491

Place Image		
	PIM1	0.680
	PIM2	0.487
	PIM3	0.718
	PIM4	0.403
	GS1	-0.316
	GS2	-0.436
	GS3	-0.221
	GS4	-0.414
	GS5	-0.547
	GS6	-0.544
	GS7	-0.653
	BE1	0.673
	BE2	0.701
	BE3	0.708
	BE4	0.735
	BE5	0.709
Communicated Identity	CI1	0.600
	CI2	0.699
	CI3	0.696
	CI4	0.824
	CI5	0.852
	CI6	0.777
	CI7	0.276

Note: PI = Place Identity; BC – Business Creativity; SF – Shopping Facilities; CA = Cultural Activities; TI = Transport Infrastructure; PIM – Place Image; GS = Government Services, BE – Brand Equity; CI – Communicated Identity;

5.4.5 Modified Final Model

Based on this final model, the hypotheses were tested. In this model, all the posited hypotheses were accepted. Table 5.11 indicate the results of structural equation model.

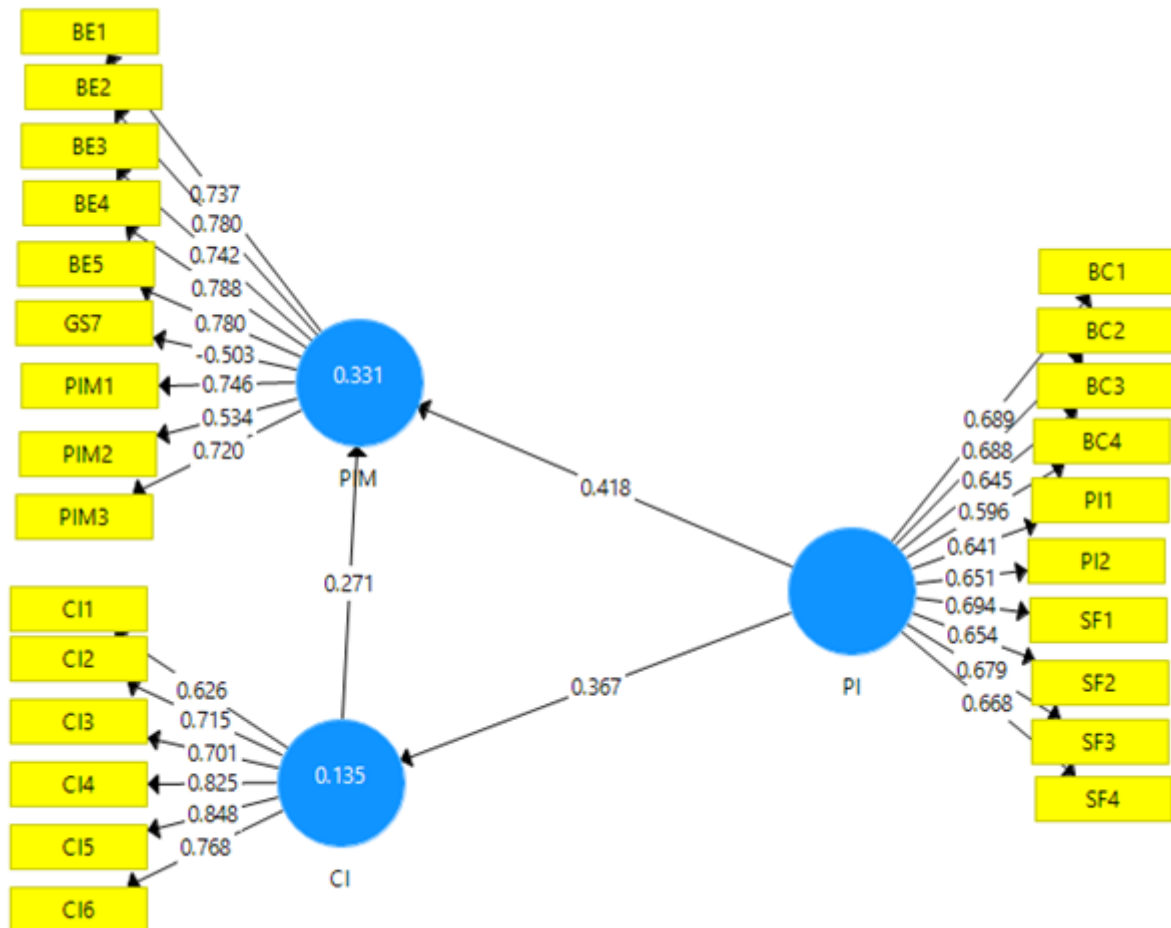


Figure 5.12: Final Path Model

Note: BE = Brand Equity; GS = Government Services; PIM = Place Image; CI = Communicated Identity; BC = Business Creativity; PI= Place Identity; SF = Shopping Facilities

Table 5.11 provides the path modelling results and the t-statistics signifying the level of significance of the hypothesised relationships.

5.4.6 Goodness of Fit

Overall, R^2 for communicated identity (CI) and place image (PIM) in Figure 5.12 indicate that the research model explains more than 13% of the variance in the endogenous variables. Following formulae provided by Tenenhaus, Vinzi, Chatelin, and Lauro (2005) the global goodness-of-fit (GoF) statistic for the research model was calculated and the GoF is 0.38, which exceeds the threshold of $GoF > 0.36$ suggested by Wetzels, Odekerken-Schröder, and Van Oppen (2009). Thus, this study concludes that the research model has a good overall fit.

Table 5.11: Results of structural equation model analysis

<i>Proposed hypothesis relationship</i>	<i>Hypothesis</i>	<i>Path coefficients (β)</i>	<i>T-Statistics</i>	<i>Reject/Support</i>
<i>Place Identity (PI) → Place Image (PIM)</i>	H1	0.418 ^a	8.265	Support
<i>Place Identity (PI) → Communicated Identity (CI)</i>	H2	0.367 ^a	7.018	Support
<i>Communicated Identity (CI) → Place Image (PIM)</i>	H3	0.271 ^a	5.109	Support

Drawing on the results in Table 5.11 above, H1 ($t=8.265$), H2 ($t=7.018$) and H3 ($t=5.109$) are supported and they are all significant since the t-statistics are above 1.96.

5.4.7 Hypothesis testing

As the hypothesised measurement and structural model has been assessed and finalised, the next step was to examine causal relationships among latent variables by path analysis Nusair and Hua, (2010, p. 316). According to Byrne (2001, p. 18), SEM asserts that particular latent variables directly or indirectly influence certain other latent variables with the model, resulting in estimation results that portray how these latent variables are related. For this study, estimation results elicited through

hypothesis testing are indicated in Table 5.11. The table indicates the proposed hypotheses, path coefficients, t-statistics and whether a hypothesis is rejected or supported. Literature asserts that $t > 1.96$ are indicators of relationship significance and that higher path coefficients indicate strong relationships among latent variables (Chinomona, Lin, Wang, & Cheng, 2010).

5.4.7.1 Results after testing hypothesis 1

The results obtained following the test of H1 confirmed that there is an association between Place Identity (PI) and Place Image (PIM). A path coefficient of 0.418 was realized after testing H1. This means that Place Identity (PI) has a positive influence on Place Image (PIM). It is the strongest association of all the hypothesised relationships. Furthermore, the results indicate that the relationship Place Identity (PI) and Place Image (PIM) is significant given that H1's t-statistics is 8.265.

5.4.7.2 Results after testing hypothesis 2

The results acquired after the testing of H2 validated the presence of a positive relationship between Place Identity (PI) and Communicated Identity (CI). Following the test of H2, a path coefficient of 0.367 was exhibited. This denotes that Place Identity has a positive influence on Communicated Identity (CI). In addition, the relationship between Place Identity and Communicated Identity (CI) is significant and positively co-related since H2's t-statistics is 7.018.

5.4.7.3 Results after testing hypothesis 3

The relationship between Communicated Identity (CI) and Place Image (PIM) was confirmed by the results obtained after testing H3. A path coefficient of 0.271 was realised after testing H3. This means that Communicated Identity (CI) has a positive but relatively weak influence on Place Image (PIM). More so, the results revealed that the relationship between Communicated Identity and Place Image is significant given that t-statistic is 5.109 ($t=5.109$). Therefore, the results validate the relationship as hypothesised.

5.4.7.4 Overall analysis of hypotheses testing results

Individual path coefficients of H1, H2 and H3 were 0.418; 0.367; and 0.271 respectively. Generally, these results indicate that Place Identity (PI) has a positive influence on Place Image (PIM) and has the strongest association of all the hypothesised relationships between Place Identity (PI) and Communicated Identity (CI). Communicated Identity (CI) has a positive but relatively weak influence on Place Image (PIM). Drawing from the research findings, all the latent variables have a strong relationship with the observed variables.

5.5 Summary

This chapter provided the empirical results drawn from the research. Firstly, descriptive statistics of the study were presented. To follow was an address of the item scale results. After that, reliability and validity tests were conducted respectively and both tests elicited results confirming reliability and validity of measurement. Structural Equation Modelling was undertaken subsequently. CFA and structural modelling were carried out. The primary purpose was to examine whether Place Identity (PI), Place Image (PIM), and Communicated Identity (CI), have a positive influence on the competitiveness and appeal of the City of Johannesburg. All three hypothesised relationships were supported in a significant way, **H1** ($t=8.265$.); **H2** ($t=7.018$) and **H3** ($t=5.109$).

6 CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

6.1 Introduction

The questions and hypotheses raised in Chapter 2 are discussed within this chapter by comparing the interview findings and questionnaire results presented in Chapter 4 and 5, with the theory raised in Chapter 2.

Both the qualitative and quantitative results are discussed concurrently, as according to Creswell and Plano Clark (2011), the data collection in the convergent design involves collecting both quantitative and qualitative data concurrently, analysing the information separately, and then merging the two data sets to produce a comprehensible discussion of the results. The qualitative research sought to establish the identity of the City of Johannesburg from the perspective of stakeholders responsible for branding the metropolitan, whereas the quantitative study sought to investigate the perceptions and image of the City of Johannesburg held by local residents.

This chapter considers the findings of the research in greater depth in order to ascertain whether the questions posed have been answered satisfactorily and what the managerial implications, if any, are.

As a reminder, four research questions and three hypotheses were derived from the literature. These are:

Research questions

What are the brand associations and key characteristics that represent the City of Johannesburg?

What are the key identity distinguishing features which differentiate the City of Johannesburg from other competitive cities in South Africa?

What images are associated with the City of Johannesburg?

What is the City of Johannesburg's actual identity and is this reflected in the communicated identity?

Research hypotheses

The purpose of the quantitative study sought to investigate the perceptions and image of the City of Johannesburg held by local residents. In particular, three hypotheses were postulated. The empirical results supported all three research hypotheses in a significant way.

The first postulated hypothesis was the relationship between place identity and place image, that is: **H1:** Place identity is positively related to place image.

The second posited hypothesis was the relationship between place identity and communicated identity, that is: **H2:** Place identity is positively related to communicated identity.

The last postulated hypothesis was the relationship between communicated identity to place image, that is: **H3:** Communicated identity is positively related to place image.

6.2 Discussion pertaining to Research Question 1

What are the brand associations and key characteristics that represent the City of Johannesburg?

The objective of a brand as suggested by Pike (2004) is to create a unique and memorable identity in the market place that symbolises a basis of value for the consumer. The place product itself, according to Hankinson (2009, p. 98), is a

“unique combination of buildings, facilities and venues which represent production by a multiplicity of autonomous services businesses, both public and private”.

Aaker (1996, p. 68) defines brand identity as “a unique set of brand associations that represent what the brand stands for and implies a promise to customers from the organisation members”. The author further explains that the core identity embodies the core of the brand which is fundamental to the meaning and success of the brand, and contains the associations that are unlikely to change and stay constant as the product goes through various growth cycles

The marketing practitioners interviewed, agreed that the City of Johannesburg was associated with opportunities: *“Primarily, it is a place of potential opportunity and promise”, “It is the industry of opportunity”, : “Wealth - seeking achievement, land of opportunities; striking the gold opportunity”; “Johannesburg is the place to pursue your dreams, - to develop your career, make money”* and significantly, was seen as a business hub / centre of economic activity. *“Primarily, it is a City of economic and commercial significance”; “Johannesburg is the economic gateway to the continent”; “Business hub in Africa - business hub where all the major deals in Africa take place”*. The association with opportunities and the centre of economic activity was made by local residents who completed the questionnaire. Under the category ‘Business Creativity’, most of the residents agreed with the following statements that addressed business creativity in the City of Johannesburg.

- City of Johannesburg is a good place to do business
- Business is innovative in the City of Johannesburg

- Local business appears to be thriving in the City of Johannesburg
- There are many self-employment opportunities in the City of Johannesburg

Given the common brand associations made by practitioners and local residents interviewed, one can conclude that the City of Johannesburg is fundamentally South Africa's business hub and associated with opportunities and these associations are unlikely to change and will stay constant as the City goes through various growth cycles.

6.3 Discussion pertaining to Research Question 2

What are the key identity distinguishing features which differentiate the City of Johannesburg from other competitive cities in South Africa?

The realisation that competition has intensified for places to distinguish themselves from one another (Baxter & Kerr, 2010a), has meant that marketing strategies are now being implemented competitively. The authors suggest that if marketers are to effectively market their respective places, they need to get a sense of the key characteristics which make up a place identity, with particular attention paid to what is perceived or understood as image. The role of local residents is emphasised in the process of identifying the key attributes that comprise the identity and image of a place, and this process involves understanding what the local residents 'believe' about their place and 'what they think others believe' about their place.

It is acknowledged by Glinska and Florek (2013, p.201) that "selection of a city or town's main identity attributes is a challenging task, as one aspect that has to be

considered is the nature of the features in the context of brand building possibilities". Furthermore, it is difficult to formulate a recipe that would strictly indicate how many attributes should be used in the territorial brand building, and how they should be promoted. Glinska and Florek (2013), citing Insch and Florek (2008), argue that cities, by their nature, depend on their residents for economic, social, cultural and environmental vibrancy. In turn, residents' satisfaction with the city is shaped, in part, by the nature or perceived quality of these interrelated environments. The insights from the literature review reveal the importance of involving local residents in the process of identifying the key attributes that comprise the identity and image of a place.

In response to the question on what the key identity distinguishing features of the City of Johannesburg, from other competitive cities in South Africa, practitioners highlighted the City's developed infrastructure. As one participant highlighted, *"Johannesburg is by far identified as highly developed and equated it to "first world infrastructure" and "Infrastructure overlay sets Johannesburg apart from other cities in the country".*

In contrast, local residents rated the City's transport infrastructure poorly and as such it was dropped from the modified final model as it did not have a statistically significant influence (item loading of 0.5. which is not a good measure). It is worth highlighting though that 50% of local residents (102) agreed that the "City of Johannesburg has sufficient road network". An explanation on the discrepancy of views could be on how the question was posed to the two groups. In the case of practitioners, they broadly described the infrastructure without being as specific,

although one practitioner was specific and highlighted that “*Road transport is key in Johannesburg and the roads are good*”. Local residents were asked the following questions with regards to the city’s transport infrastructure:

- City of Johannesburg has sufficient road network (50% agreed) - 102 residents.
- Traffic moves freely in the City of Johannesburg (79% disagreed to strongly disagreed) – 161 residents.
- Road works do not inconvenience in the City of Johannesburg (82% disagreed to strongly disagreed) – 168 residents.
- City of Johannesburg roads are well maintained and repaired quickly (67% disagreed to strongly disagreed) – 137 residents.

Biased responses would have been inevitable to the above responses by local residents particularly considering the period when this research was conducted - road and transport upgrades were being done to improve the city’s transport infrastructure and significant building construction in the Sandton area – a major hub of economic activity - and roads had to be sealed off to make room for the construction.

Another element that was highlighted as distinguishing the City of Johannesburg from other cities is the City being a business capital of the country. This is linked to earlier views expressed about the identity of the City. As one of the participants commented, “*What makes Johannesburg different from other destinations is that we are the business capital of South Africa, financial capital of South Africa*”.

Practitioner participants were united on the diversity of the City of Johannesburg as one of the key identity distinguishing features which differentiate the City of Johannesburg from other competitive cities in South Africa. “*The diversity is represented through the multiplicity of cultures*”; and a further explanation that “*there is the business aspect and culture and heritage that makes Johannesburg totally different*” supported practitioner participants’ views. In contrast, local residents did not place cultural activities as having a significant influence on the identity of the metropolitan and hence did not rank it as a key identity distinguishing feature and, as such, it was dropped from the modified final model as it did not have a statistically significant influence (item loading of less than 0.5. which is not a good measure). As in the case of transport infrastructure, an explanation on the discrepancy of views could be on how the question was posed to the two groups. In the case of practitioners, they were not probed further on elaborating what they classified as diverse culture. Local residents on the other hand, were asked the following questions with regards to the city’s cultural activities:

- City of Johannesburg has a diverse range of cultural events and festivals (58% disagreed to strongly disagreed) – 119 residents.
- City of Johannesburg has numerous live shows (64% disagreed to strongly disagreed) – 130 residents.
- City of Johannesburg has adequate community centres (40% disagreed to strongly disagreed – 81 residents).
- City of Johannesburg has a modern day design and appeal is evident (44% disagreed to strongly disagreed – 89 residents ; 42% agreed – 85 residents).

- City of Johannesburg is cosmopolitan and sophisticated (53% disagreed to strongly disagreed – 108 residents.

Local residents however agreed with the identity of the City of Johannesburg based on the following questions:

- City of Johannesburg has access to outdoor recreational features (77% slightly agreed to strongly agreed) – 158 residents.
- City of Johannesburg has many parks, braai and picnic facilities (68% slightly agreed to strongly agreed) - 139 residents.
- City of Johannesburg has a variety of natural wonders (49% slightly agreed to strongly agreed) – 99 residents.

Since over 65% (133 respondents) commented positively, on the first two identity questions, one can conclude that these variables contribute to the city's identity features. The question on the city having a variety of natural wonders was dropped from the modified final model as it did not have a statistically significant influence (item loading of less than 0.5. which is not a good measure). This was in line with practitioners' views who indicated that *"people do not come here as they go to a beach or the bush/ safari, but they come here to do things like shopping"*. *"I do not think we can sell much on the leisure side in the City of Johannesburg"*. Coincidentally, local residents rated the City on the "shopping facilities" identity category highly.

Cultural activities and transport infrastructure were dropped as they did not have a statistically significant influence (both below the item loading of 0.5. which is not a good measure). The perspective from local residents on these two variables differed from practitioners interviewed. The latter highlighted the City's developed infrastructure as a key identity distinguishing feature from other competitive cities in South Africa. Similarly, whereas practitioners mentioned the diverse culture that sets the City of Johannesburg apart from other cities, local residents did not place cultural activities as having a significant influence on the identity of the metropolitan.

Local residents however agreed on the identity of the City of Johannesburg based on the following questions:

- Fashion shopping is excellent in the City of Johannesburg (87% slightly agreed to strongly agreed) – 178 residents.
- There are nice places for cups of coffee and snacks in the City of Johannesburg (87% slightly agreed to strongly agreed) – 178 residents
- There is wide choice of shopping in the City of Johannesburg (91% slightly agreed to strongly agreed) – 178 residents.
- There is a diverse range of quality restaurants in the City of Johannesburg (87% slightly agreed to strongly agreed) – 178 residents.

To summarise and based on the responses from local residents and depicted in the modified final model, the following elements make up the City Johannesburg's identity features:

Business Creativity; Place identity (1 & 2 questions only) and Shopping facilities.

6.4 Discussion pertaining to Research Question 3

What images are associated with the City of Johannesburg?

According to Kavartzis (2005), destinations are visited because of their prior images, and they are consumed based on a first-hand comparison of those images with the reality faced in the destination itself. The significance of place image is recognised in place marketing, with Elliot et al. (2001, p. 520) highlighting that 'central to place marketing and branding theory is the concept of place image'. The image construct is certainly applicable to a place as this is driven by consumers' perceptions based on various associations and interactions. Similarly Abratt and Kleyn (2012, p. 1055), highlight the importance of brand experiences in brand image formation, as they argue that 'without any experience of a brand a consumer cannot build a strong brand image'.

The City of Johannesburg's image, going by the responses of the majority of the practitioners, has a '*negative perception of crime*', "*people fear the city - because they think it's fast, furious and crime ridden and that is the only thing they kind of remember about it*", "*Image = crime*". There was, however, a sense from other practitioners that the association with crime was more a perception than reality, with views that the perception of crime was synonymous "across all big cities", and that "*because the City is a big city - there will be that element of crime, which is a*

perception sometimes but sometimes it is blown into something that it is not". 'The crime association, in my view, is more a perception but that is not the identity of Johannesburg'. An acknowledgement was made by one of the practitioners that "the image of the City is something we battle with because it is very much a multi-faceted image".

Local residents were asked three categories of questions on the image of the City of Johannesburg, namely, Place Image, Government Services and Brand Equity.

The following questions were raised under Brand Equity:

- Overall lifestyle is good in the City of Johannesburg
- City of Johannesburg has a good reputation among its residents
- I would rather live in the City of Johannesburg than any other place
- I am proud to live in the City of Johannesburg
- I am satisfied living in the City of Johannesburg

Most of the participants (66%), representing 133 respondents, slightly agreed to strongly agreed with the statement "Overall lifestyle is good in the City of Johannesburg". 44% of locals (90 respondents), slightly agreed to strongly agreed with the statement "City of Johannesburg has a good reputation among its residents". This was surprisingly low coming from the residents themselves with even 18% (36 residents) being neutral on this statement. 30% or 61 residents slightly disagreed to disagreed with this statement. Furthermore, most of the participants (54%), 111 respondents, disagreed to strongly disagreed with the

statement “I would rather live in the City of Johannesburg than any other place”. A comment raised by one of the practitioners could help provide an insight into this dispiritedness: *“Migrant city (come holiday time most residents say ‘they are going home’ meaning they are here just for work”*. One can conclude that while the City of Johannesburg is a place of opportunities and the economic hub of the country, residents would not choose the City as their preferred place to live over any other place. Residents indicated that they are proud to live in the City (43%), representing 87 people and are satisfied in living in the City (44%) - 90 residents. A comment by one of the practitioners could explain the low levels of agreement among residents, that is, *“it’s a take it or leave it place - you either love it or it’s not for you”*.

Avraham (2004) recommended several strategies that local authorities could possibly use in an attempt to deal with their city’s negative image. They are worth mentioning here and are as follows:

1. Encouraging visits to the city and nullifying stereotypes
2. Hosting spotlight events
3. Changing the city’s name, logo or slogan
4. Cultivating the local residents’ pride and improving their self-image
5. Solving the problem that led to the formation of the negative image
6. Delivering counter-stereotypical messages
7. Ignoring the stereotype or the crisis
8. Acknowledging the negative image
9. Geographic association or separation in advertising campaigns

6.5 Discussion pertaining to Research Question 4

What is the City of Johannesburg's actual identity and is this reflected in the communicated identity?

Brand communications is the “component that focuses on the activities associated with the communication of the brand identity” (Hanna & Rowley, 2011, p. 469). Ashworth and Kavaratzis (2009) suggest that crafting or prompting expectations about the city happens through communication and promotional activities.

Kavaratzis (2005) says that the entirety of what takes place in the city, the sum total of what a city consists of and does, communicates messages about the city's brand. Additionally, Kavaratzis (2005) contends that a brand is communicated through two distinct types of communication - primary and secondary. The primary communication is not influenced by deliberate communicative actions, but rather by implicit actions split into four general areas of participation: landscape strategies; infrastructure projects; organisational and administrative structure; and the city behaviour. The formal and deliberate communication that is visible, such as advertising, public relations, graphic design and the use of a logo, characterises secondary communication (similar to promotion in the traditional marketing mix). Communicated identity as explained by Ashworth and Kavaratzis (2009, p. 523) is “revealed through controllable corporate communication”.

Most of the practitioners were in agreement that the City's identity, which they described as “world class” is reflected in the communicated identity of the metropolitan. With the City's current position statement being communicated as “World class African City”. *“Johannesburg's actual identity is being communicated - look at the tagline - 'World-class African City'. This is where you do business; this is where you find world-class infrastructure”.*

“I think Joburg has done a good job in talking about the fact that we are business destination. That is communicated well and I do not think we should not reinvent ourselves to become a leisure destination”.

“I think they have tried to position it as a business hub and infrastructure development issues. I think they have done a good job in communicating that.”

In the case of the City of Johannesburg, the actual reality is reflected in its cultural history, historical buildings, residents and business communities' behaviour; and their familiarity with and experience of its services and infrastructure, that is, what people actually see and feel about Johannesburg.

The communicated identity is centred on a city that aspires to world class standards, although when one considers its basic infrastructure and services, there is considerable work to be done to reach those standards.

Respondent 5 concurred that this is reflected in reality by the fact that *“this is where you do business [and] this is where you find world-class infrastructure”*. Similarly, Respondent 2 indicated that *“in terms of communicated identity - personally, I think they have tried to position it as a business hub and infrastructure development issues. I think they have done a good job in communicating that”*.

Although Respondent 3 also shared similar sentiments, they were quite adamant, that whilst the City is communicated effectively as a *“business destination”*, the City *“should not reinvent [itself] to become a leisure destination”*. Respondents further substantiated their view by saying that *“if we own the business space, then that is what we should own and do everything possible to own that space. We cannot own beaches”*. They made the distinction that *“people want to go to Cape Town for experience but if you look at a conference, for example, AfriCities - African Cities, you want to be in Johannesburg where you have all your corporates here”*.

Respondent 4 pointed out that the *“standard PR message that we have used over the last few years, is that Johannesburg is an all year round global destination for business, but also for leisure”*. Leisure was described in terms of *“things like sports, lifestyle, [and] shopping*. Furthermore, *“people come here for big events like conferences, big concerts, big sports matches [and] while they are here, they take in things like the theatre, night life, dining out - that kind of lifestyle experience”*.

Most of the local resident participants, (61%), representing 124 respondents, slightly agreed to strongly agreed with the statement “City of Johannesburg identity is reflected in its cultural history”. This level of agreement was also demonstrated and close to the percentage of participants (63%) who slightly agreed to strongly agreed with the statement “City of Johannesburg identity is reflected in its historical buildings”. Given the tourist activities around the City of Johannesburg’s historical buildings and cultural history such as Nelson Mandela’s house in Soweto, the Hector Memorial Museum, Apartheid Museum, to name a few, this is in line with participants’ answers.

Since 52%, representing 107 respondents, commented positively to the statement “The identity of Johannesburg is reflected in the advertising message”, with 47%, representing 97 respondents, slightly agreeing to strongly agreeing with the statement “The identity of Johannesburg is reflected in the public relations campaigns and 49% (99 respondents) agreeing with the statement “The identity of Johannesburg is reflected in its graphic design and use of logo”, one can conclude that secondary communication is dominant in communicating the identity of the City of Johannesburg. The formal and deliberate communication that is visible, such as advertising, public relations, graphic design and the use of a logo, characterises secondary communication.

The percentage of participants who were neutral on the statements on the communicated identity was concerning. It could be that participants did not understand the questions or simply were neutral on the statements.

- City of Johannesburg identity is reflected in residents' familiarity and experience about its services and infrastructure (25.5%) – 52 respondents.
- The identity of Johannesburg is reflected in the advertising message (18.1%) – 37 respondents.
- The identity of Johannesburg is reflected in the public relations campaigns (20.6%) – 42 respondents.
- The identity of Johannesburg is reflected in its graphic design and use of logo (26.0%) – 42 respondents.
- Word of mouth influences the City of Johannesburg's identity as opposed to what is communicated (23.5%) – 48 respondents.

Lastly, most of the participants (55%), 137 respondents, slightly agreed to strongly agreed with the statement "Word of mouth influences the City of Johannesburg's identity. Word of Mouth serves as a form of communication largely beyond the control of place marketers (Kavaratzis, 2009) and delivers extremely trustworthy means of influence, since the communicator is not seen as having a deliberate interest (Hanna & Rowley, 2011). It is vital that all stakeholders involved in promoting the City of Johannesburg should be conscious of the impact of the word of mouth of their consumers who interact with the brand and have a brand experience.

6.6 Hypotheses Discussion

Important to note about the study findings is the fact that place identity has strong effects on place image (0.418) and communicated identity (0.317). However, communicated identity has less influence on place image (0.271). By implication, this finding indicates that place identity has a strong influence on place image and ultimately, communicated identity.

6.6.1 Managerial Implications

Place identity has more influence on Place Image, that is, place identity influences the image of a place, more than it has on communicated identity (CI.)

What it means is that if destination marketers sell a place as the go-to place / city and yet the perceived image does not match the reality, then it will not sell. It follows that before people consider the communicated image of a city/ place, they look at the image of the place. In the case of the City of Johannesburg, the perception of crime associated with the City precedes the communicated identity. Place identity is linked to the image more than the communicated identity. If the city place marketers want to attract more tourists, they have to make sure that they come up with strategies that reduce the negative image of the City.

Trueman et al. (2004, p.317) highlight that “poor perceptions of a city can devalue its image” and consequently affect its long term affluence. In the case of the City of Johannesburg, the image of crime, if not managed, could have an effect on the number of visitors to the metropolitan with little effect, if any, of the city’s perception as a thriving economic hub.

According to Trueman, Klemm, and Giroud (2004, p.321) “positive visual evidence is linked with what people actually see in the city’s built environment, from derelict buildings and heritage sites, to abandoned rubbish or attractive tree-lined avenues”. For example, some of the practitioners interviewed, mentioned the City’s downtown regeneration projects such as the Maboneng Precinct, Braamfontein and Melville, as positive visual evidence of a city that is rejuvenating its notoriously known downtown characterised by dilapidated buildings with art appeal. Another example was the mention of Johannesburg as *“one of the most dense forestation in a city in the world. We have more trees in a city environment, I think, in the world. If you look at how green it looks, it does not look like a concrete jungle”*.

It is consequently important for the City of Johannesburg to differentiate itself from other cities so that any regeneration will validate its strengths and distinctive features that resultantly can be recognised and adopted by local communities (Trueman et

al., 2004a). The City might have to review how it communicates its distinctive features from a cultural perspective as most of the local residents interviewed - 119 residents (58%) disagreed to strongly disagreed with the statement "City of Johannesburg has a diverse range of cultural events and festivals". Similarly, most of the participant - 130 residents (64%) disagreed to strongly disagreed with the statement "City of Johannesburg has numerous live shows". What was even more surprising was the response from residents who disagreed to strongly disagreed (44%) – 89 residents in comparison to 42% slightly agreed to strongly agreed – 85 residents, with the statement "City of Johannesburg has a modern day design and appeal is evident". Lastly, in contrast to interviewed practitioners' views on the City being cosmopolitan and vibrant, 108 residents (53%) disagreed to strongly disagreed with the statement "City of Johannesburg is cosmopolitan and sophisticated".

6.7 Conclusion and summary of results

The qualitative research sought to establish the identity of the City of Johannesburg from the perspective of stakeholders responsible for branding the metropolitan, whereas the quantitative study sought to investigate the perceptions and image of the City of Johannesburg held by local residents.

Given the common brand associations made by practitioners and local residents interviewed, one can conclude that the City of Johannesburg is fundamentally South Africa's business hub and associated with opportunities and these associations are unlikely to change and will stay constant as the City goes through various growth cycles.

Based on the responses from local residents and depicted in the modified final model, the following elements were identified as the City of Johannesburg's identity features: **Business Creativity; Place identity** (1 & 2 questions only) and **Shopping facilities**. From one of the marketing practitioner's views, "*Johannesburg is really taking its place as one the world's most sought after destinations based on a range of accolades*, although a qualification statement was made that "*The accolades are*

not saying that Johannesburg is the most beautiful city but one of the most interesting places”.

The multi-faceted image of the City of Johannesburg was demonstrated by the various responses elicited from marketing practitioners and local residents. The crime association image does not bode well for the metropolitan and concerted efforts are required from all stakeholders involved in marketing the City to deal with their city's negative image.

7 CONCLUSIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

According to Rainisto (2003), the application of the brand identity and brand image constructs to a place, reveals that central in place branding is building the identity for the place. This view is supported by Matlovicova (2010, p. 11) who states that 'place branding itself is inseparably linked to its image and identity'.

Furthermore, Baxter and Kerr (2010a) suggest that if marketers are to effectively market their respective places, they need to get a sense of the key characteristics that make up a place identity, with particular attention paid to what is perceived or understood as image. The role of local residents is emphasised in the process of identifying the key attributes that comprise the identity and image of a place. Thus, the significance of having local people, "not just passively supporting, but positively engaged with, any city or place promotion or marketing efforts, cannot be overstated" (Stubbs & Warnaby, 2015, p. 105).

This chapter wraps up the study by confirming the conclusions reached in the results of the study. It then outlines the recommendations that could be implemented in terms of the study and concludes by putting forward suggestions for further research in specific areas that have been suggested by the current research.

7.2 Conclusions of the study

This study examined the relationship that exists, if any, between place identity and place image. The qualitative research sought to establish the identity of the City of Johannesburg and discuss the image of the City from the perspective of stakeholders responsible for branding the metropolitan, whereas the quantitative study sought to investigate the perceptions and image of the City of Johannesburg held by local residents.

The study revealed respondents' views to the brand associations pertaining to the City of Johannesburg. It was evident that the metropolitan is associated with opportunities and, without doubt, is viewed as a business hub and centre of economic activity. Another association made by practitioners – although not unanimously made, was the City's vibrancy and cosmopolitan nature.

The study also explored the images associated with the City. Although different views and justifications were presented, particularly from practitioners, what is concerning is that the City's image is associated with crime. Views varied on whether this was merely a perception, to comments that the crime association is not a new phenomenon to major capital cities globally. It was evident that this crime association and image has negative connotations for the City. On the physical imagery, the City's skyline was mentioned as frequently used as an image depicting Johannesburg.

The final section explored whether the City of Johannesburg's actual image is reflected in the communicated identity of the metropolitan. There was unanimity from respondents that the City's identity as a business hub and associated developed infrastructure is communicated effectively. Evidently, the focus should be on these positive associations and not the mentioned crime associations.

7.2.1 City of Johannesburg place identity

Findings

- The marketing practitioners interviewed agreed that the City of Johannesburg was associated with opportunities and vibrancy and is seen significantly as a business hub and center of economic activity. This is consistent with all references made to the metropolitan and is undisputed.
- The majority of respondents agreed that the City of Johannesburg is South Africa's business hub.

- The association with vibrancy and cosmopolitan nature of the City as highlighted by practitioners was not echoed as strongly by local residents.
- Variance of views by practitioners and local residents on the City's developed infrastructure – with the former stating in support of the view and the latter not in agreement.
- Diversity of the City was put forward by practitioners whereas local residents did not resonate with this view.
- An element of being fast paced was associated with the City by practitioners with a small percentage of some residents indicating that 'they were proud to live in the City'
- As observed by one practitioner, "the City should not reinvent [itself] to become a leisure destination. "If we own the business space, then that is what we should own and do everything possible to own that space. We do not own beaches".
- Johannesburg was described as an all year round global destination for business but also for leisure – like sports, lifestyle, and shopping.

7.2.2 City of Johannesburg place image

Findings

- Practitioner respondents generally agreed that the City of Johannesburg's image is linked with crime, with a qualification by some respondents that this association is not uncharacteristic of big cities. The association with crime however was seen more as a perception than as reality.
- In the words of a one practitioner "the image of the City is something we battle with because it is very much a multi-faceted image".

Local residents' views on the image of Johannesburg were different from practitioners. This could be attributed to the nature of questions posed to the two groups. The conclusion from local residents' responses is that although the City is viewed as a city of opportunity or 'City of Gold', residents did not have strong affinity with the City on a social level. This assertion is derived from answers to questions

raised. On the question of government services, most local residents were not satisfied with the services provided or lack thereof. On the ground, evidence of this dissatisfaction is demonstrated by the frequent service delivery protests by residents.

In evaluating the City of Johannesburg brand based on Anholt (2006) City Brand hexagon model and the responses from the practitioners and local residents, the City of Johannesburg can be rated as follows:

Attribute	Rating
Presence	Good
Place	Satisfactory - Needs improvement, particularly in relation to the transport infrastructure. Disparate views were made by practitioners versus local residents, with the former indicating that the City has 'world class infrastructure; and the latter rating the City's transport infrastructure as poor.
Pulse	Good
Potential	Good
People	Satisfactory
Prerequisites	Satisfactory

Note:

- Presence - determines the city's international status and standing.
- Place - determines the physical aspects of the city
- Potential - examines opportunities that the city has to offer
- Pulse - measures the existence of a vibrant urban lifestyle
- People - measures the openness and warmth of the local population
- Prerequisites - investigates the basic qualities of the city with regard to the standards and price of accommodation and public amenities.

7.2.3 Hypothesis Discussion

From the three hypotheses presented, the resulted highlighted the following:

- Place identity has direct influence on the image of the place.
- Place identity has direct influence on the communicated identity of that place.
- Communicated identity has direct influence on the image of that place.

7.3 Recommendations

A couple of points have been flagged by this research:

1. In the case of a place, a challenge arises regarding identity, given the various stakeholders linked to a place and the fact that there is no sole owner to drive the reality of the city.
2. The image construct is certainly applicable to a place as this is driven by consumers' perceptions based on various associations and interactions.
3. Efforts are needed to counteract the negative crime associations that are attached to the metropolitan. Concrete and deliberate actions to combat crime are needed to thwart criminal activities.
4. Place identity is linked to the image more than the communicated identity. If city place marketers want to attract more tourists, they have to make sure that they come up with strategies that reduce the negative image of the City. When managing place images, Kotler and Gertner (2002) caution that no advertising or public relations will make an unsafe place safer and that attracting tourists to the place without fixing the problem will lead visitors to bad-mouth the country and worsen the image.
5. It follows that before people consider the communicated image of a city/ place, they look at the image of the place, irrespective of any PR campaigns done to raise the profile of a place. In the case of the City of Johannesburg, the perception of crime associated with the City precedes the communicated identity.

6. Eshuis et al. (2013) caution however, that place marketing is not merely about developing favourable images and communicating these to various target groups, but rather developing a place that fits the needs and wants of citizens, visitors and investors.
7. Sevin (2014, p. 55) also cautions against “differentiating between long-term place associations and short-term event influences, as well as how these short-term events influence long-term associations, as place-relevant associations might be highly influenced by certain high-profile events”. For example, in the case of South Africa, the World Cup event that took place in 2010, could have given an impression that the country and specifically, the City of Johannesburg is crime free.

7.4 Suggestions for further research

It would be erroneous to generalise the captured views as representative of the entire population. Therefore, this study is not without limitations that necessitate future research efforts.

Residents’ representation inclusivity – this study is limited to residents who had access to the online questionnaire. The online survey approach did not capture offline local residents. Insch and Florek (2008) as quoted by Glinska and Florek, (2013) argue that residents are the main stakeholders of a city and it is therefore suggested that an offline survey be carried out, particularly covering the Johannesburg townships of Soweto and Alexandra, as an example.

The discrepancy between the practitioners and the residents’ views can be seen as an opportunity for future research efforts by destination marketing companies.

The question on the communicated identity of the City of Johannesburg was not adequately covered by the interviewer to practitioners and hence the responses

provided did not reveal the much needed insights. A follow up or in-depth survey could be conducted.

7.5 Concluding remarks

Trueman et al. (2004a, p. 328) observed that “cities can be seen as highly complex brands that are constantly changing”.

The identity of the City of Johannesburg as a business hub and centre of economic activity is undoubted and this was strengthened by the research results both from the perspectives of practitioners and local residents who completed the questionnaire.

In conclusion, this study may be valuable to place marketers in the realisation that place identity is linked to the image more than the communicated identity. If the city place marketers want to attract more tourists, they have to make sure that they come up with strategies that reduce the negative image of the City. Based on the research, the image of the City of Johannesburg is a problem – whether perceived or real, perception is reality. This study could be replicated in other cities of South Africa to determine respective cities’ identities and images from the perspectives of local residents.

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APPENDIX