A city branding framework for selected cities in the North West Province

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It all starts here ™

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ABSTRACT

Cities are faced with increased competition to attract and retain residents. Due to globalisation, residents now have a choice where they want to live, work and stay. Cities must therefore investigate how the use of branding strategies can increase their competitive advantage. Residents, like consumers, have needs and wants and therefore it is important that cities understand the role that branding and marketing can play to position themselves as a place where residents want to live. In the academic field, several international researchers have published articles on place/city marketing and also place/city branding, but within the South African context there is limited research available on these topics. The primary objective of this study is to develop a city branding framework within a South African context. To achieve the primary objective, secondary objectives were established to measure the level of experience and importance of the city branding factors. From the results, importance–performance matrixes were developed. This study also aims to confirm and expand the existing marketing theory in terms of city branding within a South African context.

The literature review of this study indicated that traditional marketing and branding philosophies can be applied to places and cities. The reason is that residents of cities should be treated as consumers who have needs and wants. By understanding the needs and wants, city marketers and local policy-makers are able to satisfy these needs and wants, thus creating satisfied residents. Using branding strategies, cities can develop relationships between residents and the city, which in turn creates a competitive advantage for the city. Various existing city branding frameworks/models were investigated, and these frameworks were used and adapted to develop the questionnaire used in this study.

The study was conducted among permanent residents in Potchefstroom, Klerksdorp and Rustenburg, with a total of 603 residents interviewed. This study made use of a descriptive research design where primary data was collected using a structured questionnaire. The data obtained were analysed using SPSS 22.0, AMOS 22.0 and Statistica software to conduct descriptive analysis, inferential analysis and also factor analysis.

Existing literature indicated 13 city branding factors, but the results of this study revealed only 11 city branding factors to be included in branding strategies for the specific cities. This 11-factor model presented better goodness-of-fit scores than the 13-factor model, and therefore it is recommended that the 11 city branding factors should rather be used. The "Education" factor scored the highest level of experience, with the "Vision and strategy" factor scoring the lowest level of experience. The study also determined the most important factors for residents, namely "Education", "Medical", "Safety", "Housing", "Employment" and "Business". By using the level of experience and importance, it was possible to developed importance–performance matrixes for the different cities. These matrixes can assist city marketers and policymakers to develop detailed branding strategies with the aim of retaining residents and attracting them to these cities.

Local government plays a pivotal role in city branding and is therefore one of the stakeholders which can utilise this study. It is recommended that local government, business owners and city marketers work together to improve the city branding factors which are important to residents but are not performing so well. Following this strategy would prevent resources from being wasted and enable strategies to be focused and more effective. It is crucial that the economic growth of these cities improves, as this will lead to more employment opportunities, increased salary levels and more affordable housing. City marketers must capitalise on the current level of education available in these cities, as this factor is important to residents and the performance level is high.

It is suggested that the study also be conducted among residents of rural and larger urban cities to determine whether the results could differ and to further add to the existing literature available.

UITTREKSEL

Stede word gekonfronteer met verhoogde mededinging om inwoners te trek en te behou. As gevolg van globalisering het inwoners nou 'n keuse waar hulle wil woon, werk en bly. Stede moet daarom ondersoek instel hoe die gebruik van handelsmerkgewingstrategieë hul mededingende voordeel kan verhoog. Inwoners, net soos verbruikers, het behoeftes en begeertes en daarom is dit belangrik dat stede die rol wat handelsmerkgewing en bemarking in die ontwikkeling van mededingende strategieë speel verstaan. Binne die akademiese omgewing het verskeie internasionale navorsers artikels oor plek/stad bemarking gepubliseer en ook oor plek/stad handelsmerkgewing, maar binne die Suid-Afrikaanse konteks is daar beperkte navorsing oor hierdie onderwerpe beskikbaar. Die primêre doel van hierdie studie is om ʼn raamwerk vir handelsmerkgewing vir stede binne 'n Suid-Afrikaanse konteks te ontwikkel. Ter bereiking van die primêre doelwit is sekondêre doelwitte gestel wat die vlakke van ervaring en belangrikheid van die stede se handelsmerkgewende faktore meet. Uit die resultate is belangrikheid-prestasie matrikse ontwikkel. Hierdie studie poog ook om die bestaande bemarkingsteorie te bevestig en uit te brei in terme van stad handelsmerkgewing binne 'n Suid-Afrikaanse konteks.

Die literatuuroorsig van hierdie studie het aangedui dat tradisionele bemarking en handelsmerkgewing filosofieë toegepas kan word op plekke en stede. Die rede is omdat die inwoners van stede ook hanteer moet word soos verbruikers wat behoeftes en begeertes het. Deur hierdie behoeftes en begeertes te verstaan, kan stad bemarkers en plaaslike beleidmakers hierdie begeertes en behoeftes bevredig en so tevrede inwoners skep. Met die gebruik van handelsmerkgewinde strategieë, kan stede 'n verhouding tussen die inwoners en die stad ontwikkel, wat op sy beurt 'n mededingende voordeel vir die stad skep. Verskeie bestaande stad handelsmerkgewinde raamwerke/modelle is bestudeer, en hierdie raamwerke is gebruik en aangepas om die vraelys vir hierdie studie te ontwikkel.

Die studie is gedoen onder permanente inwoners in Potchefstroom, Klerksdorp en Rustenburg met 'n totaal van 603 inwoners wat ondervra is. Hierdie studie het gebruik gemaak van ʼn beskrywende navorsingsontwerp met primêre data wat ingesamel is met behulp van ʼn gestruktureerde vraelys. Die data wat ingesamel is, is ontleed met hulp van SPSS 22.0, AMOS 22.0 en Statistica sagteware om beskrywende analise, inferensiële analise en faktor analise te doen.

Bestaande literatuur het 13 stad handelsmerkgewende faktore aangedui, maar die resultate van hierdie studie het net 11 stad handelsmerkgewende faktore getoon wat ingesluit moet word in handelsmerkgewende strategieë vir die spesifieke stede. Hierdie 11-faktor model het beter

“goodness-of-fit” tellings as die 13-faktor model gehad en daarom word dit aanbeveel om eerder die 11 stad handelsmerkgewende faktore te gebruik. Die "Onderrig" faktor is die faktor met die hoogste vlak van ervaring, met die "Visie en strategie" faktor wat die laagste vlak van ervaring behaal het. Die studie het ook bevind dat die belangrikste faktore vir die inwoners is "Onderrig", “Medies", "Veiligheid", "Behuising", "Werksgeleenthede" en "Besigheid". Deur die gebruik van die vlak van ervaring en belangrikheid, was dit moontlik om “belangrikheid–prestasie” matrikse vir alle inwoners in die stede asook per stad te ontwikkel. Hierdie matrikse kan bemarkers en beleidmakers help om gedetailleerde handelsmerkgewende strategieë te ontwikkel met die doel om inwoners te behou en te lok na hierdie stede.

Plaaslike regering speel 'n deurslaggewende rol in stad handelsmerkgewing en is dus een van die belanghebbendes wat hierdie studie kan benut. Dit word aanbeveel dat die plaaslike regering, sake-eienaars en stad bemarkers saamwerk om die stad handelsmerkgewende faktore wat nie so goed presteer het nie te verbeter. Deur hierdie strategie te volg, sal hulpbronne nie vermors word nie en strategieë sal gefokus en meer effektief wees. Dit is van belang dat die ekonomiese groei van hierdie stede verbeter omrede dit sal lei tot meer werksgeleenthede, verhoogde salarisvlakke en meer bekostigbare behuising. Stad bemarkers moet kapitaliseer op die vlak van onderrig beskikbaar in die stede, omrede hierdie faktor belangrik is vir inwoners en die prestasievlakke hoog is.

Daar word voorgestel dat die studie ook gedoen word onder inwoners van landelike en groter stedelike stede om te bepaal of die resultate kan verskil en om verder by te voeg tot die bestaande literatuur wat beskikbaar is

LIST OF KEY TERMS

The following section provides a list of key terms used in this study. The definitions are provided to ensure consistency and clarity of the terms.

- Marketing

Kotler and Armstrong (2014:24) define marketing as a managerial and social process whereby individuals and organisations obtain what they need and want by creating manageable and profitable consumer relationships.

- Place marketing

Eshuis *et al.* (2013:508) state that place marketing can be defined as the application of marketing instruments to geographical locations such as nations, cities, regions and communities.

- City marketing

City marketing can be defined as the organised use of marketing tools, supported by a shared customer-orientated philosophy, to create, communicate, deliver and exchange urban offerings that have value for the city's customers and the city's community (Braun, 2008:43).

- Brand

Du Toit and Erdis (2013:17) and the American Marketing Association (2016) define a brand as a name, term, sign or design, or a mixture of them, with the purpose of identifying goods or services from one supplier or group of suppliers and to differentiate between competition.

- Branding

Branding can be defined as the process of attempting to differentiate a product from those of the competitors by providing a product with a distinct and recognisable identity, and then building the correct association with that brand to ensure that the brand is relevant and different from competition (Bothma, 2013:152).

- Place branding

González (2011:297, 298) defines place branding as the process of generating value between a geographical area and an individual by creating an image of the economic, social and historical features of the place so as to create a positive image of the location.

- City branding

City branding can be defined as a set of actions used to build a positive image of the city and the communication of it among various target groups by means of visuals, stories and events both locally and internationally (Kavaratzis, 2008:214).

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

More and more towns, cities and regions are exploring branding campaigns to create a reputation for themselves and a competitive advantage in the global marketplace (Sevin, 2014:47). Hanna and Rowley (2007:61) state that the following conditions make place branding a necessity for cities and countries:

- international media
- decrease in travel costs
- increase in consumer spending and the risk of place parity
- limited international investors
- need for skilled and expert immigrants
- the development of consumers

Hanna and Rowley (2007:63) also note that globalisation has established a competitive arena where growing cities can compete with more mature and established cities. It is, therefore, not unexpected that the number of studies done on how cities recognise, formulate and communicate their attributes has increased during the last 20 years (Lucarelli & Berg, 2011:9). Competition between cities has intensified in their quest to establish their credentials as the best choice for prospective residents, visitors, businesses and investors (Baker, 2010:xiii). Cities are therefore branding and rebranding themselves in order to enhance their position as appealing business destinations and places to stay and study (Parkerson & Saunders, 2004:242).

The aim of this study is to develop a framework to assist with the branding strategies of cities. During this study, the existing city branding factors will be investigated and combined to create a measurement instrument. This measurement instrument will be used to evaluate the current level of experience and level of importance of these factors among residents in selected North West province cities. An importance–performance matrix will be developed for each city, and finally the city branding framework.

This introductory chapter commences with a background of the study, followed by a literature review and the problem statement of the study. The chapter concludes with the research objectives, methodology and an outline of the subsequent chapters.

1.2 Background of the study

Braun (2008:36) mentions that cities seek to have positive images that enable them to achieve economic and symbolic added value, which in turn reinforces the position of cities for residences, businesses and destinations. It is also important for political and business leaders of cities to understand their brand and how they are perceived by potential visitors, investors, customers and future citizens (Anholt, 2006:18). Cities are therefore being branded and rebranded to enhance their position as leisure attractions, business and tourism destinations and places to study at and live in (Parkerson & Saunders, 2004:242).

Hanna and Rowley (2011:459) indicate that people can choose between cities by determining which one will best satisfy their needs and wants. For this reason, city branding has become crucial, with the aim of turning cities into places where people want to live, work and visit. As people, resources and companies can choose which cities best suit their needs, it is vital for places to provide a setting which is able to attract new activities and, possibly more important, keep existing place users satisfied (Kavaratzis, 2005:329).

Currently there is limited academic literature available on the application of city branding within the South African context. The literature available focuses mainly on the development of cities as tourism destinations, like the article by Ntsibande (2013:1), in which he mentions that cities have invested in “event properties” to drive marketing and tourism. The author gives examples of marketing conducted by the city of Cape Town, where the branding efforts focus on Table Mountain and the J&B Met, and by Johannesburg, which focuses on the entertainment value it can offer. But as mentioned by Hanna and Rowley (2011:459), interest in place images and branding is no longer only evidenced by towns or cities that have been regarded as tourism destinations.

Therefore, it is evident that there is a need for a more academic approach towards city branding within the South African context, and this study aims to provide that information. This research will assist cities to be able to identify and understand the needs of their customers, the residents. As formulated by Braun (2008:46), a more focused and better understanding of customers (residents) can enable cities to compile a more effective targeted approach to attract potential customers (residents) to their cities. This author also states that existing marketing tools like segmentation, targeting, positioning and the “4 Ps” of the marketing mix can be used to promote and expand cities to counteract competitiveness between them. Local government and marketing practitioners will be able to focus on attributes which are important to residents without wasting time and money on ones that are not important.

1.3 Literature review

The following section provides a literature review of key concepts relating to city branding.

1.3.1 The marketing domain – how does city and place marketing fit into the picture?

Understanding the marketplace, especially what customers need and want, is central to the marketing process (Grewal & Levy, 2014:5). Hult *et al.* (2014:5) explain that the essence of marketing is the attempt to create satisfying exchanges, and they mention that customers expect benefits greater than the prices paid, while companies expect to achieve value in return for products and services supplied.

As the purchasers and users of products produced by organisations, customers are the central focus for all marketing activities, and therefore organisations should focus not only on what products or services they supply, but also on what types of products and services customers require to satisfy their needs (Hult *et al.*, 2014:4). In city marketing, especially when referring to current residents of cities, consumer orientation would concern how the residents experience the cities they live in, which includes the physical and symbolic elements they evaluate in order to access these cities (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005:507).

Traditional marketing has been divided into a set of four manageable decisions or activities which organisations use to respond to the wants of their target markets. The marketing mix consists of 1) the product, 2) the price of the product, 3) the distribution and 4) promotion, called the 4 Ps of marketing (Armstrong & Kotler, 2013:7; Grewal & Levy, 2014:8). According to Braun (2008:2), city marketing can be seen as an extension of traditional marketing, an element to which marketing principles can be applied. The author also states that some see city marketing mainly from a communication viewpoint, a way to promote the attractiveness of cities; however, promotional activities are just one of the components of the city marketing process (Anholt, 2008:2; Hospers, 2010:184; Kavaratzis, 2009:4).

In addition to tangible products and services, marketers have broadened the concept of products to include other market offerings like organisation, persons, place and ideas (Armstrong & Kotler, 2013:228). In terms of places, place marketing involves activities which rely on the creation, communication and management of the city’s image, attitudes and behaviour (Armstrong & Kotler, 2013:229; Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005:507). Encounters between cities and their users take place by means of perceptions and images, with the focus on people’s perceptions and images of places; thus, perceptions and images are the centre of activities designed to shape places and their future (Kavaratzis, 2008:52).

According to Armstrong and Kotler (2013:225), consumers view a brand as an important part of the product. These authors mention that customers make connotations with brands and develop brand relationships; thus branding can add value to a customer's purchase. It is therefore necessary to discuss branding, which will be done in the following section, and this will be followed by a literature review of place branding and city branding.

1.3.2 Branding

Branding is a component of marketing; it is the process whereby certain characteristics are transferred into a brand to identify and distinguish it from others (Du Toit & Erdis, 2013:3). Anholt (2005:116) states that branding is generally used in one of three ways, namely 1) the popular way, where branding is used as a vague mixture of a number of marketing fields, 2) in terms of the simple understanding, normally used by marketing organisations and companies, which refers to the name, logo, slogan and corporate livery, and 3) according to the advanced definition, which includes the simple understanding but also a wide area of business strategies, consumer and stakeholder inspirations and behaviour, including internal and external communication.

According to Healey (2008:8), branding involves five components. These components include: 1) positioning, which means defining the brand in the mind of the customers; 2) storytelling, whereby the customer takes part in the brand's story; 3) design, which refers to all the features of the product/service; 4) price, which is the less obvious aspect of a brand but can influence a customer when deciding which product to purchase; and 5) customer relationship, which is the efforts of companies to build a relationship with their customers.

According to Du Toit and Erdis (2013:19), branding creates brands, which provides target markets with ways to differentiate businesses from competition while communicating the key uniqueness, offerings and approaches which will ultimately create ideal reputations in the marketplace. A brand is not only a name or logo but can also be applied to people, places, things and ideas. Branding has become so important that hardly anything goes unbranded anymore (Du Toit & Erdis, 2013:20).

1.3.2.1 Place branding

Place branding is simply the application of product branding to places but entails much more than only assigning memorable names or logos to products or cities (Kavaratzis, 2008:53). Anholt (2005:120) points out that there is confusion between place branding and the promotion of assets or products of countries, such as tourism, incoming investments, culture and exports. Tourism is just one component contained within cities, countries or regions and is therefore a product that needs to be sold in the global marketplace. The author also notes that to best promote countries, regions and cities, harmonised and strategic approaches are needed to promote their products as well as their overall reputation (Anholt, 2005:120).

Hanna and Rowley (2011:458) mention that although place branding started in the tourism industry, places need to think about branding in a wider context with respect to the management of brand images and experiences of stakeholders. The author mentions, that place branding is no longer just for cities and towns that view themselves as tourism destinations, but for most cities and towns wanting to differentiate themselves.

According to Anholt (2005:118, 119) much of the resentment towards the concept of place branding arises from the popular and simple understanding of the word “brand”; it is preposterous to think that when new graphics or catchphrases for cities are applied, attitudes will change. The author states that only when the best lessons, techniques and observations from advance branding are applied to cities will the consequences be appealing, far reaching and possibly world changing.

When developing place branding, it is important to understand the connection between places and people. Shared perceptions influence attitudes, define values, generate meanings and determine the level of importance of life in communities (Aitken & Campelo, 2011:922). It is generally accepted that places are very complex; they have various brands and at the same time serve a wide range of aims and target different groups of individuals, which makes them more difficult to control than conventional product brands (Trueman *et al.*, 2004:318). The influence that local cultures have, as well as the enhancement of community identities, are of key importance when attempting to define, signify and understand the professional aspects of place branding (Aitken & Campelo, 2011:913).

According to Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2005:511), there are three different kinds of place branding: 1) *geographical nomenclature*, which gives tangible products names that relate to geographical locations; 2) *product place co-branding*, which attempts to market tangible products by connecting them with places that are alleged to have attributes favourable to the images of these products; and 3) *place management*, which includes the creation of place identities which are also subsequently used to further other attractive processes.

The aims of place marketing include the development of positive images of places as well as attracting businesses, tourists and events (Rainisto, 2003:12). Zenker (2011:41) is of the opinion that place marketing strives to boost the social functions like place identification and satisfaction for all citizens rather than to favour particular groups.

1.3.2.2 City branding

Cities are built as brands, especially in the contemporary global context, and one might even say that cities have always been "branded", which includes certain urban identities, images, reputations and values (Cozmiuc, 2011:429). If cities want to develop a well-defined brand personality for themselves, they need features like functionality, added value and integration, and should also be a destination for employment, industry, residence and public transport (Cozmiuc, 2011:431).

As branding in the private sector is about business strategies, city branding is about creating development policies for cities (Hanna & Rowley, 2007:62). Braun (2008:36) argues that although city branding seems to be a new buzzword, it has been part of city marketing from the beginning, better known as "city image", and that it is therefore vital for cities to sustain varied, expert and contented residential populations, because dissatisfaction could have a very negative effect on cities (Insch, 2011:9).

1.3.2.3 From city marketing to city branding

According to Braun (2008:35), since 2000 the focus of city marketing discussions has moved in the direction of city branding, which has resulted in the branding of cities and places becoming more popular in recent years.

In the quest to move from place and/or city marketing to place and/or city branding, the question that needs to be answered is: Can branding principles be applied to places and/or cities? Kavaratzis (2008:60) agrees with this question by stating that branding of cities can function as an umbrella that covers a variety of stakeholders and audiences, as long as the values which are developed as the core brand are joined together by a vision which gives meaning and direction. Cities can therefore become a collection of brands, brand lines similar to product lines which are used in place branding (Kavaratzis, 2008:60).

Kavaratzis (2008:60) also suggests that corporate branding be used to apply product branding to cities in the same way as whole organisations are branded, and not only products. Corporate branding consists of more widespread values, for example social responsibility, attention to the environment, sustainability, innovation and trust (Kavaratzis, 2008:60).

1.3.2.4 Lessons of corporate branding to use in city branding

Places are starting to move their focus towards branding and are increasingly using products and corporate branding concepts and techniques in branding strategies (Kavaratzis, 2009:26).

As discussed by Hulberg (2006:61), there are mainly three reasons for increased interest in corporate branding: 1) differentiation, whereby organisations need to differentiate themselves, as products and services can become similar over time; 2) transparency, whereby the audiences of an organisation demand to have access to the organisations behind its brands and products; and 3) reducing of costs, whereby organisations can jointly promote brands rather than promoting several brands individually.

The essential constructs of corporate branding are discussed by Hulberg (2006:63) and include 1) identities, 2) organisational cultures, 3) behaviour, 4) values, 5) images and 6) reputation. Table 1.1 mentions seven differences between product and corporate branding.

Table 1.1: Difference between product and corporate branding

	Product brands	Corporate brands
Attention	Product	Company
Managed	Managers	CEO
Attract attention of	Customers	Multiple stakeholders
Communication	Marketing communication	Corporate communication
Time	Short (product related)	Long (company related)
Importance	Functional	Strategic

Source: Adapted from Hatch and Schultz (2003:1044).

Taking the abovementioned information into consideration, it is evident that corporate branding differs from product branding. City brands, like corporate brands, are also profoundly different from product brands; therefore, traditional marketing is not sufficient to use (Kavaratzis, 2008:130). As mentioned by Virgo and De Chernatony (2006:379), city branding includes complexities like the diversity of shareholders, the number of organisations steering the brand, and limited control over products, which are beyond those of product and services branding.

It can therefore be noted that corporate branding does seem to offer a collection of lessons which can be implemented in city marketing (Balmer & Greyser, 2006:735). The marketing mix is thus relevant to cities and their marketing situations and can serve as a source for the refinement of marketing theories of cities (Kavaratzis, 2008:131).

1.3.3 City branding frameworks

In current literature there are several place and/or city marketing and/or branding frameworks used by various authors. In this section existing frameworks will be summarised in terms of the purpose of each and the items used.

Rainisto (2003:1) has used an approach aimed at assessing the success factors in place marketing and how they could be used in place development. To this end, the proposed framework consists of nine success factors, which include 1) planning, 2) vision and strategic analysis, 3) place identity and place images, 4) public and/or private partnerships, 6) global marketplace, 7) local development, 8) process coincidences, and 9) leadership.

Anholt (2006:19) has developed the “Anholt-GMI City Brand Index” in terms of which the author asked the respondents to compare 30 cities in five categories. The five categories include the place, the potential, the pulse, the people and the prerequisites.

Trueman and Cornelius (2006:4) challenged the gap between theory and practice by suggesting a “Place Brand Identity Toolkit”, which includes presence, purpose, personality and place of branding, as well as the involvement of local communities.

Another framework was developed by Kavaratzis (2008:17), which aims to identify the elements which best describe the different marketing variables available for city marketing and how best to apply these variables at a practical level. This framework developed by Kavaratzis (2008:41) consists of primary communication (including landscape strategies, infrastructure projects, organisational structures and behaviour of cities), secondary communication (comprising known marketing practices), as well as tertiary communication (containing word-of-mouth).

According to Zenker (2009:26), four factors – nature and creation, urbanity and diversity, job chances, and cost-efficiency – can explain nearly 50% of the general satisfaction of residents with cities. The aim of the evaluation concerned was to investigate the basic needs among a target group of the city in which they resided.

Merrilees *et al.* (2009:362) developed a model to determine the important city brand attitudes for residents of cities. The model includes the following factors: 1) nature; 2) business creativity; 3) shopping; 4) brand; 5) intentions; 6) transport; 7) cultural activities; 8) government services; and 10) social bonding.

Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012:2) attempted to determine the most efficient drivers of place attractiveness. These researchers used conjoint analysis to quantify judgemental data. The analysis allowed the measuring of preferences by taking into consideration the utility level of each attribute, including city diversity, city safety and comfort, professional and job opportunities, and city facilities.

Table 1.2 summarises the city branding constructs and includes the essence behind city branding as well the source for each construct.

Table 1.2: Summary of city branding constructs

City branding constructs	Essence of the construct	Sources
Vision and strategy	The vision of the city's future and a strategy to achieve it	Rainisto (2003), Trueman and Cornelius (2006), Kavaratzis (2008)
Internal culture	Brand alignment throughout the city's marketing and management	Rainisto (2003), Trueman and Cornelius (2006), Kavaratzis (2008)
External culture	Cultural diversity in the city	Anholt (2006), Kavaratzis (2008), Merrilees *et al.* (2009), Zenker (2009), Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012)
Local Communities	Preference to local needs, involving residents in creating the city's brand	Anholt (2006), Trueman and Cornelius (2006), Kavaratzis (2008)
Synergies	Obtaining agreement and support of all relevant stakeholders	Rainisto (2003), Trueman and Cornelius (2006), Anholt (2006), Kavaratzis (2008)
Infrastructure	Providing the basic needs to deliver on the expectations created by the brand	Rainisto (2003), Trueman and Cornelius (2006), Anholt (2006), Kavaratzis (2008), Merrilees *et al.* (2009), Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012)
Cityscape	Skill to build an environment to represent the city	Rainisto (2003), Anholt (2006), Trueman and Cornelius (2006), Kavaratzis (2008), Merrilees *et al.* (2009), Zenker (2009), Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012)
Opportunities	Opportunities available to residents	Rainisto (2003), Anholt (2006), Trueman and Cornelius (2006), Kavaratzis (2008), Zenker (2009), Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012)
Communication	Intentional communication to residents	Rainisto (2003), Anholt (2006), Trueman and Cornelius (2006), Kavaratzis (2008)
Business	Business-specific opportunities in the city	Anholt (2006), Kavaratzis (2008), Merrilees *et al.* (2009), Zenker (2009), Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012)
Education	Education opportunities available in the city	Anholt (2006), Merrilees *et al.* (2009), Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012)
Housing	Extent to which the city meets the housing expectations of residents	Anholt (2006), Zenker (2009), Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012)

Table 1.3: Summary of city branding constructs (cont.)

City branding constructs	Essence of the construct	Sources
Leisure	Leisure activities offered in the city	Anholt (2006), Kavaratzis (2008), Merrilees *et al.* (2009), Zenker (2009), Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012)
Medical care	Medical care facilities and services offered in the city	Anholt (2006), Merrilees *et al.* (2009), Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012)
Safety	Safety of the city	Anholt (2006), Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012)
Shopping	Shopping facilities available in the city	Merrilees *et al.* (2009), Zenker (2009), Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012)
Social interactions	Social interactions possible in the city	Anholt (2006), Trueman and Cornelius (2006), Merrilees *et al.* (2009)

1.4 Problem statement

Based on the information mentioned, the following is evident:

- The manner in which places are branded has changed significantly, not only from the supply side, which is the projection of identities, but also from the demand side, which is the perception of images (Govers, 2009:4).
- Given the global competition faced by cities in both external and domestic markets, the application of branding methods is more frequently used by cities (Hanna & Rowley, 2007:61).
- Cities are branded and rebranded in order to enhance their position as leisure attractions, business and tourism destinations as well as places to study or reside in (Parkerson & Saunders, 2004:242).
- People can now choose between cities to determine which one will best satisfy their needs and wants. Therefore, city branding has become crucial to turn cities into places where people want to live, work and visit (Hanna & Rowley, 2011:459).

- It is important for political and business leaders of cities to understand their brand and how this brand is perceived by potential visitors, investors, customers and future citizens (Anholt, 2006:18).

- A more focused and better understanding of customers (i.e. residents) can enable cities to compile a more effective and targeted approach to attract potential customers (residents) to their cities (Braun, 2008:46).

- From an extensive literature search, it is evident that the current academic applications of city branding within a South African context are limited.

The problem statement for this study can, therefore, be summarised as follows:

Cities are faced with increased competition to attract and retain residents. Internationally, city branding has evolved and is being applied by more and more cities to differentiate their positions as the place to stay and live. In South Africa, the academic research and application of city branding is limited. Evidently, there is a need for a more academic approach towards city branding and compiling a framework that can be practically implemented by cities. Such a framework would enable local government and marketers to better understand residents in terms of which city branding factors are most important, as well as enabling them to measure the performance of the city in terms of these city branding factors.

The next section will discuss the primary and secondary objectives of the study.

1.5 Primary objective

The primary objective of this study is to develop a city branding framework for selected cities in the North West province.

1.6 Secondary objectives

To support the primary objective, the following secondary objectives are formulated:

(1) To provide a theoretical overview of marketing, with a specific focus on place and city marketing

(2) To provide a theoretical overview of branding, including place, city and corporate branding

(3) To conduct factor analysis to reduce the theoretically determined factors of the city branding construct and to confirm the factors extracted

(4) To measure the residents' level of experience of the respective city branding factors

(5) To measure the importance of the city branding factors among residents

(6) To present an importance–performance matrix of the city branding factors

1.7 Research methodology

The following section gives a brief outline of the research methodology for this study.

1.7.1 Literature review

The literature review for this study will be based on information obtained from various scientific journals, articles, books and research documents.

The databases used for this study include:

- SACat: National catalogue of books and journals in South Africa
- SA ePublications: South African journals
- EBSCOhost: International journals on Academic Search Premier, Business Source Premier, Communication and Mass Media Complete and EconLit
- Emerald: International journals
- ScienceDirect: International journals
- ProQuest: International dissertations in full text
- Internet: Google Scholar

1.7.2 Empirical investigation

The empirical investigation of this study aims to achieve the primary and secondary objectives supplied above and includes a short discussion of the research design, target population, sampling, data collection and data analysis.

1.7.3 Research design

A research design can be defined as the structure or plan for achieving the market research project and includes the methods needed to obtain the information needed to solve the market research problems (Malhotra, 2010:102). A research design can be classified into three basic types namely exploratory, descriptive and causal research or a combination of the different types (Churchill *et al.*, 2010:79; Feinberg *et al.*, 2013:54).

According to Feinberg *et al.* (2013:55), the aim of *exploratory research* is to enable problem recognition and definition, thus narrowing down the many possibilities. Exploratory research is generally unstructured and informal in nature, with the aim of collecting background information about a subject (Burns & Bush, 2014:101). Techniques of exploratory research include expert surveys, case studies and qualitative research (Malhotra, 2010:104).

On the other hand, the aim of *descriptive research* is to describe market features (Malhotra, 2010:104) and answer questions like who, what, where, when and how (Burns & Bush, 2014:103). Techniques for descriptive research include quantitative analyses, surveys and panels (Malhotra, 2010:104).

Causal research is concerned with determining the cause-and-effect relationships operating in the marketing systems (Churchill *et al.*, 2010:79; Feinberg *et al.*, 2013:59). Churchill *et al.* (2010:79) state that techniques for causal studies normally include experiments, as they are best suited to determining the cause and effect.

A descriptive research design was used for this study, as the study aims to develop a city branding framework for selected cities in the North West province.

1.7.4 Types of data sources and data collection method

According to Burns and Bush (2014:30), researchers need to identify the type and sources of data they are going to use to solve the problem statement and related research objectives. Two types of data can be distinguished, namely primary and secondary data. Primary data refers to data which are collected specifically for the purpose of a particular research project, whereas secondary data refers to data which have previously been collected for other research projects (Burns & Bush, 2014:122).

With reference to the data collection methods, two types of data collection methods exist, namely qualitative and quantitative data collection. Qualitative data collection can be described as unstructured and exploratory in nature, involving the collection, analysis and interpretation of data by observing what people do and say (Burns & Bush, 2014:146; Malhotra, 2010:73). These authors mention that quantitative data collection involves the management of a set of structured questions with predetermined response options where some form of statistical analysis is used to calculate the data collected.

A survey is a method of collecting quantitative data and involves the interviewing of a large number of respondents using a predetermined questionnaire (Burns & Bush, 2014:174). Using a questionnaire to collect data has various advantages, which include the standardisation of questions (by means of identical wording and scales used), ease of administration, ease of analysis and the ability to obtain unseen information (Burns & Bush, 2014:173; Malhotra, 2010:211).

This study collected primary data by means of a quantitative data collection method, using a structured questionnaire. Secondary data was also collected by means of a literature review.

1.7.5 Questionnaire design

According to (Malhotra, 2010:335), a questionnaire can be defined as a formal set of questions with the aim of obtaining information from respondents.

The questionnaire for this study commenced with a preamble, which informed the respondents of the nature of the study and included instructions for completing the questionnaire, the time it was expected to take, and the respondents' rights.

The questionnaire consisted of three sections:

- **Screening questions** – These questions were used to ensure that the correct respondents were being questioned. Town of residence, age and duration of residency were requested.
- **Section A: Demographics** – This section included questions to obtain demographic information about the respondent in respect of gender, level of education, ethnicity and income.
- **Section B: Level of experience** – This section measured the respondents' level of experience with the various city branding factors. A set of statements was compiled using the existing frameworks of city branding mentioned in the literature. The respondents used a 5-point Likert-type scale to indicate their level of agreement with each of the statements. A Likert scale is a type of interval scale frequently used by researchers whereby

respondents are requested to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement on a symmetrical agree–disagreement scale for each statement (Burns & Bush, 2014:208).

- **Section C: Level of importance –** This section measured the respondents' sense of the importance of the city branding factors. The respondents were asked to select the five most important factors and to rate them in order of importance from most to least important.

The screening questions, section A and section C used nominal and ordinal measures, which can be defined as the use of labels that possess only the characteristics of descriptions (Burns & Bush, 2014:205). Section B included interval measures, which allow the researcher to rank order the responses (Burns & Bush, 2014:205).

1.7.5.1 Pre-testing the questionnaire

According to Churchill *et al.* (2010:311), a pre-test of the questionnaire is essential. A pre-test is the testing of the questionnaire in a small pilot study to determine how well the questionnaire works and to eliminate any potential problems (Churchill *et al.*, 2010:311; Malhotra, 2010:354). A pre-test of 30 respondents was conducted in Potchefstroom to ensure that the reliability and validity of the questionnaire were satisfactory, to smooth out any problems that might occur and to ensure that the interviewers were able to conduct the research. The responses of the pre-test were coded and analysed before commencing with the rest of the fieldwork. The questionnaire used for the pre-test is included in Annexure A, and the changes made to the final questionnaire after the pre-test was conducted are given in chapter 4.

1.7.6 Fieldwork

Data collection involves the use of some kind of field force, where fieldworkers collect data either in the field or from an office (Malhotra, 2010:434). For this study, marketing honours students of the North-West University were used to collect the data. The fieldworkers made use of their own network to select the respondents, but intensive training was provided to ensure that they understood the quotas to be realised for this study.

A total of seven fieldworkers were used for this study.

1.7.7 Target population

A population can be defined as the entire group under study, all the elements before selection or sampling takes place (Burns & Bush, 2014:238; Feinberg *et al.*, 2013:301).

For this study, the population included all residents above the age of 18 who had resided in Potchefstroom, Klerksdorp and Rustenburg for more than 2 years.

For this study, a period of 2 years were selected to ensure that the respondents have spent enough time in the city to be able to rate and rank the different branding factors included in the questionnaire.

1.7.8 Sampling method

Two types of sampling methods can be distinguished, namely probability and non-probability sampling.

Probability sampling includes samples in which elements of the population have a known chance of being selected. Probability sampling techniques include random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling and cluster sampling (Burns & Bush, 2014:242; Malhotra, 2010:376).

Non-probability sampling is when the chances of selecting elements from the population into the sample are not known. This type of sampling relies on the judgement of researchers rather than chance to select sample elements. Non-probability sampling techniques include convenience, judgemental, quota and snowball sampling (Malhotra, 2010:376; Burns & Bush, 2014:242).

The sample plan for this study consists of residents in three major cities in the North West province, namely Potchefstroom, Rustenburg and Klerksdorp. The North West province is known as the platinum province due to the value of the metal it mines. Most economic activity is concentrated in the southern region of the province, between Potchefstroom and Klerksdorp, and also in the Rustenburg area, where more than 80% of the province’s economic activity takes place (SouthAfrica.info, 2012). Mining is a key contributor to the North West economy and currently contributes more than a fifth of the revenue of the total South African mining industry (SouthAfrica.info, 2012). Based on this information and the fact that North West is a continuously developing province in South Africa, it provides an excellent target population for this study.

For the purpose of this study, non-probability sampling was used, as there is no sampling frame.

Malhotra (2010:380) states that quota sampling and convenience sampling are two types of non-probability sampling. The author indicates that quota sampling consists of the development of control categories like gender, age or ethnicity whereas convenience sampling is the selection of respondents based on the convenience of interviewers (Burns & Bush, 2014:254).

This study made use of a multi-stage sampling procedure which included quota and convenience sampling. City of residence and gender were used as the control categories for this study.

1.7.9 Sample size

The sample size refers to the number of elements to be included in the study (Malhotra, 2010:374). The sample size for this study is 600 respondents, which is based on the suggestion of Malhotra (2010:375). The author suggests that for problem-solving research, such as this study, the minimum sample size is 200 with a typical range of between 300 and 500 respondents. The total sample size of 600 respondents for this study was divided into equal quotas for the three target population cities, so that 200 questionnaires would be completed for each city.

Table 1.3 provides a summary of the sample size for this study, including the quota sample per city.

Table 1.3: Sample size

City	Total sample	Gender	
		Female	Male
Rustenburg	200	100	100
Klerksdorp	200	100	100
Potchefstroom	200	100	100

1.7.10 Data analysis

After the collection of the data, data analysis was performed. According to Burns and Bush (2014:317), data analysis can be defined as the process of explaining a dataset by calculating a number of statistics that characterise various aspects of the data. Feinberg *et al.* (2013:31) mention that data analysis must be coherent with the requirements of the study. **This study made use of the services supplied by Statistical Consultation Services at the North-West University, Potchefstroom Campus to assist with the data analysis.**

Descriptive analysis was conducted to summarise the basic results of the sample, which included the calculation of the means, frequency distributions and standard deviations of the sample (Burns & Bush, 2014:317).

Factor analysis is a general term used for the process of data reduction and summarisation (Malhotra, 2010:636). It is somewhat similar to multiple regression analysis whereby each variable is conveyed as a linear combination of underlying factors. According to Malhotra, 2010:636, factor analysis can be used to: 1) identify underlying factors which explain the correlations among the set of variables; 2) identify a new, reduced set of uncorrelated variables; 3) identify a reduced set of noticeable variables for a larger set. **For this study, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were executed** to determine the underlying factors of the city branding constructs. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was also used to determine the validity of the measurement instrument.

Non-parametric tests, Mann-Whitney and Kruskal-Wallis tests were performed to determine if the two groups (gender and city of residency) differed in terms of their answers to the different city branding constructs and to compare two means when the scores for both constructs were provided by the same sample (Churchill *et al.*, 2010:460).

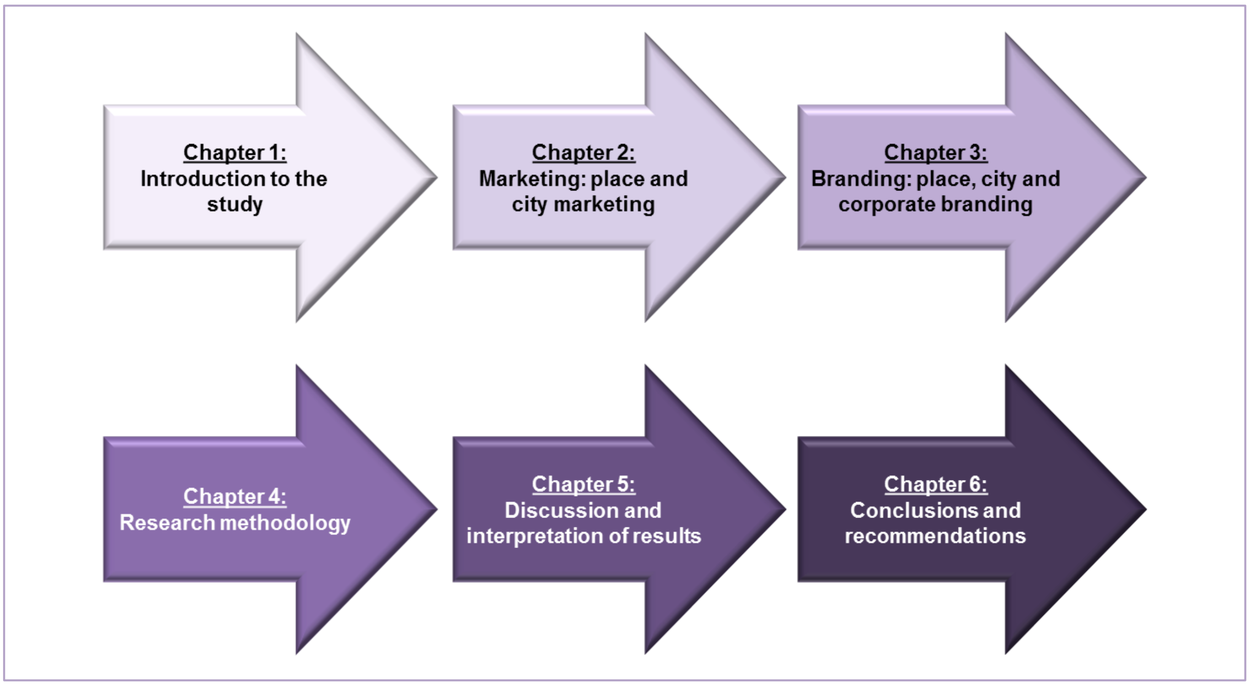
To develop the importance-performance matrixes for the study, a sensitivity analysis was performed to test the effect of any changes made to the data analysis method (Thabane *et al.*, 2013:2). **For the purpose of this study, the sensitivity analysis was performed using rank aggregation methods to calculate the importance scores of the factors, and the level of experience was used to indicate the performance level of the different factors.**

1.8 Outline of proposed chapters

The purpose of this section is to provide the chapter outlines of the study and to give a short summary of what each chapter covers.

Figure 1.1 is a schematic illustration of the chapter structure for this study.

Figure 1.1: Outline of proposed chapters



CHAPTER 2: MARKETING: PLACE AND CITY MARKETING

2.1 Introduction

The marketing of towns and cities has experienced increased attention during the preceding 20 to 30 years as both a practice and a subject of academics (Warnaby & Medway, 2013:345). According to Eshuis *et al.* (2013:507), place marketing has become a strategy widely implemented by municipalities and regional establishments with reference to cities, towns and regions. Places have long experienced the need to differentiate themselves from each other in order to affirm their individuality and attractive characteristics which might assist them to achieve various economic, political and socio-psychological objectives (Dhamija *et al.*, 2011:96).

According to Van Mierlo (2014:130), cities have to put together a profile of themselves to attract attention and distinguish them from other cities. As indicated by this author, by attracting residents, businesses and tourists, a city can increase tax revenue, employment and income for small businesses.

The aim of this chapter is to provide insights into the marketing domain, including place and city marketing. The chapter commences with the definitions and key concepts of marketing, place marketing, city marketing and the marketing concept. That section is followed by an examination of the term "customer", with reference to the identification of residents in cities as well as a discussion of the underlying theory of consumer behaviour and its influence on cities and places. The marketing strategy is discussed next by providing the underlying theory of segmentation, targeting and positioning with specific reference to the marketing mix. The final section of this chapter includes a discussion of the governance process, an explanation of the transition from city marketing to city branding, and a conclusion for this chapter.

2.2 Definitions and key concepts

Definitions of key concepts are vital to an understanding of their use. Therefore the following section offers definitions of the terms "marketing", "city marketing" and "place marketing" followed by a short discussion of the marketing concept and societal marketing.

2.2.1 Marketing

Since the inception of the term "marketing" in the English language in 1561, there have been many marketing definitions during the last few decades (Gamble *et al.*, 2011:227). The first official definition was supplied by the American Marketing Association in 1960, as "the performance of business actions that direct the flow of goods and services from producer to consumer or user" (AMA, 1960:15). Kotler (1967:12) started to emphasis the individual functions within a firm when he mentioned that marketing is the analysing, organising, planning and control of a company's customer – affecting resources, policies and activities with a view to satisfying the needs and wants of chosen customer groups at a profit.

A definition given during the 1970s was that of Star *et al.* (1977:2) which stated that marketing is a process through which a business, institution or organisation selects targeted customers, evaluates their needs and wants and manages their resources to satisfy those customers' needs and wants. As mentioned by Gamble *et al.* (2011:231), the definition given by Star *et al.* was more refined in the sense that marketing was represented as a process rather than a combination of activities.

In 1985, the American Marketing Association revisited their 1960 definition by expanding the definition to assert that marketing is "the process of planning and executing the concept, pricing, promotion and distribution of ideas, goods and services to create exchanges that satisfy individual and organisational objectives" (AMA, 1985:1). According to Lynch (1994:529), the concept of relationship marketing continued during the 1990s, which is evident by the marketing definition provided by Cronroos (1997), which argued that marketing is used to create, continue and improve relationships with customers and other partners, earning revenue, so that the goals of the parties involved are met by a mutual exchange and fulfilment of promises.

The American Marketing Association amended their 1985 definition in 2004, with the focus on creating and delivering value by means of customer relationships, replacing the previous focus of exchange (Sheth & Uslay, 2007:302). Kotler *et al.* (2009:7) supplied an amended definition in 2009: "a societal process by which individuals and groups obtain what they need and want through creating, offering, and freely exchanging products and services of value with others".

More recently Kotler and Armstrong (2014:24) have defined marketing as a managerial and social process whereby individuals and organisations obtain what they need and want by creating manageable and profitable consumer relationships.

2.2.2 Place marketing

One of the first definitions of place marketing was supplied by O'Leary and Iredale (1976:156), as the activities designed to create favourable attitudes and behaviour toward geographic locations. Kotler *et al.* (1993:8) presented a fresh approach called the "strategic place marketing" concept, which is used to revitalise towns and cities by designing a community to satisfy the needs and wants of its key constituents. Kotler (1999:125) indicated that place marketing contains mainly four activities:

- the development of a strong and attractive positioning and image of the place
- the establishment of appealing incentives for current and potential buyers and users of services and products
- the delivering of a place's products and services in an efficient and accessible way
- the promotion of the attractiveness, benefits and distinctive advantages of a place

In 2003, Kotler (2003:97) provided a definition of place marketing that combined key elements of traditional marketing with places: "place marketing is the designing of a place to satisfy the needs of its target markets and succeeds when citizens and businesses are satisfied with their community". In 2012, Niedomysl and Jonasson (2012:225) defined place marketing as the measures taken by shareholders selected to manage a place to improve the competitive image, with the specific aim of attracting capital (businesses, tourists, residents and investments).

A more recent definition supplied by Eshuis *et al*. (2013:508) states that place marketing can be defined as the application of marketing instruments to geographical locations such as nations, cities, regions or communities. Place marketing is thus more than just developing favourable images and communicating them to target groups; it is also about satisfying customer needs and wants.

2.2.3 City marketing

In 1988, Ashworth and Voogd published one of the first articles in the field of city marketing called "Marketing the city: concepts, processes and Dutch applications" (Ashworth & Voogd, 1988:66). In this study they attempt to define the term "city marketing" and its significance, examining how the term can be applied to the field of public urban planning and developing a new philosophy and methodology for the public planning of cities. According to them (Ashworth & Voogd, 1988:68), the concept of city marketing can be described as the process whereby the demands of the targeted customers are related as closely as possible to the urban activities so as to maximise the efficient social and economic functioning of the area in accordance with the established goals.

The definition of city marketing now more commonly used in academic studies is that by Braun (2008:43), who defines it as the organised use of marketing tools supported by a shared customer-orientated philosophy, to create, communicate, deliver and exchange urban offerings that have value for the city's customers and the city's community.

It can therefore be concluded that a key component in all three definitions is to satisfy the needs and wants of customers and creating value by means of building mutually beneficial relationships. Thus, traditional marketing instruments can be applied to places and also cities. From the preceding sections of place marketing and city marketing, it can also be noted, that the main difference between the concepts is that place marketing focussed on geographical locations which also include cities whereas city marketing are very focussed on creating value for specifically the cities' customers (residents) by applying marketing principles.

The marketing concept is a suitable indicator to apply to a city environment, together with the traditional marketing instruments, and is discussed next.

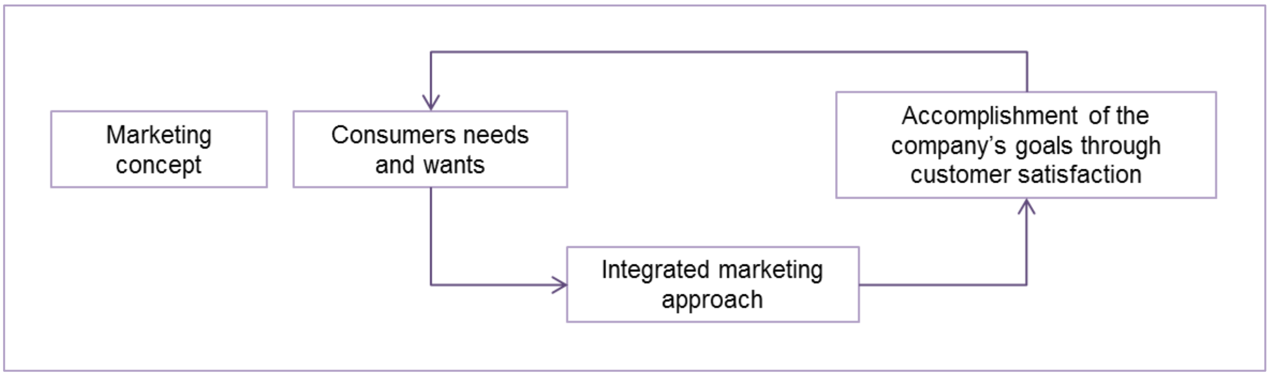
2.2.4 Marketing and societal concepts

One of the early marketing concept definitions was offered by Felton (1959:55), who defined it as the corporate state of mind that insists on the integration and coordination of all the marketing functions together with other corporate functions to reach the objective of producing maximum long-range corporate profits. More recently, the basic assumption of the marketing concept is that, in order for a business to be successful, a business usually has to determine the needs and wants of a specific target group and then deliver the desired products and services to satisfy these needs better than the competition (Armstrong *et al.*, 2012:13; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:5). According to Armstrong *et al.* (2012:13), instead of a product-centred concept of "make and sell", the marketing concept is a customer-centred concept of "sense and respond" whereby the task is not to find the right consumers but to find the right products for the company's consumers.

Van den Berg and Braun (1999:995) mentioned that the marketing of cities is not only about its organisation but also about translating the marketing concept to cities, recognising that city marketing resembles the marketing concept, being a long-term process intended to satisfy the needs and wants of a city's different target groups (Hospers, 2010:190).

Figure 2.1 illustrates the marketing concept, which states that customer' needs and wants are central to the accomplishment of a company's goal for customer satisfaction.

Figure 2.1: Illustration of the marketing concept



Source: Adapted from Bickhoff *et al*. (2014:10).

According to Kotler and Armstrong (2014:33), the societal marketing concept investigates the possible conflict between consumers' short-term needs and their long-term needs. The societal marketing concept entails that a marketing strategy should maintain and improve both the consumer's and the society's well-being, which creates the need for sustainable marketing (Armstrong *et al.*, 2012:14). Braun (2008:41, 43), states that the definition of city marketing fits in well with the societal marketing concept, as a city's objectives are achieved by identifying the needs and wants of the its target groups and better satisfying these needs and wants than the competing cities. It can be noted, therefore, that the societal marketing concept is a suitable basis for city marketing.

It can be concluded that the marketing concept puts the needs and wants of the customers first, with societal marketing also taking into account the social effects of the society to create sustainable marketing. It is evident that the customer is a key element in marketing, and for this reason the next section deals with the customer in the marketing process.

2.3 The customer

According to Jobber and Ellis-Chadwick (2013:116), a customer can be defined as an individual who buys products and services for personal usage. For a better understanding of the customer, Jobber and Ellis-Chadwick (2013:116) provide five questions to be answered:

- Who is important in the buying decision?
- How is the purchase made?
- What are the selected criteria used for making the purchase?
- Where is the purchase made?

- When is the purchase made?

Jobber and Ellis-Chadwick (2013:116) state that these questions define key aspects of behaviour, and understanding these aspects is important for the different levels of the marketing planning process.

According to Hospers (2011:371), places have at least three types of consumers: 1) the inhabitants looking for a place to live, work and relax; 2) firms looking for a place to locate to, conduct business in, and employ employees; and 3) visitors seeking leisure and tourism opportunities. Within these target groups there are also large differences in terms of age, lifestyle, income and people's knowledge of the place. The author states that place marketing begins with the customer and is more than an activity which can simply be left to the local communication department; it is rather an umbrella activity which co-ordinates the different policies from the perspective of businesses, residents and visitors (Hospers, 2011:371). Eshuis *et al.* (2014:166) suggest that in place marketing it is popular to view residents of a city as consumers whose needs and wants are to be satisfied, rather than as citizens and co-producers.

Braun (2008:51) states that all people and organisations within a city are important for its functioning. This author gives four core customer groups within a city, namely residents, visitors, companies and investors. This study focuses only on residents, so only residents will be discussed. Residents of a city look for a place to live, a place where their home is, their work environment, a place to raise children, to shop and take part in sports, or to study and be with friends and family (Braun, 2008:54). The author states that a customer-based view recognises that residents request attractive living environments that satisfy their needs and wants.

Table 2.1 shows the attractiveness of the living environment for residents in a city.

Table 2.1: Attractiveness of the living environment

Home and direct environment
Availability of employment
Availability of education facilities
Availability of leisure facilities
Availability of family and friends
Availability of other facilities

Source: Adapted from Braun (2008:55).

2.3.1 Identification of the residents of a place/city

According to Braun *et al.* (2013:2), the definitions of place marketing emphasise two very important points, namely 1) that even though economic intention is an aim of place marketing, increasing social functions like place identification or satisfaction is also a major aim of place marketing, and 2) place marketing is a customer orientated approach which should integrate all customers within a city.

According to Braun *et al.* (2013:4-6), residents play the following four distinct roles within a city:

- target group
- integrated party of a place brand
- ambassadors for their place brand
- citizens

Due to the roles residents play, there is the need to integrate residents into the city marketing process, which will take place only if residents identify themselves with the place they are living in (Braun *et al.*, 2010:2). These authors define the identification of a place's or city's residents as the creation of a meaningful link between the self and the target for identification; this link includes an integration of attributes of the identification target and the self-concept (Braun *et al.*, 2010:2). Identification with a city allows the resident to feel truly at home with the place, not only in a physical sense but also in the figurative sense of feeling a strong connection between the self and the place on the level of emotions, cognition and values (Zenker & Petersen, 2014:717).

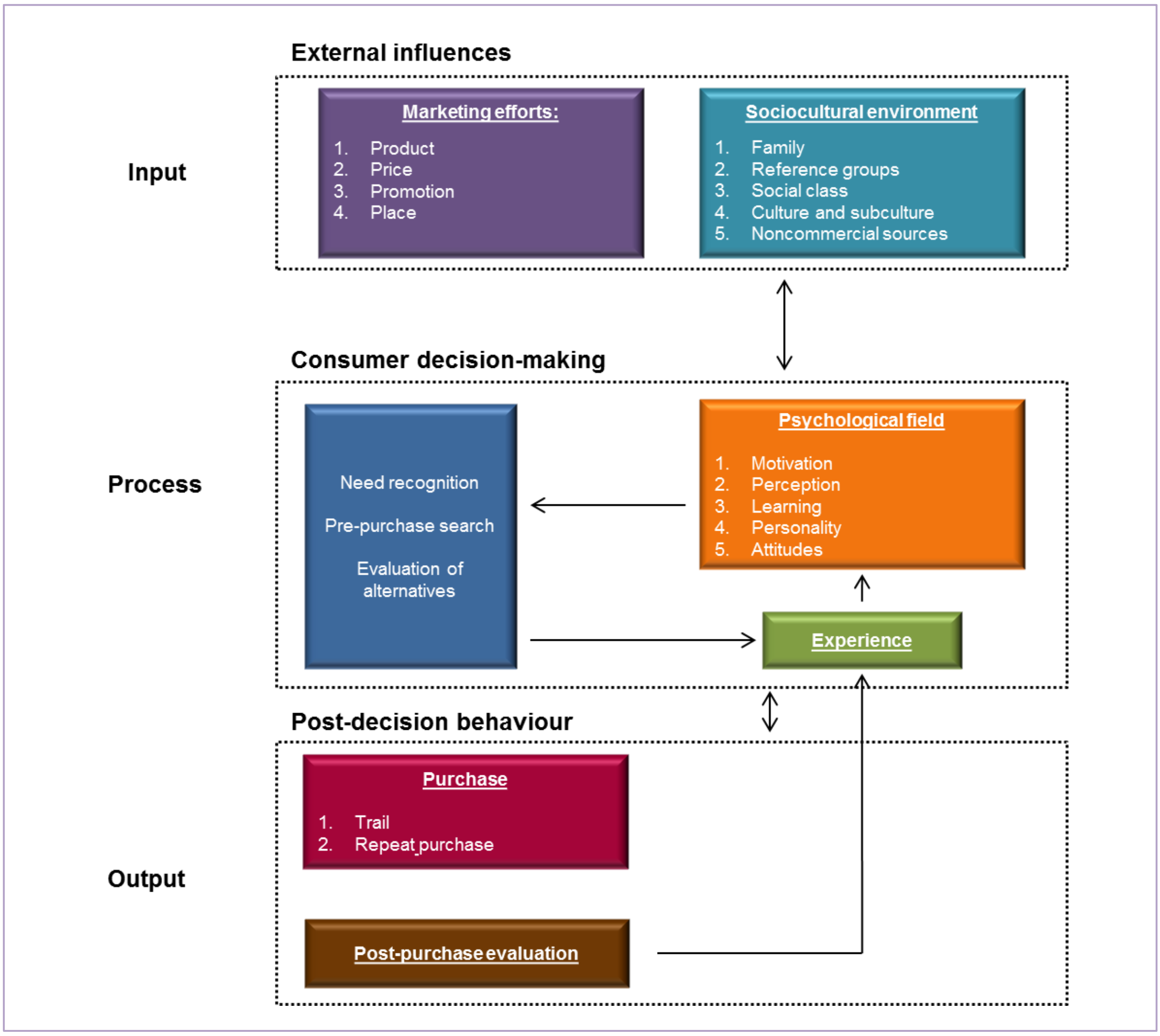
2.3.1.1 Consumer behaviour

Consumer behaviour can be defined as the actions performed by consumers when searching for, purchasing, using, evaluating and disposing of products and services (Kotler & Armstrong, 2014:172; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:4). Consumer behaviour concentrate on how consumers or households make decisions to spend their available money, time and effort on consumption-related products and services (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:4).

According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2014:6), marketers have discovered that consumers are highly complex individuals, who are subject to a variety of psychological and social needs quite different from their more basic functional needs. These authors noted that due to the fact that needs and wants differ significantly between different consumer segments, the marketing of an organisation's products and services should be adapted to the different needs and wants of the markets in order to better satisfy these different needs (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:6).

Figure 2.2 shows the simplified consumer decision-making process, which includes three stages: the input stage, the process stage and the output stage.

Figure 2.2: Model of consumer decision-making



Source: Adapted from Schiffman and Kanuk (2014:16) and Schiffman and Wisenblit (2015:48).

2.3.1.1.1 Model of consumer decision-making: input stage

The input stage of the model includes two main sources of information:

- the marketing efforts, which include the 4 Ps of marketing

- the external sociological stimuli, which include family, reference groups, social class, culture and non-commercial sources

The marketing efforts, which include the 4 Ps, are discussed in section 2.4.2 of this chapter. The external sociological stimuli of family, social class and culture will be discussed next, with specific reference to city and place marketing. After an extensive literature search on the influence of reference groups and non-commercial sources as external sociological stimuli, it was found that there is no relevance to place and city marketing, so these stimuli will not be discussed in further detail.

Family

A family can be defined as a societal group that is related by blood, adoption, foster care or the ties of marriage, civil union or cohabitation, and goes beyond a particular physical residence (Department of Social Development, 2012:3). Many factors associated with family lifestyles impact on consumer behaviour, and these spending patterns have a direct effect on the consumer behaviour of South African families used by marketers to market their products and services to specific target markets (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:265).

Bourne (1981:137), in his book *The geography of housing*, mentioned that housing stock has a spatial imprint that correlates with advances in the residents' life cycle: normally a new household would seek rental accommodation in the city centre, then move into newer neighbourhoods when children arrive, and from there move into more mature suburbs as the family matures. Hedman (2013:32) points out that people refrain from moving away from family but rather tend to move to cities or countries where they do have family and friends. The author also mentions that family members could offer potential support and information or affect the mover's ideas about the neighbourhood or city. The residential location of family members, like parents and siblings who are outside the household, influences the choice of residential environment by means of socialisations and therefore the wish to maintain close family ties (Blaauboer, 2011:1647). Much residential relocation between cities has to do with family life. For young adults, relocation usually signifies the beginning of their own household, whereas couples normally move around the birth of their children with the aim of adjusting their housing situation to the new demands of more space and a child-friendly environment (Mulder & Cooke, 2009:300). As households move through their life cycle, their needs and wants change, and residential preferences adjust to accommodate these changes (Lawton *et al.*, 2013:48).

Social class

Most societies have some form of social class structure, which can be explained as the society's relatively permanent and ordered groupings whose members share similar values, interests and behaviours (Kotler & Armstrong, 2014:162). According to these authors, the major social classes consist of:

- lower class
- working class
- middle class
- upper class

Social class is important in terms of consumer behaviour as it provides a broad picture of the values, attitudes and behaviours that have an influence on the development of a marketing strategy, specifically in terms of targeting and segmenting markets (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:282, 298).

In terms of cities, a concept called "creative class" was developed by Richard Florida in his book *The rise of the creative class* in 2002 (Florida, 2002:3). According to Florida (2002:8), the distinguishing feature of this creative class is that its members engage in work whose function is to create meaningful new forms, and it includes scientists, engineers, professors, poets, novelists, artists and also opinion makers. Florida's creative class consists of two groups:

- the super-creative core, which consists of people working in computing and mathematics, architecture, engineering, science, social science and education
- the creative professionals, which include people working in management, business, finance, legal professionals, healthcare workers, and sales (Florida, 2002:328).

It is evident from the section above that family, social class and culture influence city marketing efforts and can therefore assist cities with the development of city marketing strategies. Strategies based on Florida's creative class theory are intended to attract a wide spectrum of professionals with high-level knowledge and skills. In order to attract these people, cities must foster a cultural environment rich in diversity and tolerance, high technology and facilities which ensure a high quality of life (Vicari Haddock, 2010:29).

Culture

According to Babin and Harris (2014:170), consumer culture can be defined as the normally held societal beliefs that define what is socially satisfying. The authors argue that technology has reduced the geographic barriers which prevent consumers from conducting business in other parts of the world, and that culture has provided guidance as to the appropriate actions in many consumers' situations.

It is mentioned by Brizotti-Pasquotto and Medrano (2014:33) that during the last decades culture has been used as one of the key urban interventions for planning and policy strategies in city marketing. The authors state that culture is used as an important tool in city marketing to enhance the competitiveness and urban image of a city. Meyer (1999:36) refers to the term "cultural urbanism", which is the development of recreational and cultural activities such as museums, galleries, theatres and festivals which can be used in city marketing to promote a city.

Culture gives place authorities tangible and manageable tools in the form of specific artists or events organised around a particular artist, through which culture connects to the leisure and entertainment characteristics of a city (Kavaratzis, 2011:337).

2.3.1.1.2 Model of consumer decision-making: process stage

As indicated in Figure 2.2 the process stage of the consumer behaviour model focuses on how customers make decisions. The psychological field includes motivation, perception, learning, personality and attitudes, which affect how the external influences in the input stage affect the need recognition, the pre-purchase search and the evaluation of alternatives for the consumer (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:47). When working through the literature of consumer behaviour and the relevance to city marketing and place marketing, it was discovered that only customer perceptions, as an element of the psychological field, is mentioned in the literature as having an influence on cities and places. For this reason, only customer perceptions will be discussed in the next section.

Consumer perceptions

Perception can be defined as the process by which an individual chooses, organises and interprets stimuli into a meaningful and coherent picture of the world (Kotler & Armstrong, 2014:172; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:132). Two individuals might be exposed to the same stimuli, but the way in which they choose, organise and interpret the stimuli is an individual process which depends on the individual's needs, values and expectations (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:132). According to Kotler and Armstrong (2014:173), people can have different perceptions of the same stimuli due to the following three perceptual processes:

- selective attention, which occurs when people have the inclination to screen out most of the information they receive
- selective distortion, which describes the interpreting of information in a way that supports what the individual already believes
- selective retention, which means that consumers are likely to remember the good points made about the brand which they favour, and forget about the good points made about the competing brand

Braun (2008:64) mentions that perception is vital in the context of city marketing, where the customer (resident) of a city collects and interprets information about the environment. According to Braun *et al.* (2013:4), the perception of a city can differ considerably given the various target groups' different perspectives and interest; therefore place branding should focus more on the city brand perception of its different stakeholders and develop strategies for cities on how to build an advantageous place brand.

According to Zenker and Petersen (2014:715), three concepts plays a role in the relationship between a person and their environment. The first concept is place identity, which is the identity of the place itself; the second concept is the identification with the place, which is the incorporation of the place into one's personal identity; and third is place attachment, signifying feeling bonded to a place. A city's image acts as a stimulus in the perceptual process of consumers, and thus a city can act on the residents' perception of the city by improving its physical image, which could increase the city's popularity (Balencourt & Curado Zafra, 2012:13). In terms of customer's perceptions, building the appropriate perception of a city is crucial in city marketing, taking into consideration that different target groups might have different perceptions of the city.

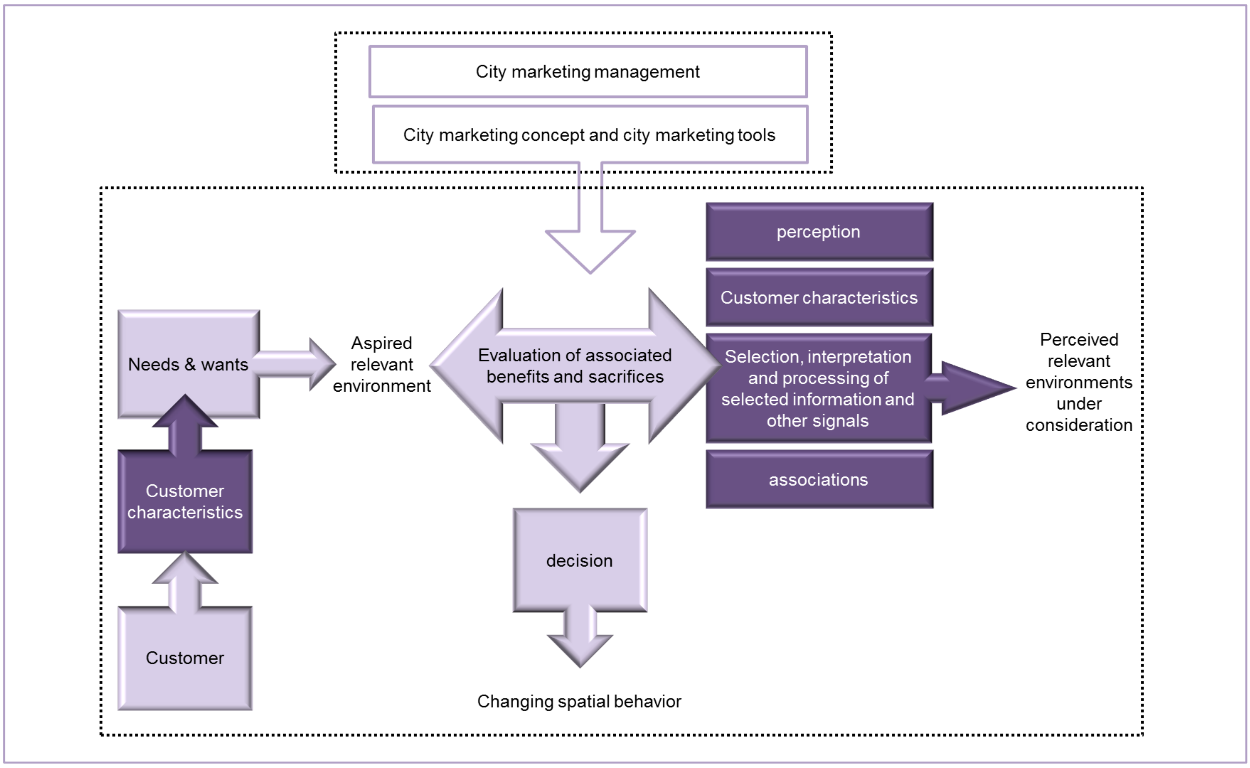
2.3.1.1.3 City's consumer behaviour framework

With reference to a city's customer (resident), the customer's behavioural actions commence with the customer's needs and wants, which are directed to the aspired relevant environment. All known benefits and sacrifices are used to compare the relevant living environment with the aspired living environment (Braun, 2008:61). The customer's decision on the relevant living environment which best matches their aspirations is determined by the outcome of this evaluation (Braun, 2008:61). The author mentions that during this evaluation process the customer evaluates all the recognised factors, which include positive factors like the availability of educational facilities and negative factors or sacrifices like the high price of housing (Braun, 2008:62).

To gain insights into customer behaviour and specifically the influence of city marketing on customer behaviour, Braun (2008:62) recommends that a customer's characteristics should also be taken into account. These characteristics include the basic element of market segmentation (refer to section 2.4) as well as the composition of households, age of the customer, household income, race, religion, family and educational backgrounds. Braun (2008:62) mentions that these customer characteristics have a profound influence on the needs and wants of customers and therefore also on their aspired environment.

Braun (2008:68) suggests that city marketing has an effect on the decision-making process of a city's potential customer, as shown in Figure 2.3.

Figure 2.3: City's customer behaviour framework



Source: Adapted from Braun (2008:68).

The framework shown in Figure 2.3 indicates that the customer characteristics mentioned have an influence on the needs and wants of a city's customer (resident) and consequently on the aspired environment of these customers (Braun, 2008:64-65). The author further suggests that perception plays a role in the decision-making of a resident as well as the associations with aspects of the relevant environment, and it is therefore included in the framework.

To achieve the marketing objectives set by a firm or city, a marketing strategy needs to be formulated so as to best use the resources available (Hult *et al.*, 2014:42). Consequently, the next section of this chapter supplies the underlying theory of a marketing strategy with reference to cities and places.

2.4 Marketing strategy

A marketing strategy identifies an organisation's target market, the associated marketing mix and bases on which the organisation plans to build a sustainable competitive advantage. A company will therefore plan their marketing mix to realise their marketing objectives, and by using segmentation, targeting and positioning a company chooses which customers to serve and how (Armstrong *et al.*, 2012:54; Grewal & Levy, 2014:31). Figure 2.4 illustrates that the marketing strategy includes segmentation, targeting and positioning to determine the target market whose needs and wants will be satisfied using the marketing mix. In the next section, each of these elements will be discussed in further detail together with the application to place and city marketing.

Figure 2.4: Layout of marketing strategy discussion

Source: Adapted from Hult *et al.* (2014:42) and Kotler and Armstrong (2014:72).

2.4.1 Segmentation, targeting and positioning

According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2014:7), market segmentation is the process of dividing a market into subsets of consumers with shared needs and characteristics. Market segmentation is a commonly used strategic marketing tool as not only organisations focus their marketing activities on targeted segments but also academics, who use marketing segmentation to develop knowledge (Dolnicar & Leisch, 2013:207). A segmentation strategy commences with the selection of the base(s) which represent the core attributes of a group of existing or potential consumers (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:52). Normally hybrid segmentation is used, which includes attributes from two or more segmentation bases to create a better insight into the specific characteristics of the consumers (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:52). Table 2.2 provides a list of the different segmentation bases to be used in a segmentation strategy.

Table 2.2: Segmentation bases

Segmentation base	Segmentation variables
Consumer-rooted segmentation bases	
Demographic segmentation	Age, gender, life stages, income, education, occupation
Geographic segmentation	Address (region), density of area, climate
Living standard measure	Ownership of selected household items, amenities at house or plot, motor vehicle in household, geographic location
Personality traits	Personality tests
Lifestyles (psychographic segmentation)	Activities, interests, opinions, values and attitudes
Socio-cultural values and beliefs	Sociological (group) and anthropological (cultural) variables
Consumption-specific segmentation bases	
Usage rate segmentation	Usage patterns, awareness status, level of involvement
Usage-situation segmentation	Usage situation
Benefit segmentation	Product and service benefits
Brand loyalty	Consumer behaviour, consumer attitude

Source: Adapted from Schiffman and Kanuk (2014:52).

It can be noted from Table 2.2 that there are two types of segmentation base categories, namely 1) consumer-rooted segmentation bases, which are personal attributes which are evidence-based and can be categorised according to objective criteria and cognitions, and 2) consumption-specific segmentation bases, which are facts about the actual consumption behaviour (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:63).

According to Jobber and Ellis-Chadwick (2013:265), market segmentation assists marketers in understanding the requirements of each segment, thus enabling them to develop tailored marketing mix strategies that meet the needs and wants of the segment. Market segmentation also facilitates differential marketing strategies by enabling the marketer to differentiate their offerings within each segment (Jobber & Ellis-Chadwick, 2013:265). Using market segmentation enables opportunities and threats to be more easily identified by recognising new and under-served market segments which can lead to increased sales and profit for the company (Jobber & Ellis-Chadwick, 2013:265). According to the same authors, the selection of a target market is a three-step process that begins with the understanding of the requirements and characteristics of the individuals, followed by the grouping of individuals according to these requirements, and concluding with the selection of the segments to target (Jobber & Ellis-Chadwick (2013:265).

Customer characteristics are the fundamental element in any segmentation. Relevant customer characteristics of city residents include: 1) household composition, 2) age, 3) income, 4) religion, 5) family ties, 6) educational background, 7) peer groups, and 8) emotional ties with the community. A better understanding of customers enables cities to develop a more targeted approach to appeal to their customers; thus cities that want to attract more residents and keep the existing residents satisfied can be more successful by knowing the preferences of their target groups (Braun, 2008:46, 63). At the 2nd City Branding Symposium in Beijing, China in October 2013, Merrilees, Miller and Shao examined the social inclusiveness in city positioning and concluded that there seems to be a difference in city brand perspective among socio-economic groups. The key findings of this study indicated that more advantaged groups understand and engage with their city’s brand in a more abstract and symbolic way which emphasises nature and social bonding compared to disadvantaged groups (Insch, 2014:250).

Market targeting can be defined as the selection of one or more of the segments identified for the company to pursue (Jobber & Ellis-Chadwick, 2013:281; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:7). The challenge faced by marketers is to select one or more segments to target which will be viable and profitable for the company. To this end a market segment should be 1) identifiable, 2) sizeable, 3) stable and growing, 4) accessible, and 5) consistent with the marketer’s objectives and resources (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:51). According to Jobber and Ellis-Chadwick (2013:285), there are four generic target marketing strategies, which include 1) undifferentiated marketing, where there is a lack of segmentation; 2) differentiated marketing, when segmentation exposes several potential target markets; 3) focused marketing, where a company develops a single marketing mix aimed at one target market; and 4) customised marketing, where individuals are so unique that a separate marketing mix is designed for each customer.

Marketers need to be able to supply their products to clearly defined target groups to be more effective and to deal with the scarce resources of the organisation. Braun (2008:42) states that cities can also define their target groups and develop products for those groups; thus, the essential difference between traditional marketing and city marketing is that cities need to balance the interest of many different target groups, as the exclusion of specific groups is unacceptable (Braun, 2008:42). Cities need to know and understand which people want to live in the city and how public policy can accommodate these visions of urban life. Target marketing is an instrument which can help cities capitalise on their strengths, enhance residential development and revitalise cities throughout the nation (Lang *et al.*, 2014:2). According to Hospers (2010:190) it is crucial for local authorities to be very specific in defining target groups for city marketing as residents and firms differ from visitors, and also within these groups the needs and wants widely differ. Residents are a central target group in place marketing, which means that place marketing addresses the needs and wants of residents, although the content of the strategies is mainly decided by government and corporate companies (Eshuis *et al.*, 2014:166).

Positioning refers to the development of a distinct image for the product or service in the mind of the consumer which will differentiate the offering from competition (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:7). According to these authors, positioning concentrates around two key principles, namely 1) to communicate the benefits of the product and service rather than the features, and 2) to develop a unique selling proposition and communicate it to the consumers (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:7). According to Jobber and Ellis-Chadwick (2013:288), the main objective of positioning is to establish and maintain a distinctive place in the market for a company and its products.

According to Zenker *et al.* (2013:137), the perception of a city's image has a strong effect on the place-to-stay decision; thus a city's image is a valuable asset, as people are willing to pay (sacrifice income) for a good city image. Cities can establish images to be unique, and many cities around the world have been very successful in creating positive images by implementing place marketing strategies (Aksoyla, 2012:77).

Segmenting the residents of a city, targeting them and positioning the correct image are therefore important activities in the marketing of places and cities.

After determining the overall marketing strategy, which includes segmenting the market, developing the target marketing and positioning strategy, and understanding the customer, a company is ready to begin planning the details of the marketing mix (Grewal & Levy, 2014:42; Kotler & Armstrong, 2014:76).

2.4.2 Marketing mix

The marketing mix can be defined as a set of manageable, tactical tools that a firm selects to accomplish the exchange between the firm and the consumer (Armstrong *et al.*, 2012:56; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:7). According to Khan (2014:95), the marketing mix is the marketing tools used by companies to create the desired response in the target market. The marketing mix is the basic, tactical component of the marketing strategy and is the method of transforming the marketing planning into practice.

The main reasons why the marketing mix is an effective concept are (Goi, 2009:1):

- It makes marketing seem easy to handle.
- It allows for separation of marketing from other activities of the organisation.
- It enables marketing activities to be delegated to specialists.
- The components of the marketing mix can change the organisation’s competitive position.

The marketing mix includes the following four elements (4 Ps) (Jobber & Ellis-Chadwick, 2013:197; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014):

- product
- price
- place
- promotion

In services markets the marketing mix is often extended to 7 Ps with the addition of:

- people
- process
- physical evidence

The 4 Ps are not a trade-off between the elements but are important marketing matters that always need to be addressed (Alipour *et al.*, 2012).

Various authors have tried to apply the 4 Ps to the marketing of cities, including Ashworth and Voogd (1990:30), who suggested a geographical marketing mix to be used for geographical areas which includes not only promotional measures but also spatial-functional measures, organisational measures and financial measures. These authors state that the extent and effectiveness of city marketing initiatives are mostly influenced by the selection and application of the appropriate combination of these mentioned measures. According to Eshuis *et al.* (2014:169), spatial function planning refers to the planned method to influence and manage the physical organisation of space and aims to direct the distribution of people and their activities, infrastructure, houses and amenities of places. These authors also emphasise the fact that marketing is not only about the physical appearance of a city or place (seen as the product), but also about the image and reputation of the city or place, and thus branding plays an important role within marketing to create the correct representation of a city or place. In chapter 3 of this document, the role of branding is comprehensively examined.

Hall and Hubbard (1998:27) state that the marketing mix for a city include publicity and promotions, large-scale physical development, civic and cultural facilities, mega-events, cultural regeneration and private/public partnerships, whereas Kotler (1999:73) argues that the marketing mix for a city includes the design, personality, infrastructure, basic services, attractions, stable environment, service provided and leisure and entertainment.

The next section will deal with each element of the marketing mix or promotional measure, with the integration of place and city marketing where applicable.

2.4.2.1 Place

The “place” element of the marketing mix refers to the way an organisation will distribute the product or service they are offering to the consumer (Goi, 2011). The place component deals specifically with the retailing and marketing channel management and also includes coverage, locations, inventory, transportation and logistics (Grewal & Levy, 2014:10; Kotler & Armstrong, 2014:76). According to Hult *et al.* (2014:447), marketing channel decisions do not have to lead other marketing decisions, but they are a powerful influence on the rest of the marketing mix, because without effective marketing channel operations, products and services will not be successful.

In terms of city and place marketing and specifically for this study, residential household location is one of the key drivers of urban dynamics (Schirmer *et al.*, 2014:3). These authors mention that individuals and households select their residential location by maximising the utility function depending on the expenditure in goods, size of land and distance to city centre. Schirmer *et al.*

(2014:5) mention that there are various attributes describing location in residential choice studies but propose four classifications of location variables:

- built environment, which includes buildings, parcels, blocks, and connecting networks (both road and public transport networks).
- socioeconomic environment, which is characterised by variables describing different aspects of the society, namely the population size, income level, age and education level.
- points of interest, which refer to the attractive locations for the public which can be created by urban planners and policy-makers. Points of interest in location choice literature can be grouped into the categories of education, transportation, leisure, retail and services.
- accessibility, which is the product of the points of interest and transport network.

The selection of a residence and the attributes important to individuals are essential to consider when designing a city marketing strategy.

2.4.2.2 Price

The price component of the marketing mix includes everything which the consumer gives up in exchange for the product, such as money, time and energy (Grewal & Levy, 2014).

Iacobucci (2013:107) states that pricing is influenced by the costs incurred by organisations, the client's willingness to pay as well as the competitive pricing. The author also states that marketers need to understand pricing and how to determine pricing, as prices can be used in segmentation, and must also supply important information to the customer.

In respect of cities, pricing plays a role in terms of the annual salary residents would demand for moving to a new city, as the cost of living plays a role (Zenker *et al.*, 2013:137). The authors also state that the general price level of the city, cost of living and cost of accommodation options of a city play an important role when people decide to move between cities and places. Price plays an important role when selecting a residence, as price captures various location characteristics (Schirmer *et al.*, 2014:8).

2.4.2.3 Promotion

The promotion component deals with the communication by the marketer to inform, persuade and remind the potential consumer about the product or services (Grewal & Levy, 2014:11). According to Hult *et al.* (2014:536, 538), possible objectives of promotion are 1) to create awareness, 2) stimulate demand, 3) encourage product trail, 4) identify prospects, 5) retain loyal customers, 6) facilitate reseller support, 7) combat competitive promotional efforts and 8) reduce sales fluctuations. There are several promotional ways to communicate with individuals, groups, and organisations, which include 1) personal selling, 2) public relations, 3) sales promotion and 4) advertising. The first definition of the term “place marketing” was supplied by Ward and Gold (1994:2) as the deliberate use of publicity and marketing to communicate selective images of specific geographical localities or areas to a target audience.

During the 1980s, many firms took a wider perspective on marketing communication by moving towards the process of integrated marketing communications, which includes the coordination of various promotional elements and other marketing activities that communicate with a customer (Belch & Belch, 2012:9). According to Hospers (2010:183), city marketing was involved only with the promotional activities of marketing, but since the mid-1980s local authorities started to use city marketing and not only promotion in their urban development policies.

Belch and Belch (2012:15) argue that one of the major reasons for the growing importance of integrated marketing communication is the fact that it plays a key role in the process of developing and maintaining brand identity. In chapter 3 of this document, the branding process will be discussed with specific reference to its relevance to and influence on cities and places.

2.4.2.4 Product

A product can be defined as something which can be presented to customers for consideration, purchase or utilisation to satisfy needs and wants (Kotler & Armstrong, 2014:249). According to Khan (2014:99), a product includes physical objects, persons, services, organisations, ideas and also places. The product should be built around the core products, which are the problem-solving services or core benefits received by the customer when purchasing the product. The product represents the product’s parts, level of quality, design, packaging and brand name.

According to Kotler and Armstrong (2014:252), in addition to tangible products and services, marketers have extended the concept of product to include other marketing offerings like organisation, persons, ideas and places. According to Deffner *et al.* (2013:242), place marketing can be considered as a natural element of the economic development of a place. As mentioned in the previous section, marketing is concerned with the production, distribution, pricing and promotion of goods and services, whereas in place marketing the image of the place can be regarded as the “final produced good” whereby the target market is identified, the segmentation process is organised and distribution channels and promotion strategies are determined (Deffner *et al.*, 2013:243). According to Jobber and Ellis-Chadwick (2013:21), practical marketing mix decisions can be made only when the target customer is recognised and understood, thus when targeting, segmentation and positioning have been completed.

While businesses work with concrete and often tangible products, the products of a city are hard to define, which makes it difficult to give substance to city marketing (Braun, 2008:68). Warnaby and Medway (2013:357) argue that in some cases place products can be tangible, but in most cases the product of places and cities is best understood in terms of narratives. The reason is that the notion of a place is created and produced by people and their actions; thus place develops a socially constructed product which is developed and constantly redefined by spoken and written word. According to Hospers (2010:184), there are significant differences between the marketing of a city and of a product because cities do not have corporate marketing departments and because many stakeholders are usually involved in the process.

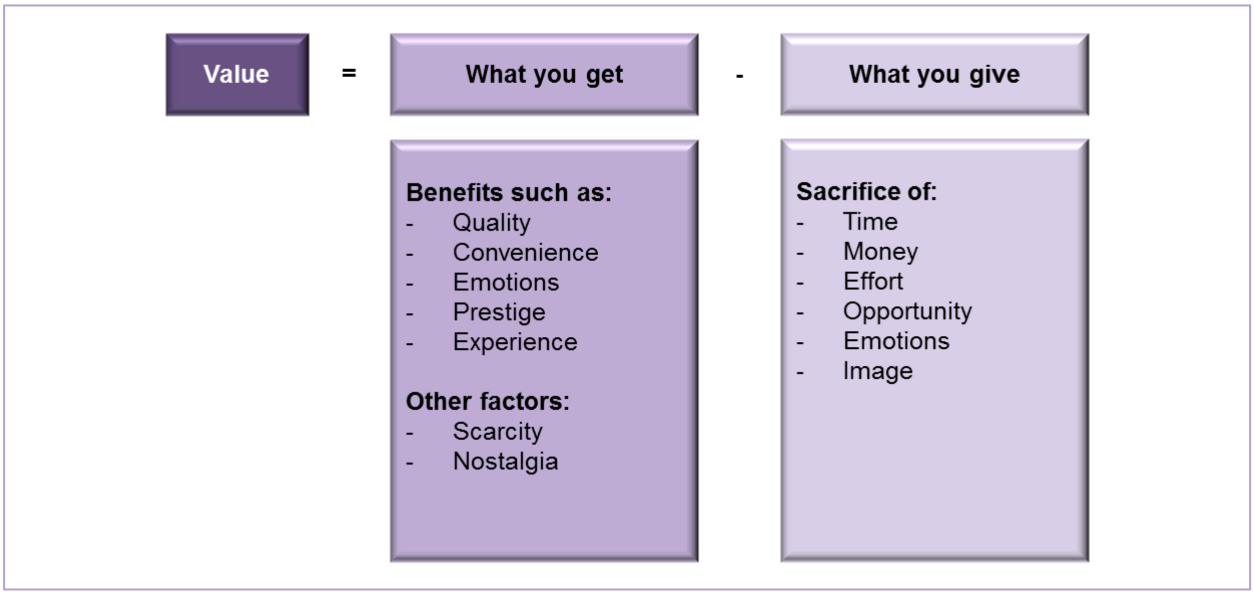
According to Grewal and Levy (2014:7, 10, 11), the product component of the marketing mix is to create value for a consumer by supplying a variety of offerings which include goods, services and ideas. Therefore, the product is central to the marketing mix, offering the unique attributes which differentiate the product for competition (Khan, 2014:99).

2.4.2.4.1 Consumer value

Jobber and Ellis-Chadwick (2013:14) state that marketing-orientated companies create consumer value in order to attract and keep customers. Consumer value can be defined as the ratio between the consumer’s perceived benefits and the resources used to obtain those benefits (Jobber & Ellis-Chadwick, 2013:14; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2014:9). Value is what consumers ultimately pursue, as valuable actions address the motivations of consumers that are evident in their needs and wants (Babin & Harris, 2014:28).

Perceived benefits can originate from the product, service or image of a company, and should one of these factors change, the perceived benefits and customer value will also change (Jobber & Ellis-Chadwick, 2013:14). Figure 2.5 shows the value equation of a consumer and includes some components of value and how a consumer might put these together to determine the overall worth of a product or service.

Figure 2.5: The value equation



Source: Adapted from Babin and Harris (2014:28).

Offering more value than that of the competition is the key to marketing success (Jobber & Ellis-Chadwick, 2013:15). After buying a product or using a service, customer satisfaction depends upon the perceived performance compared to the purchaser's expectation, so that a customer will be satisfied when the perceived performance matches or exceeds their expectations (Jobber & Ellis-Chadwick, 2013:15).

Value-based positioning can be very effective in place marketing as values are vital to identity and can therefore attract or repel people from and to places (Zenker *et al.*, 2014:199). These authors also mention that target groups can be differentiated based on their value formation and that cities can convey certain value formations by means of the city's slogan. Place marketers therefore need to understand which values are viewed as favourable by the target audience to ensure the correct communication.

2.4.2.5 People

The people aspect refers to aspects of employee involvement with customers (Boshoff, 2014:11). An organisation's personnel play a key role in influencing customer perceptions of product quality; therefore without polite, efficient and motivated staff, service organisations will lose customers (Jobber & Ellis-Chadwick, 2013:381).

2.4.2.6 Process

The process component relevant to service marketing includes the decisions that service providers have to make to ensure that services are effectively delivered to customers (Boshoff, 2014:181). It describes the procedures, mechanisms and flow of activities by which a service is obtained (Jobber & Ellis-Chadwick, 2013:382).

2.4.2.7 Physical evidence

The physical evidence or environment within services marketing indicates the environment in which the services are delivered and where the interaction with the customer takes place (Boshoff, 2014:11). The physical environment includes facility design, equipment, signage, annual reports, guarantees, business cards and financial statements.

Schirmer *et al.* (2014:5) state that when residents determine preference for a location, the built environment plays a role. These authors mention that the built environment of a city includes buildings, parcels, blocks and networks (both roads and public transport). Urban (city) built environments can be used to develop place histories, especially when the environment is iconic, like the Coliseum in Rome or the Eiffel Tower in Paris (Warnaby & Medway, 2013:349).

The next section reviews the governance process which is applicable to the marketing of a city or place.

2.5 Governance process

According to Hospers (2011:369), most policy-makers want their communities to expand, but due to ageing, low fertility and brain draw of the youth population to national centres, measures such as place marketing have been applied to fight the shrinkage of communities. In the context of Europe, authorities are engaging in marketing activities not only for tourism purposes but also increasingly as a tool to acquire new residents and companies (Hospers, 2011:369). In addition, consumer marketing training has been implemented for most of the place marketing professionals working in European municipalities, whereby they are informed how to sell their place as if it were a consumer product (Hospers, 2011:369). Often, place marketing is simply seen as the selling of a city, town or region via media channels, although promotional activities are only a fraction of the place marketing domain (Hospers, 2011:370). Place marketing is an event by which the government attract a certain level of significance to a geographical aspect of doing business and market products to prospective and existing customers (Dhamija *et al.*, 2011:95). According to Metaxas (2009:1372), place marketing is a strategic process which requires information, critical thinking and a strategic examination of the place; it is not the coincidental occurrence of something which involves promotional activities only in order to promote the place.

Zhou and Wang (2014:28) mention that strong competition among cities has motivated city governments to use marketing methods for city promotion. Place marketing has become a governance process which involves policy-makers in complex interactions with multiple shareholders (Eshuis *et al.*, 2014:155). These authors state that the creation and delivery of offerings requires the involvement of multiple stakeholders like businesses, resident organisations and public organisations.

Place marketing is increasingly included in governance strategies for sustaining perceptions concerning regions, cities and towns, whereby both public and private parties participate in place marketing activities to create and maintain positive images and attract residents (Eshuis *et al.*, 2011:1). City governments take the leading role in the promotion of cities, allowing for the cooperation of all government departments, such as economic development, public relations and tourism (Zhou & Wang, 2014:28). According to Jobber and Ellis-Chadwick (2013:358), services have become increasingly important and valuable to industrialised economics as more sophisticated products are developed which require more design, production and maintenance services. These authors also state that other reasons for the importance of service marketing are due to the rising contribution of services to the global economy, which gives customers the opportunity to spend more on services like restaurants, travel and service-intensive products. The public sector involves the provision and delivery of services by the government for the country's residents (Jobber & Ellis-Chadwick, 2013:360). According to these authors, the public sector typically supplies services such as education, health, social care, defence and transport.

Place is a complex and slippery concept and therefore the place marketing task is more complicated than the typical setting in which traditional marketing theory is developed. The implementation of place marketing is not easy; place marketers face numerous constraints and obstacles when applying marketing strategies to the public sector (Eshuis *et al.*, 2013:507; Warnaby & Medway, 2013:357). Eshuis *et al.* (2011:12) have determined three main underlying bottlenecks in the application of place marketing by professionals and government:

- political bottlenecks, which include the lack of political leadership and fragmented tasks and responsibilities
- traditional marketing bottlenecks, which are related to the content of traditional marketing campaigns and the reaching of target audiences

- administrative bottlenecks, which include the administration duties to be conducted within place marketing

According to Eshuis *et al.* (2011:12), the traditional bottlenecks have a significant negative effect on the results of the place marketing conducted, whereas the political and administrative bottlenecks seem to have no significant effect on place marketing results.

Therefore, local authorities and policy-makers play a crucial role in the successful formulation and implementation of a city marketing strategy, but the bottlenecks discussed should be managed to ensure the success of a strategy. As mentioned, local government provides a service to residents and plays a role in the marketing of a city. For this reason, the 3 Ps of service marketing are applicable to city marketing: the local government can be seen as the "people" who can influence residents' perception; local government can determine the "process" of service delivery; and the "physical environment" refers to the buildings and spaces within the city. These three components must therefore be included in the marketing strategies for cities.

2.6 City marketing to city branding

Braun (2008:35) notes that image formulation and communication are crucial within the city marketing mix, as the encounters with the city happen through perceptions and images, so the object of city marketing is not the city itself but its image. As cited by Eshuis *et al.* (2014:154), branding has become an important strategy within place marketing to address the illustration of a place. Place branding is an element within place marketing which influences people's ideas by shaping emotional and psychological relations with a place (Eshuis *et al.*, 2014:155).

Branding provides a product with a specific and more unique identity, and that is in many ways what city marketing strives to do for cities. Branding is added to the list of developments which bring marketing theory and practice closer together, as it provides the foundation for identifying a wide range of images with the purpose of adding meaning to a city in one marketing message, namely the city's brand (Braun, 2008:36). Place branding can been seen as an element of place marketing and involves influencing people's ideas about a place by shaping particular emotional and psychological connotations of a place (Eshuis *et al.*, 2014:154).

2.7 Conclusion

The chapter began with a short introduction to marketing, particularly in relation to place and cities. Definitions and key concepts were discussed in terms of marketing, place marketing, city marketing as well as the marketing and societal concepts, and it was concluded that satisfying the needs and wants of customers is the key focus not only of traditional marketing but also of place and city marketing. As customers form a key element to marketing, the next section of the chapter dealt with the concept of the customer, with specific reference to the identification of a place/city resident and the need to integrate the resident into the city marketing process. Customer behaviour was also discussed as the actions performed by customers when searching for and making a purchase. The model of customer behaviour was discussed with specific reference to the impact of family, social class and culture on city marketing.

A literature review of marketing strategy was provided, including segmentation, targeting and positioning as well as a discussion of the marketing mix. A few authors have attempted to adapt the traditional marketing mix to places and cities but have not yet been successful. However, literature was used to show the applicability of the marketing mix to city and place marketing.

The next section of the chapter dealt with the governance process within cities and the role of its stakeholders within the city marketing process. The chapter concluded with an explanation of the transition from city marketing to city branding. Due to the importance of the image of a city, branding is used to create a specific and unique identity for the city; thus city branding is used more frequently than city marketing.

The next chapter is a discussion of branding, city branding and place branding as well as corporate branding.

CHAPTER 3: BRANDING: PLACE, CITY AND CORPORATE BRANDING

3.1 Introduction

During the last decade, the number of cities developing branding strategies has increased not only for global cities, capitals and well-known tourist destinations but also for an increasing number of smaller cities (Braun *et al.*, 2014:64). In recent years, the concept of "branding" has taken on a multi-faceted perspective, as cities have started to understand the value of their brand and how it is designed and should be managed (Merrilees *et al.*, 2012:1032). In today's globalised world, however, the term "branding" is no longer confined merely to goods and services; but this concept has also been adapted and adopted for places, spaces and even economies (Khoo & Badarulzaman, 2014:373). According to Braun (2012:258), place branding can be applied to neighbourhoods, districts, tourism destinations, regions, countries and also cities. Local, regional and national authorities are increasingly investing funds in place branding activities, and mirroring this is an increasing interest for academic research in this field (Ashworth *et al.*, 2015:2).

Turok (2009:16) argues that branding within cities is a quest to promote the distinctiveness of the city within the context of increased competition for resources, visitors and residents. It is important that cities carefully choose a brand that displays the "distinct nature of their cities" as well as creating an image that differentiates them and sets them apart from other cities (Khoo & Badarulzaman, 2014:374).

Braun (2012:259) argues that it is very important to view city branding in the context of urban governance. City governance is how city policies are created, decided upon and carried out. Therefore as cities compete to position themselves in the global economy, city branding has also gained importance as a significant urban regeneration strategy (Khoo & Badarulzaman, 2014:371). Eshuis and Edwards (2013:1067) are of the opinion that place branding is employed as an urban governance strategy to manage perceptions about places which include the perception of opportunities within a place and its identity, as well as ideas about economic and spatial change.

The chapter commences with a discussion of the key definitions and concepts of this study, followed by the important components of branding, and provides the underlying theory of brand equity, brand positioning, brand image, brand communication, brand identity and brand personality.

How branding strategies can be implemented to attract residents to a city will then be discussed, followed by a consideration of the underlying theory of urban governance to explain the concept and also to indicate its relevance to place and city branding strategies. Existing place/city branding frameworks are a key component of this study, so the next section is devoted to illustrating and explaining the frameworks currently used within the place/city branding domain; a summation of these frameworks is also provided which will be used when developing the questionnaire for this study. The chapter concludes with an investigation of the implementation of place branding, place branding in Africa and the challenges and critics of place/city branding.

3.2 Definitions and key concepts

The following section provides definitions and supporting literature of key concepts relevant to this study.

3.2.1 Brand

In the Greek and Roman times brands were used as identification features or trademarks for shops and craftsman signs (Riezebos *et al.*, 2003:2). One of the first definitions of a brand was supplied by the American Marketing Association in 1960 as "a name, term, design, symbol, or any other feature that identifies one seller's good or service as distinct from those of other sellers" (AMA, 1960:8). Ambler (1992:18) added a more consumer-orientated tactic to the definition by stating that a brand is "the promise of the bundles of attributes that someone buys and provide satisfaction". The author mentions that these attributes can be actual or imagined, rational or emotional, touchable or invisible.

A more recent definition has been supplied by Du Toit and Erdis (2013:17), who define a brand as a name, term, sign or design, or a mixture of them, with the purpose of identifying goods or services from one supplier or group of suppliers and differentiating between competition.

Eshuis and Edwards (2013:1068) mention that a brand is a symbolic concept which is used to add value and meaning to something; therefore brands are indicators which pinpoint products and their producers and suggest associations between objects and culture. For this reason a brand can be a product like beer or perfume, a place like Amsterdam or New York, or a person like a rock star or a politician (Eshuis & Klijn, 2012:15).

3.2.2 Branding

Branding can be defined as follows (Bothma, 2013:152):

> Branding can be defined as the process of attempting to differentiate a product from those of the competitors by providing a product with a distinct and recognisable identity, and then building the correct association with that brand to ensure that the brand is relevant and different from competition.

Branding manages perceptions and places emphasis on the emotional and physiological components rather than reason and debating; thus argument and systematic processing of information is not used but affective and quick assessments based on experiences (Eshuis & Klijn, 2012:29).

Branding has become a familiar strategy within place branding and city branding, where place branding refers to geographical locations such as nations, regions, cities and communities (Eshuis & Klijn, 2012:24). Therefore the next section deals with the terms “place branding” and “city branding”.

3.2.3 Place branding

Kavaratzis (2008:52) mentions that the progression for city marketing to place branding was enabled not only by the application of product branding principles but also by the development of corporate branding.

To fully understand the term “place branding” it is useful to examine some of the developments and trends within the place branding theory.

3.2.3.1 Place of origin branding

In 2002, two significant articles were published with the shared concept of “country of origin”, referring to the use of the place of origin in the branding of a product (Kotler & Gertner, 2002; Papadopoulos & Heslop, 2002). According to Kotler and Gertner (2002:250), country names can create a brand, thus assisting customers in evaluating a product and making the purchase. Kavaratzis (2005:332), however, mentions that the place of origin is more applicable to product branding than to place branding, as the concept is not considered to be a place branding strategy.

3.2.3.2 Nation branding

Van Ham (2001:2) has found that straightforward advertising has given way to branding in which the emotional aspects of products and services are used so that customers can relate to them. The author also states that the same method has been applied to nations, whose image and reputation are becoming important parts of the nation’s strategic equity. Kavaratzis (2005:322) argues that nation branding has been developed within the marketing field, where consultants have realised the advantages of branding the country but do not have the relevant knowledge to implement successful branding strategies.

3.2.3.3 Cultural/entertainment branding

Cultural and entertainment branding has been widely applied in cities across the world due to the increased importance of cultural, leisure and entertainment events within cities (Kavaratzis, 2005:333).

3.2.3.4 Destination branding

One of the first academic publications on destination branding was by Hankinson (2001:139), who mentioned that branding of locations has received little interest and that there is a need for more formal academic research within this field, as there is no evidence to suggest that the branding of locations is not possible. Kavaratzis (2005:333) believes that destination branding is possibly the most developed and used trend within place branding.

Today, branding a destination is one of the most important tools to assist a destination to compete effectively for tourists. A branding strategy can differentiate a place from other similar destinations (Yusof *et al.*, 2014:1).

3.2.3.5 Place branding

Braun and Zenker (2010:5) supplied one of the first definitions of a place brand as “a network of associations in the consumer’s mind based on the visual, verbal and behavioural expressions of a place, which is embodied through aims, communication, values, and the general culture of the place’s stakeholders and the overall place design”.

> The place branding definition applicable to this study is defined by González (2011:297, 298) as the process used to generate value between a geographical area and an individual by creating an image of the economic, social and historical features of the place to create a positive image of the location.

As mentioned by Eshuis and Klijn (2012:24), the branding of place concentrates on geographical locations such as nations, cities and regions with the aim being to enhance the attractiveness of the place, thus stimulating investments and attracting residents and tourists to it. The authors also state that place branding normally includes public and private stakeholders.

Place brands are symbolic constructs which add meaning and value to places, signs that distinguish places and evoke associations that imbue places with cultural meaning (Eshuis *et al.*, 2014:154). Colomb and Kalandides (2010:175) also state that place branding has a twofold purpose:

- to develop a unique selling proposition which will ensure visibility to the outside
- to reinforce the local identity of a place to the inside

Kavaratzis (2008:57) states that a place needs to differentiate itself by means of brand identity if the intention is to:

- be recognised as existing
- be perceived in the minds of the place customers as having superior qualities to the competitors
- used in a way which is equal to the objectives of the place

Hanna and Rowley (2015:87) indicate that places do not only need to know how to brand a city but it is also very important to understand the process involved; thus a place needs to have a strategic approach to manage the brand associated with it as well as its associated assets such as reputation, image identity and the experiences of the place. This place brand management process was developed by Hanna and Rowley (2011, 2013) and is also applicable to this study.

Ashworth *et al.* (2015:6) mention a few different approaches to place brands which are very applicable within the place brand management process:

- Place brands are inspired by means of promotional activities with the aim of attracting place users, like residents.
- Place brands are also influenced by a wider image or reputation management, which aims to create a favourable place image and positive place reputation,

- Place branding is embarked on as a power exercise whereby place branding situates itself within the struggles of political, financial and social power and is used to conceal such power struggles between the parties.

- In contrast, place branding sometimes refers to a community-building exercise, with the main aim of identifying shared ideas and directions for the future of the community.

3.2.4 City branding

A significant amount of research on city branding has originated from the fields of marketing, urban studies, and governance and public policy (Dinne, 2011:3; Lucarelli & Berg, 2011:12).

> The most used definition of city branding is supplied by Kavaratzis (2008:214), who defines city branding as a set of actions used to build a positive image of the city and the communication of it among various target groups by means of visuals, stories and events both locally and internationally.

A city's brand should be able to operate as an umbrella which covers various different stakeholders and audiences; thus place value suggestions are developed by the various stakeholders who are responsible for the marketing of the particular place (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005:511). According to Eshuis and Klijn (2012:17), a form of branding which is often applied in the public sector is called city branding. The aim of a city brand is to differentiate the city from others by giving it an image of its own as well as adding value to the city. Paris, for example, is not only a city but the city of romance, whereas New York is branded as the main financial centre in the world. Cities are neither products nor corporations, and therefore there is a need for a more distinct form of branding (Ashworth & Kavaratzis, 2009:525).

City branding can be viewed as product customisation for certain segments. It is harder to convince consumers with many broad appeals, such as occurs in the case of country branding, than with specific and salient ones in the case of city branding (Sahina & Baloglua, 2014:243). According to Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2005:509), within the context of city branding, three constructs are important:

- brand attitude

- perceived quality of the brand

- uniqueness of the brand

One of the most important characteristics of city branding is the involvement of many stakeholders, such as city officials, politicians, local citizens, local businesses and visitors, all of whom must be carefully considered and their cooperation must be sought (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005:510).

As mentioned by Ashworth and Kavaratzis (2009:525), it is possible to adopt a branding attitude for the management of cities by using tools and principles of corporate branding; however, these tools and models have to fit in with the characteristics and demands of cities.

The evolution from city marketing to city branding has been facilitated not only by the use and success of product branding but also by the development of the use of corporate branding within city branding (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005:507). Therefore, the main difference between place branding and city branding is that place branding refers to the geographical area which include a city whereas city branding refers to the actions to build a positive image for specifically a city and its residents.

3.2.5 Corporate branding

In 1992, Kapferer (1992:26) stated that a corporate brand can be defined as the state of will of an organisation and the active part of the image building. Balmer (1995:25) argues that there are a number of concepts relevant to the understanding of a corporate brand:

- corporate mission and philosophy, which include the organisation's main capabilities, market position and values
- corporate identity, indicating the organisation's character
- corporate personality, which provides the cornerstone of the corporate identity and includes the mix of beliefs within the organisation
- corporate image, referring to the perceived perceptions of the organisation by a group or groups of individuals
- visual identification, which represents the use of logos, styles and designs

Knox and Bickerton (2003:1013) give the definition of a corporate brand as the visual, verbal and behavioural appearance of an organisation's distinctive business model.

Kleyn (2012:1060) indicates that corporate branding is a key driver to increase the reputation of organisations, thus creating a competitive advantage for the organisation. The author also argues that a corporate brand consists of two components, namely the creation of corporate expression and the creation of brand images for all relevant stakeholders (Kleyn, 2012:1060).

Ashworth and Kavaratzis (2009:523) comment that corporate branding is a development within the traditional product branding field but that is enriched by other corporate-level concepts like corporate image, corporate identity and corporate communications. The authors also argue that corporate identity is central to corporate brands. It is evident that product brands and city brands differ, and as city brands, just like corporate brandings, are also different from products, the traditional branding frameworks are inadequate (Kavaratzis, 2008:130).

Kavaratzis (2009:29) mention that there are quite a few similarities between the branding of corporations and the branding of cities as both address multiple stakeholders, have a high level of intangibility and complexities and need to take into account social responsibility. Therefore, the lessons and activities implemented by corporations to brand themselves, and be used by cities due to their similarities.

It is can therefore be concluded from the definitions of brand, branding, place branding and city branding that to identify, to create associations and to add value are key concepts within the branding domain and are applicable to both places and cities. The traditional branding process is therefore applicable to places and cities by creating positive images and by including corporate branding concepts and methods to brand a place and city.

3.3 Branding elements

The next section of this chapter is allocated to key branding terms including brand equity, brand positioning, brand image, brand communication, brand identity and brand personality. The relevance of these terms to places and cities will also be discussed.

3.3.1 Brand equity

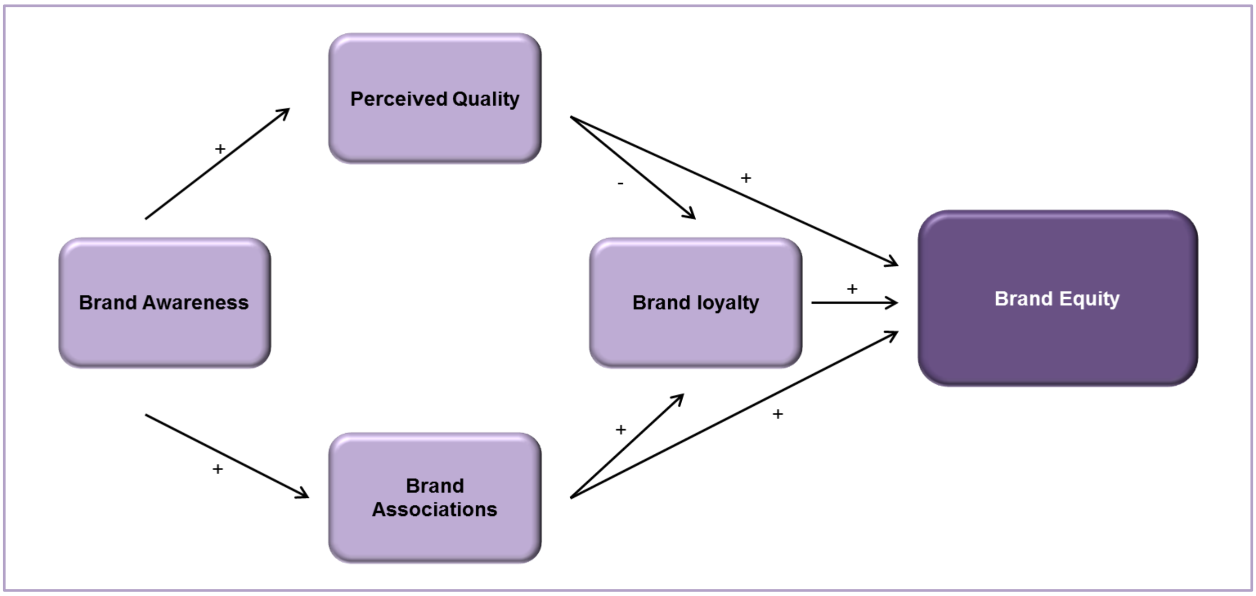
In the quest to define the relationship between customers and brands, the term “brand equity” was produced within the marketing literature (Wood, 2000:662). The author states that a brand equity chain exists where the brand description or brand image is personalised to the needs and wants of the target customers by means of the marketing mix; the success of the process determines the degree of brand strength or loyalty, which in turn creates the brand’s value. Lee *et al.* (2014:1) argue that due to the strength of a brand, products can be sold without any effort to persuade customers with marketing strategies; thus, in marketing, it is all about branding. Therefore, much attention has been paid to the concept of brand equity.

Consumer-based brand equity was developed by Aaker (1991) and Keller (1993). Aaker (1991:15) defines brand equity as a collection of brand assets and liabilities linked to a brand, brand name and symbol that add to or subtract from the value provided by a product or service to a firm and to the firm's customers. Keller (1993:8) suggests that brand equity signifies a condition in which the consumer is familiar with the brand and remembers some favourable, strong and unique brand associations.

A more recent definition is supplied by Armstrong and Kotler (2013:266), who define brand equity as the differential outcome that a meaningful brand name has on consumers; it is thus a measure of the brand's ability to influence and capture customers' preference and loyalty.

According to Buil *et al.* (2013:63), customer-based brand equity is usually assessed in respect of four aspects, namely brand awareness, brand associations, perceived brand quality and brand loyalty. Figure 3.1 indicates the relationship between these four customer-based brand equity aspects.

Figure 3.1: Customer-based brand equity



Source: Adapted from Buil *et al.* (2013:68).

It can be noted from Figure 3.1 that brand awareness has a positive influence on perceived brand quality and brand associations, and brand loyalty is significantly influenced by two brand association dimensions, namely perceived value and brand personality. On the other hand, perceived quality has a *negative* influence on brand loyalty. This relationship was also tested by Bravo *et al.* (2007:195), who concluded that there is a positive relationship but not a significant one. Perceived quality, brand associations and brand loyalty all have a positive effect on the brand equity, with the exception of brand personality associations (Buil *et al.*, 2013:68).

Brand equity is very important for place branding as the reputation of a place is a valuable asset that needs to be managed, measured and protected (Anholt, 2008:3). Florek and Kavaratzis (2014:103) state that it is very helpful to understand the concept of place brand equity as it might be beneficial in achieving a better understanding of what place brands are applicable to place customers and to what extent. In an email to the editors of the *Journal of Place Branding and Public Diplomacy* (January 2014), K.L. Keller writes that the application of branding concepts and in particular the customer-based brand equity model is very relevant to places, as place marketers need to understand what types of brand meanings exist within a city, as well as the level of awareness and associations of a place, and attitudes towards it.

Place brand equity captures the diverse aspects of a place's performance experienced by the city's stakeholders, so place brand equity could indicate if a place brand is successful and could therefore be considered as an inseparable part of branding (Florek & Kavaratzis, 2014:105).

These aspects of customer-based brand equity in Figure 3.1 will be discussed in the following section.

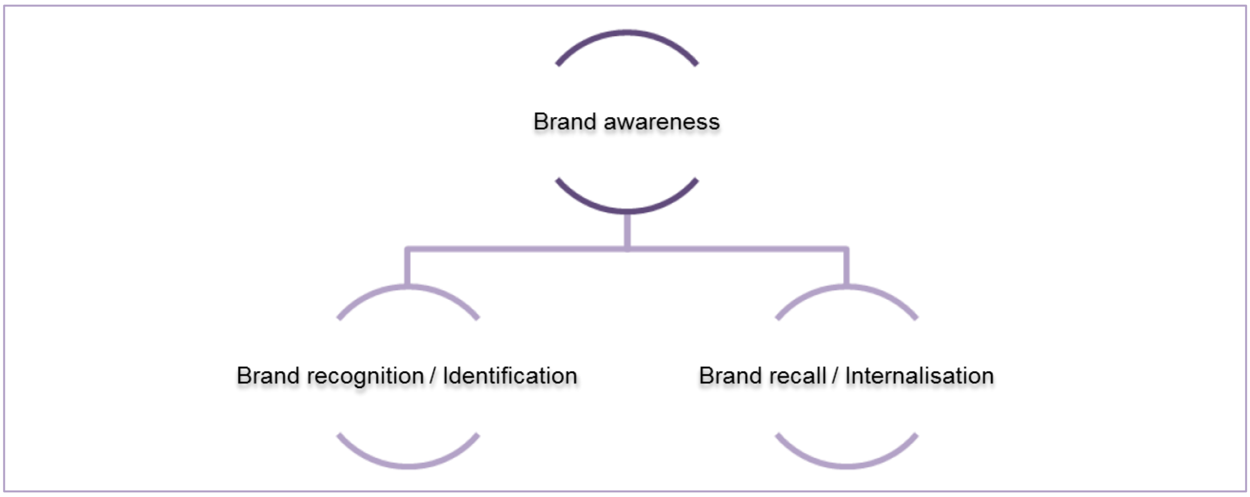
3.3.1.1 Brand awareness

Grewal and Levy (2014:631) define brand awareness as a measurement of the number of customers in a market who are familiar with the brand and what it stands for.

Brand awareness can be seen as the first step in creating brand equity (Buil *et al.*, 2013:63), and is created by means of frequent exposure of the various brand elements in the communication between an organisation and customers (Grewal & Levy, 2014:631). The authors also mention that the more aware customers are, the easier their decision-making process will be; thus it improves the chances of purchase and usage of the product.

Keller (1993:3) suggests that brand awareness is linked to the consumers' memory of and connections with the brand and plays a valuable role in the decision-making process of customers. Figure 3.2 indicates the two dimensions of Keller (1993:3) with the inclusion of the dimensions of Ross *et al.* (2008:333).

Figure 3.2: Dimensions of brand awareness



Source: Adapted from Keller (1993:3) and Ross *et al.* (2008:333).

According to Keller (1993:3), brand recognition refers to the consumer's ability to distinguish brands based on brand clues or to recognise brands which have been seen or heard of in the past. The author states that brand recall indicates the ability of the customer to recall a brand connection from their memories when given a product and also to remember the strength of the brand. Ross *et al.* (2008:333) used a customer-based model to understand brand awareness, and indicated that brand awareness is formed by the dimensions of identification and internalisation. The same authors state that identification is similar to brand recognition, and internalisation is the same as brand recall. Lee (2014:1253) concluded that these two dimensions by (Ross *et al.*, 2008) are also applicable to city brand awareness.

3.3.1.2 Brand associations

Brand associations can be defined as the mental links that customers make between a brand and its main product attributes like a logo, slogan or personality (Grewal & Levy, 2014:344).

Bick (2011:38) indicates that brand associations assist with creating positive attitudes and feelings towards a brand and therefore build its brand equity. With regard to places and cities, Ashworth and Kavaratzis (2015:128) advise that the stronger and simpler a place brand association is, the more likely it is to be successful, although it will also be more difficult to change the association in response to changing ways.

3.3.1.3 Perceived brand quality

Perceived brand quality is normally at the centre of what customers are purchasing and is therefore often used to differentiate or position a brand against others (Bick, 2011:38).

Trott (2011:79) defines perceived quality as the opinion which a customer has about the ability of the brand to fulfil his or her expectations.

3.3.1.4 Brand loyalty

Brand loyalty arises when a customer repeatedly purchases the same brand's products or services over a period instead of purchasing from multiple suppliers (Grewal & Levy, 2014:344).

Brand loyalty has been revealed to be one of the main drivers of brand equity due to the fact that when customers obtain a more positive opinion about a brand, loyalty towards the brand is created (Buil *et al.*, 2013:64). These authors also mention that brand associations and brand personality have a significantly positive influence on brand loyalty.

Apart from the relationships between the various city stakeholders, relationships should be built with residents within a city to develop brand loyalty towards the city (Warnaby *et al.*, 2011:258). It can be concluded that because loyalty has the most positive effect on brand equity, city branding strategies should focus on establishing loyalty among current residents to increase the overall brand equity of the city.

Florek (2015:236) argues that customer-based brand equity is the best approach to use for place/city brands, as the ultimate benefit of brand equity is in terms of the welfare of the owners of the place brands, the residents, who are also the consumers of the place product. The author also concludes that place brand equity is a differentiating result of a set of associations and attitudes as well as behavioural patterns in respect of the place brand.

Ehlers (2011:96) mentions that a company needs to find the correct place in the mind of a group of customers or segment and influence them to think about the brand, in the correct way, as positioning is the way a company wants customers to perceive, think and feel about its brand against competition (Janiszewska & Insch, 2012:10). Therefore, there is a strong relation between brand positioning, brand image and brand identity (Janiszewska & Insch, 2012:11). These concepts will be discussed in the next section.

3.3.2 Brand positioning

Brand positioning can be defined as the action of designing the company's offering and image to occupy a unique place in the minds of the target market (Keller, 2015:4).

Janiszewska and Insch (2012:14) argue that any decision regarding the building and development of a brand refers to the assumption behind positioning and the strategic importance of positioning, which can be viewed in terms of two fundamental dimensions: internal and external. The external dimension indicates the importance of the brand position as a guide and verifier of the activities planned and sustained by the brand, whereas the internal dimension refers to the measurement of the brand, or brand control. In the case of place branding, selecting the correct activities aimed at the various target groups is a major issue as frequently these activities do not share elements which would create and support a consistent image of the brand (Janiszewska & Insch, 2012:14). These authors also mention that in terms of the internal dimension, the measurement and effectiveness of a place brand are not well researched in literature but are very important elements to consider.

Brand positioning also sets the frame of the communication strategy, as a well-defined positioning strategy indicates the subjects, styles and tone of communication and should be adopted to result in the imprinting of the brand in the audience's mind (Janiszewska & Insch, 2012:14). For this reason the place brand position should be used in communication initiatives with residents of a city. Zhang (2015:58) points out that brand image is the key driver of brand equity; therefore the next section will deal with the concept of brand image.

3.3.3 Brand image

The term "brand image" has been defined and applied in different ways by different researchers (Patterson, 1999; Lee *et al.*, 2014; Zhang, 2015). According to Lee *et al.* (2014:2), the multiple definitions and understandings have resulted in dissimilarity in how the term is used.

Gardner and Levy are believed to be the first authors to capture the essence of brand image as an academic field (Gardner & Levy, 1955:38). In their quest to understand and identify what motivates customers to make purchases, they concluded that there is a set of feelings, ideas and attitudes which consumers have about a brand and which are important in the purchase decision. Since then, there have been various articles and publications within the field of brand image.

From the 1950s to 1970s, the physical functions of products formed the basis for brand image, as product image and brand image were not clearly distinguished and were used interchangeably. During the 1980s the symbolic concept of brand image achieved popularity when the brand image was defined, measured and researched within the framework of a symbolic concept (Lee *et al.*, 2014:6).

One of the most used definitions is the one supplied by Aaker (1996:71), according to which brand image is the way a brand is perceived by its consumers. Patterson (1999:512) states that a brand image is the picture of the brand within the mind of the consumer; this picture is built by means of the subjective perceptions of how various brands will perform across a range of criteria, which can be both functional and non-functional. The author states that a brand image is developed by means of direct experiences with the brand, through exposure to advertising or promotion, or even by means of observation of the type of people using the particular brand. Low and Lamb (2000:352) define brand image as the reasoned and emotional perceptions which customers attach to a specific brand.

More recent definitions of brand image are provided by Anselmsson *et al*. (2014:4), who define it as the associations and beliefs that a customer has regarding the brand, and by Lee *et al*. (2014:8), who state that brand image is a combination of cognition, affection and evaluation; they thus define brand image as the "sum of a customer's perceptions about a brand generated by the interaction of the cognitive, affective, and evaluative processes in a customer's mind".

Regardless of the lifestyle change of customers and the way customers are processing information, brand image remains a leading factor of consumption decisions. Consequently there have been extensive studies since the 20th century due to its importance in building brand equity (Zhang, 2015:59).

As mentioned by Braun *et al.* (2014:65), the most straightforward indicator that place branding has been successful is the improvement of the place brand image. Research on place image has increased since the work done by Lynch (1960). Anholt (2008:3) argues that the notion of brand image is crucial within place branding, as brand image underpins every interaction between the place (brand) and its target market.

Anholt (2007:9) states that the reputation of places is complex and is built in a more casual way than the brand image of products and companies. He states that cities normally do not have one clear message to communicate, as a city's image is based on various attributes which are normally unplanned, like historical incidents, so a city's image is best developed as a spinoff of a city's natural development. As mentioned by Lee (2014:1246), a city's brand image is the holistic feelings and associations of customers regarding the brand, and these feelings and associations include the historical culture, architecture and food of a city, as perceived by the customers.

3.3.4 Brand communication

Hankinson and Cowking (1995:47) mention that, as with other types of brands, place brands have the power to communicate both functional and symbolic meanings. Kerr and Oliver (2015:62) observe that the connection should be made by these meanings with the benefits and value offered, which lead to the motive to buy or pay a premium and to being more loyal, thus contributing to brand equity.

According to Merrilees *et al.* (2012:1032–1033), city branding can assist the communication with multiple stakeholders as it is a potential tool to ensure that communication is consistent and cohesive, and it enables different stakeholder groups to interact with one brand, therefore enabling different groups to understand, communicate with and link to the overall city entity. Kerr and Oliver (2015:65) argue that brand benefits communicated should be acknowledged as true by the potential buyer and should be consistent with all other forms of communication.

Both Kavaratzis (2008) and Balmer and Grey (1999) have published communication models for places. Kavaratzis (2008) argues that the consequences of place communication result in image building, whereas Balmer and Grey (1999) developed a corporate identity communication model whereby communication results in corporate image and reputation. Kerr and Oliver (2015:65) agree by stating that place communication creates the identity of a place.

To understand the importance of brand identity, the role of advertising should also be discussed in terms of places. The role of advertising is to motivate the customer to try or rebuy, and thus advertising of places might encourage people to try the place, for example for a resident to relocate to the city. With regard to the purchase of a place, potential buyers need to be aware of the place (the brand) and also have a positive outlook towards the place (Kerr & Oliver, 2015:64). These authors also state that the positive outlook towards a place exists within the place identity, which will be discussed next.

3.3.5 Brand identity

Aaker (1996:68) defines brand identity as a unique set of brand associations that the brand strategy aims to create or maintain; thus it represents what the brand stands for and the promise made to the customers.

> Enslin (2011:59) states that a brand's identity is defined by the value the brand adds to a customer's life. Thus the focus on who the brand's stakeholders are and their motivation towards a relationship with the brand is becoming increasingly important.

Kavaratzis and Hatch (2013:82) argue that branding plays a role in all parts of identity formation and is a set of processes that facilitates the entire identity process. These authors also state that stakeholders are the most important element within place branding, as brands are built from raw materials of identity, and identity is formed in conversation between shareholders. Hanna and Rowley (2011) mention the better understanding of stakeholder engagement, and therefore

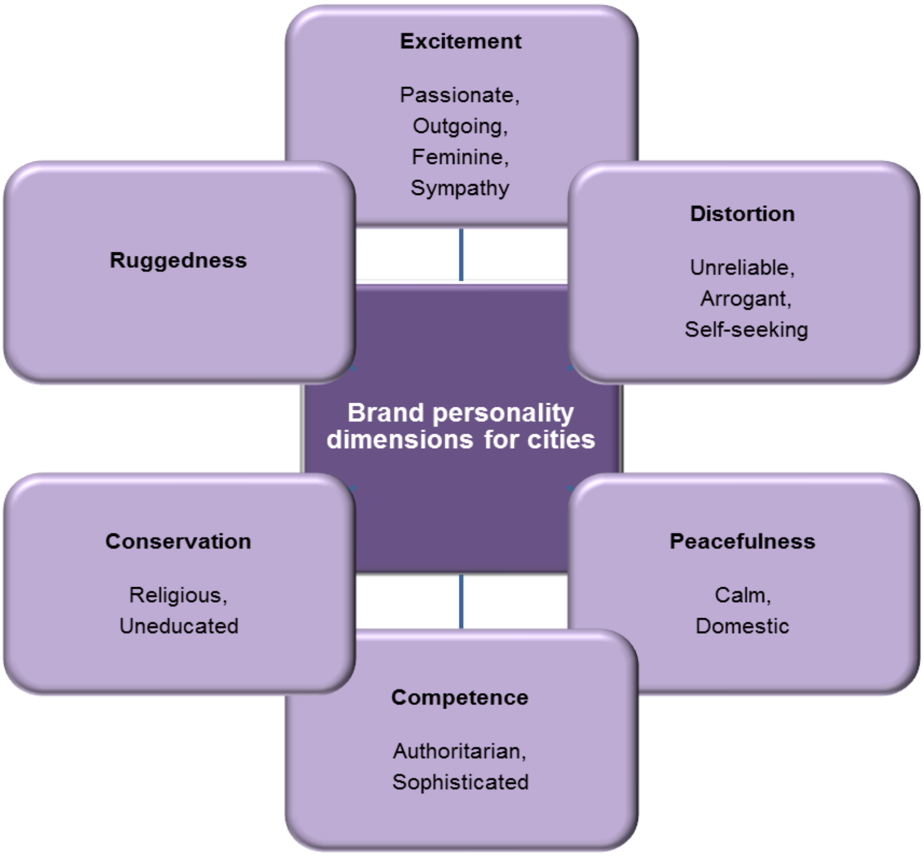
Kavaratzis and Hatch (2013:83) see the role of place brand managers as being more to initiate, facilitate and stimulate the place brand process through the inclusion of stakeholders in the process.

3.3.6 Brand personality

Aaker (1997:347) defines brand personality as the set of human characteristics associated with a brand.

In Figure 3.3, the place brand personality dimensions for cities are displayed.

Figure 3.3: Place brand personality dimensions for cities



Source: Kaplan *et al.* (2010:1295).

Kaplan *et al*. (2010:1297) state that the excitement, competence and ruggedness dimensions correspond with the brand personality dimensions as mentioned by Aaker (1997:349). However, the conservation and distortion dimensions have not yet appeared in previous research as part of brand personality (Kaplan *et al.*, 2010:1297). It can also be mentioned that the brand personality of places includes more assorted and broader dimensions than product brands due to the fact that place suggests a greater number and variety of associations. Developing a strong brand personality can assist cities in the competitive arena where cities compete for resources, labour and residents, as brand personality can promote the success of branding activities (Kaplan *et al.*, 2010:1298).

It may therefore be concluded that brand personality can be used in the branding efforts of cities and assist government and private companies to better position the city.

Finally, understanding branding concepts and their relevance to places and cities will assist with the correct implementation of city branding strategies. Therefore, the next section deals with the implementation of branding strategies within places and cities, followed by a discussion of place branding strategies within Africa, and concluding with the challenges of place and city branding.

As mentioned in Chapter 2, the target markets of city marketing include 1) visitors, 2) residents and 3) business and industry. This study will investigate only residents, and therefore the next section is devoted to how place and city branding can be used to attract residents.

3.4 Attracting residents

Place branding can been seen as an instrument to achieve the objectives of a place, either established by the relevant government or jointly decided upon by the public and private stakeholders (Braun *et al.*, 2014:65). Attracting target groups is a central aim in place branding, so experts often monitor the outcomes of place branding strategies by using several approaches including surveys, municipal statistics and the stories of diverse stakeholders (Braun *et al.*, 2014:69). City branding cannot be effectively applied to every audience in the exact same way and therefore successful city branding strategies needs to be directed at a group of a defined audience, communicating differing messages to each group while remaining true to the brand identity as a whole (Harber, 2014:6).

Due to the increased importance of place marketing, debates about the role of citizens in place branding have also increased. Most critics have argued that place marketing has often been applied in a top-down manner which excludes citizens in the planning process (Eshuis *et al.*, 2014:152). However, brands are symbols and therefore can have different meanings for the stakeholders, so the branding processes should allow for the collection of information by means of internet surveys and discussion panels, where the citizens can express their ideas and feelings with regard to the brand or product (Eshuis *et al.*, 2014:156). Place branding is therefore a process in which the emotions and feelings of residents are included in the development of the brand.

According to Braun *et al.* (2013:19), residents fulfil three main roles within place branding:

- The characteristics of the current residents within a city form an integral part of the place brand in the mind of the consumers, e.g. friendliness.
- Residents who associate themselves with the place are likely to become ambassadors of the place, so marketers should aim to strengthen this role and its associations.
- Residents, as citizens of a place/city, can make or break the place branding effort.

Place marketing has become an increasingly popular concept in recent years with the objective of attracting new, talented residents to one place who can make a positive contribution to the place (Zenker & Beckmann, 2013:12), but Eshuis *et al.* (2014:166) also argue that although residents are an important target group within the place marketing/branding process, this has not been clearly acknowledged in existing literature.

3.5 The role of urban governance in place branding

An increasing number of European cities have uncovered the value of branding, with London, Stockholm and Paris, among others, all claiming to have city branding strategies (Braun, 2012:257). According to Braun (2012:259), the branding of cities happens within the urban governance of a place, where urban governance determines how and by whom city policies are produced, decided upon and implemented (Braun, 2008:82). In the quest to better understand (urban) governance, Table 3.1 gives a summary of four major definitions of governance.

Table 3.1: Definitions of governance

Definition	Source
Governance refers to the values of a properly functioning public administration.	Eshuis and Klijn (2012:8)
Governance is a new public management / market form of governance which aims to improve government performance and accountability.	Osborne and Gaebler (1992), Kettl (2000), Fenger and Bekkers (2007)
Governance is a multi-level government or inter-governmental form of governance where the co-production of public stakeholders is needed to address all facets of societal problems.	Hooge and Marks (2002), Agranoff and McGuire (2003), Bache and Flinders (2004)
Governance occurs within networks of both public and non-public stakeholders.	Kooiman (1993), Rhodes (1996), Kickert *et al*. (1997), Sorenson and Torfing (2007)

Source: Adapted from Eshuis and Klijn (2012).

It can be deduced from Table 3.1 that these definitions share some common elements:

- Governance focuses on the process of governing instead of the structure of governance.
- Governance takes place in governance networks of co-dependent stakeholders including government, businesses and citizens.

Branding within governance processes is when a government policy is branded by giving it a clear and distinct name and associating it with feelings like positivity, empathy and responsiveness (Eshuis & Klijn, 2012:2). These authors mention that the global governance landscape in which branding takes place includes forms of horizontal governance such as public–private partnerships, interactive decision-making, shareholder involvement and citizen involvement; thus various stakeholders are included in the policy-making and implementation process. Governance and specifically the role that place/city branding plays within a governance strategy, will be discussed in the next section.

Taking into consideration the important elements of the governance process and of branding, Eshuis and Klijn (2012:19) supply a definition of a brand used in governance processes as a symbolic concept that consists of a name, term, sign, symbol, design or combination of these, produced intentionally to identify a phenomenon and differentiating it from similar phenomena by adding a specific meaning to it.

Branding has been globally applied to places and cities to change the image of regenerated areas with the aim of attracting residents and investors; thus place branding is used in urban governance strategies for influencing perceptions of places (Eshuis & Edwards, 2013:1067). Stakeholder involvement in the branding process leads to a stronger and clearer brand concept and assists in increasing its effectiveness in terms of attracting target groups such as new residents, visitors and businesses (Klijn *et al.*, 2012:14).

It can therefore be concluded that city branding is a governance process which takes place in an environment with various stakeholders.

Within the place and city branding subject field, there are various branding frameworks and models relevant to this study. These frameworks will be discussed and summarised in the next section.

3.6 Existing place/city branding frameworks and models

Various city branding frameworks and models exist within the academic literature. These frameworks were used in this study to develop a questionnaire for the development of a city branding framework for selected cities in the North West province. Table 3.2 provides a brief summary of the current city branding frameworks/models.

Table 3.2: Current city branding frameworks/models

Author	Anholt (2006)	Kavaratzis (2008)	Zenker (2009)	Merrilees *et al.* (2009)	Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012)	Zenker *et al.* (2013)
Construct	The present	Vision and strategy	Urbanity and diversity	Nature	City diversity	Urbanity and diversity
	The potential	Internal culture	Nature and recreation	Business creativity	City safety and comfort	Nature and recreation
	The people	Local communities	Job changes	Shopping	Professional and job chances	Job chances
	The prerequisites	Synergies	Cost-efficiency	Brand	City facilities	Cost-efficiency
	The pulse	Infrastructure		Intentions		
	The place	Cityscape		Transport		
		Opportunities		Cultural activities		
		Communications		Governmental service		
				Social bonding		

Table 3.3 provides a summation of the city branding factors. The different factors were re-labelled according to the overviews and meanings of the different factors.

Table 3.3: Summation of city branding factors

City branding factors	Brief overview of factors	Sources
Business/employment opportunities	Business/employment opportunities include economic development, business opportunities, easy-to-find employment, existence of professional networks and the salaries payable in a city	Anholt (2006), Merrilees *et al.* (2009), Zenker (2009), Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012), Zenker *et al.* (2013)
City diversity/culture	This dimension includes the existence of diversity within the city by means of culture and subcultures.	Anholt (2006), Kavaratzis (2008), Merrilees *et al.* (2009), Zenker (2009), Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012), Zenker *et al.* (2013)
City image	This dimension includes elements of the image of the city such as its international status, appeal, overall lifestyle and reputation.	Anholt (2006), Kavaratzis (2008), Merrilees *et al.* (2009), Zenker (2009), Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012), Zenker *et al.* (2013)
City safety	City safety includes the general level of safety of the city, amount of crime and corruption.	Anholt (2006), Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012)
Cost-efficiency	This dimension includes the cost of living and general prices in the city.	Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012), Zenker (2009), Zenker *et al.* (2013)
Educational services	This dimension includes educational services like schools and universities in a city, and quality of educational centres.	Anholt (2006), Merrilees *et al.* (2009), Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012)
Health care services	This dimension includes the health care services available in the city, access to these services and the standard of these services.	Anholt (2006), Merrilees *et al.* (2009), Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012)
Housing/accommodation	This dimension includes the availability of housing in the city and prices thereof.	Zenker *et al.* (2013)
Infrastructure	Infrastructure includes the status of the roads in the city, how traffic is managed, accessibility via roads, whether an airport exists, the general standard of public transport, and access to water.	Anholt (2006), Kavaratzis (2008), Merrilees *et al.* (2009), Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012), Zenker *et al.* (2013)

Table 3.3: Summation of city branding factors (cont.)

City branding factors	Brief overview of factors	Sources
Intention	This dimension deals with the intention to stay and retire in the city.	Merrilees *et al.* (2009)
Leisure	Leisure includes the number of leisure activities indicated by theatres, restaurants, shopping centres, and outdoor activities available in the city.	Anholt (2006), Merrilees *et al.* (2009), Zenker (2009), Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012), Zenker *et al.* (2013)
Nature and recreation	This dimension includes the availability of parks, outdoor recreational areas and green spaces in a city. It also includes the level of pollution.	Anholt (2006), Kavaratzis (2008), Merrilees *et al.* (2009), Zenker (2009), Zenker *et al.* (2013)
Social interaction	Social interaction includes the easy-to-make friends in the city, interaction with family and other people living in the city, as well as social inclusion by other residents.	Anholt (2006), Merrilees *et al.* (2009)
Vision and strategy	This dimension includes trust in the local government, the effectiveness of the local government, and residents' participation in local decision-making.	Kavaratzis (2008), Merrilees *et al.* (2009), Zenker *et al.* (2013)

These constructs were used in the development of the framework for city branding of selected cities in the North West province.

3.7 Implementing place branding

Braun (2012:265) argues that successful implementation of place branding should be performed in the context of urban governance and should cover eight factors identified for the successful implementation of a city branding strategy. These factors are divided into two groups, namely administrative factors and branding factors. Table 3.4 indicates the success factors within these two groups.

Table 3.4: City branding success factors

Administrative factors	Branding factors
Common view on the interpretation of city branding by political leadership and other stakeholders	Honest and real city brand
The inclusion of city branding in political priorities, programmes and vision	Umbrella branding for different target groups with sub-brands for relevant city customer groups
No uncertainty about the political responsibility for the successful implementation of city branding	Co-branding the city with successful brands
Sufficient stakeholder management	Balance between a distinct city brand and wider support within the city’s communities

Source: Adapted from Braun (2012:365).

These factors are very relevant to the city branding process due to the urban governance through which the branding process occurs (Braun, 2012:266).

3.8 Place branding in Africa

According to Freire (2014:32), the *Journal of Place Branding and Public Diplomacy* invited scholars and academics to submit articles regarding the place branding efforts conducted by different countries, regions and cities within Africa. The result was very disappointing as very few articles were received, of which only four were suitable for publishing, and none originated from Africa itself. It is evident that there is a great opportunity and need for more academic research in the field of “place branding”, specifically in Africa.

Braun (2012:257) states that many cities are struggling to implement city branding as there is confusion regarding the pertinent concepts, functions, effects and responsibility. Klijn *et al.* (2012) also mention that city branding does not always produce the anticipated awareness or provide more knowledge of the city to the perceived target group. Therefore, the problems and criticism with regard to the use and application of place and city branding will be discussed in the following section.

3.9 Challenges and critics of place/city branding

Since the introduction of place marketing/branding as a topic of research, there has been extensive critique, especially within the geography literature, which has served to provide a richer and deeper insight (Warnaby & Medway, 2013:347). Kavaratzis and Hatch (2013:83) argue that there is a need for an in-depth examination of the differences concerning the current place branding theory and the role of stakeholders in the branding process.

According to Medway *et al.* (2015:4), the implementation of place branding strategies was discussed at a special conference session entitled “Place branding: are we wasting our time?” where some experts supported the motion “Yes, we are wasting our time” and others supported the motion “No, we are not wasting our time”. After arguments were given, the audience voted and the team supporting “No, we are not wasting our time” were felt to have presented the best arguments. Medway *et al.* (2015:4) concluded that both teams had arrived at a point of recognition that place branding is often inadequate, as it is normally something that place branding practitioners “do to a place” rather than something that arises from it in an organic manner through the stakeholder groups such as residents and tourists. In general it was concluded that the key task of place marketing academics should be to find ways of making branding work better for places and cities (Medway *et al.*, 2015:5).

3.10 Conclusion

The chapter commenced with a discussion about the definitions and key concepts for this study, and it was concluded that based on the definitions and literature of these key concepts, the traditional branding process, together with corporate branding, can be applied to places and cities. Branding consists of various elements, and the chapter discussed key elements applicable to this study. Brand equity was discussed in terms of the customer-based brand equity model which is applicable to cities. It was concluded that place brand equity is used to portray the various aspects of a place’s performance as experienced by the various stakeholders, and is therefore a concept that needs to be taken into consideration when developing a city branding strategy. The existing literature on brand positioning, brand image, brand communication, brand identity and brand personality was explained and the conclusion was drawn that these concepts are all applicable to the branding of a city and place.

As this study focuses on the residents of particular cities within the North West province, the chapter continued with a discussion of attracting residents using branding strategies. It was mentioned that residents play an important role in the branding strategies of places and cities and that they should be included in the branding strategy development. As the branding of cities takes place by means of urban governance policies, this concept was discussed and it was determined that understanding the governance process is crucial for the successful implementation of a city branding strategy.

As a key component of this study, the existing frameworks within the place/city branding domain were identified, with a summary of the key constructs. In chapter 4 these constructs will be explained further, as they form the basis of the questionnaire used for this study.

The final section of the chapter was devoted to the implementation of place branding, the success factors needed for the successful implementation of a city branding strategy as well as a discussion of the limited research regarding place and city branding specifically within Africa.

The chapter concluded with an explanation of the challenges and critics faced by place and city branding practitioners.

The next chapter will address the research methodology of this study and will include the selected research design, data collection method, sample plan and statistical techniques used in this study.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

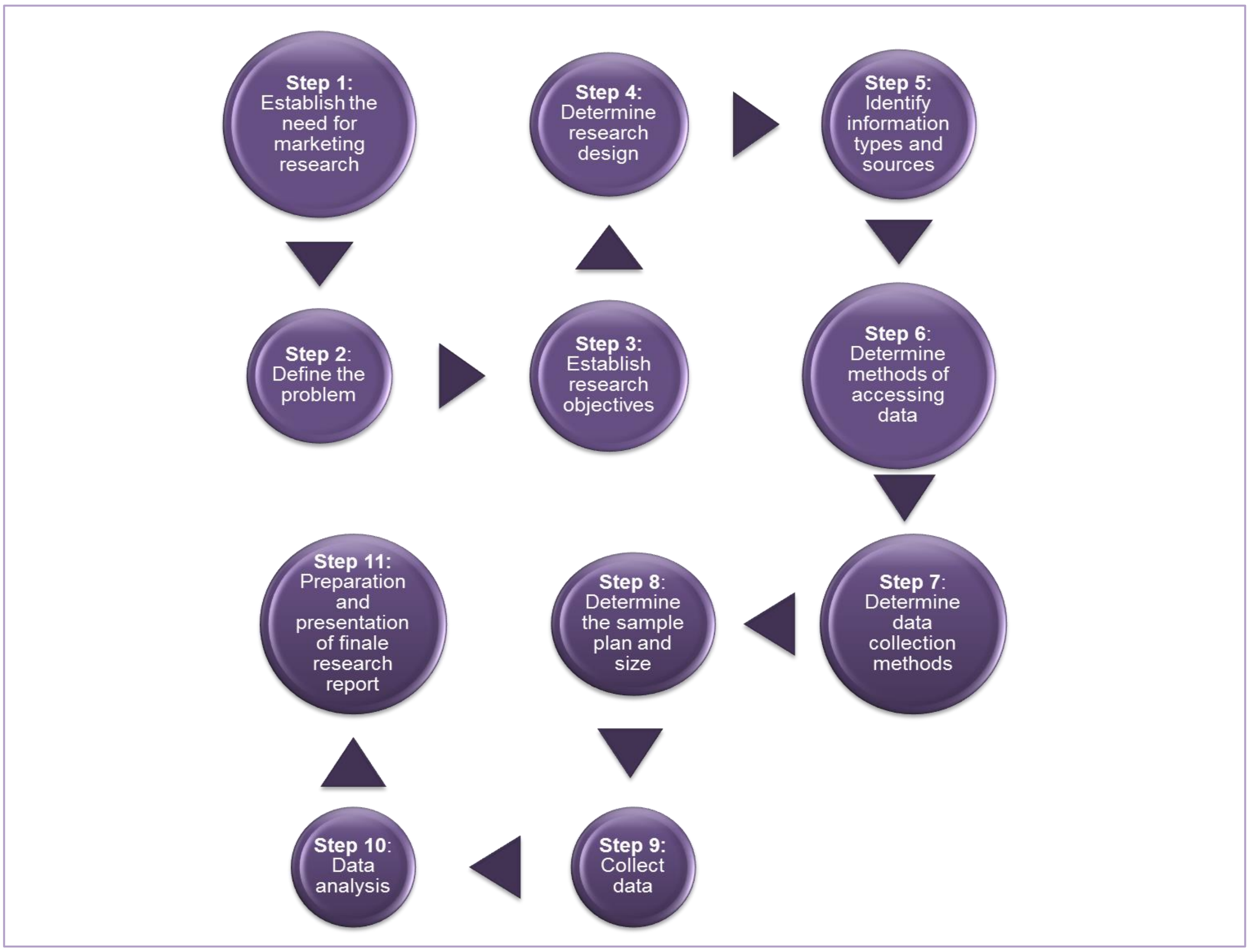
4.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to provide an understanding of the research methodology followed for this study. The different stages of the marketing research process which are followed when conducting scientific market research are discussed. The chapter commences with a definition of the marketing research process, followed by a discussion of each step followed and its applicability to this study.

4.2 Marketing research process

Burns and Bush (2014:34) define marketing research as the process of designing, collecting, analysing and reporting information which may be used to solve a specific marketing problem. In Figure 4.1 the steps in the marketing research process are presented.

Figure 4.1: Stages in the marketing research process



Source: Adapted from Burns and Bush (2014:69).

Aaker *et al.* (2013:47) mention that steps in the marketing research process do not function in isolation but are included in the on-going planning process of the business, resulting in the development of strategies, programmes and action plans.

For the purpose of this study, the framework of the marketing research process as shown in Figure 4.1 is going to be used as a framework for this chapter.

4.3 Step 1: Establish the need for marketing research

Burns and Bush (2014:70) mention that when businesses need to make decisions but do not have the information available, this signals the need for marketing research. However, not all decisions will require marketing research; therefore, as mentioned by Feinberg *et al.* (2013:28), the need for research should be clearly defined to ensure that the relevant information is obtained for making decisions.

For this study, the need for marketing research resulted from an in-depth literature review and the circumstance that very limited research about city branding has been conducted in South Africa (see also section 1.2 and section 3.8).

4.4 Step 2: Define the problem

Defining the problem for marketing research is the most important step of the process, due to the fact that should the problem be incorrectly defined, the research objectives will be incorrect and the entire marketing research process will be a waste of effort and money (Burns & Bush, 2014:73; McDaniel & Gates, 2013:35). The ultimate goal of defining the problem is to develop clear, concise and meaningful marketing research objectives (McDaniel & Gates, 2013:35).

The research problem for this study was identified while working through the available literature on the topic. The research problem for this study:

Cities are faced with increased competition to attract and retain residents. Internationally, city branding has evolved and is being applied by more and more cities to differentiate their positions as the place to stay and live. In South Africa, the academic research and application of city branding is limited. Evidently there is a need for a more academic approach towards city branding and compiling a framework that can be practically implemented by cities. Such a framework would enable local government and marketers to better understand which city branding constructs are most important to residents and enable the performance of the city to be measured in terms of these city branding constructs.

Based on the research problem statement above, the aim of this study is to develop a city branding framework which can be used by local government and marketers when developing branding strategies for their cities. This study will specifically focus on the residents in three major cities of the North West province.

4.5 Step 3: Establish research objectives

The next step in the marketing research process is the establishment of research objectives, which inform the researcher of what must be done to obtain the information needed to solve the research problem (Burns & Bush, 2014:73). The primary objective and secondary objectives for the study are indicated below.

4.5.1 Primary objective

The primary objective of this study is to develop a city branding framework for selected cities in the North West province.

4.5.2 Secondary objectives

The secondary objectives for this study, which support the primary objective, are as follows:

(1) To provide a theoretical overview of marketing, with a specific focus on place and city marketing

(2) To provide a theoretical overview of branding, including place, city and corporate branding

(3) To conduct factor analysis to reduce the theoretically determined factors of the city branding construct and to confirm the factors extracted

(4) To measure the residents’ level of experience of the respective city branding factors

(5) To measure the importance of the city branding factors among residents

(6) To present an importance–performance matrix of the city branding factors

4.6 Step 4: Determine research design

Burns and Bush (2014:74) mention that the research design refers to the research approach used to achieve the research objectives; therefore it is the framework used for conducting the marketing research project (Malhotra, 2010:102). There is no single best research design; instead different research designs offer a selection of choices, each with its advantages and disadvantages, and the researcher needs to make a trade-off between the different designs that could be used (McDaniel & Gates, 2013:42). According to Burns and Bush (2014:99) the choice of the most appropriate research design to use depends on the objectives of the study, in this case the development of a city branding framework for selected cities in the North West province.

The three widely used research designs are exploratory, descriptive and causal designs (Burns & Bush, 2014:74). These research designs will be discussed in the next section.

4.6.1 Exploratory research design

Exploratory research is characterised by being mostly unstructured, informal research with the aim of obtaining background information about the general nature of the problem, the possible decision alternatives and relevant variables that need to be considered (Aaker *et al.*, 2013:74; Burns & Bush, 2014:101). However, Babin and Zikmund (2016:54) mention that exploratory research does not provide definite evidence which can determine a course of action; therefore managers undertake exploratory research with the understanding that further research will be needed for definite answers.

4.6.2 Descriptive research design

Babin and Zikmund (2016:54) define descriptive research as research which describes characteristics of objects, people, groups, organisations and environments, thus painting a picture of a given situation. Descriptive studies focus on answering the who, what, when, where, why and how questions (Babin & Zikmund, 2016:54; Burns & Bush, 2014:103). Descriptive research is usually conducted when the researcher has a considerable understanding of the marketing situation, which could have been developed as part of exploratory research (Babin & Zikmund, 2016:56). Descriptive research is pre-planned and structured with specification of the methods for selecting the sources of information and for collecting data from those sources (Malhotra, 2010:108). The author indicates that methods for descriptive research include:

- secondary data for quantitative analysis
- surveys
- panels
- observation and other data

4.6.3 Causal research design

Managers continually make decisions based on assumed causal relationships which are not justifiable; thus formal research is required to gain evidence of cause-and-effect relationships (Malhotra, 2010:113). This formal research is called causal research, which seeks to identify the cause-and-effect relationships and show that one event makes another happen (Babin & Zikmund, 2016:57). Casual research is planned and structured and is determined by the use of experiments, which are special types of studies (Burns & Bush, 2014:107; Malhotra, 2010:113). The examination of relationships requires a causal design whereby causal and independent variables are manipulated in a relatively controlled environment (Malhotra, 2010:113).

For this study, exploratory research was conducted by means of a comprehensive literature study. Chapters 2 and 3 of this study comprise the literature study and deal with all key concepts relevant to city marketing and branding. Taking into consideration the objectives of this study, a descriptive research design is appropriate as the study aims to measure how residents experience the respective city branding factors and how important these factors are to them. It is evident that the research is pre-planned and structured and aims to describe the characteristics of residents in terms of their experience of city branding constructs and the importance they assign to these constructs.

4.7 Step 5: Identify information types and sources

As research provides information to help solve problems, researchers have to identify the type and sources of information they will use. There are two types of data, namely primary and secondary data (Burns & Bush, 2014:74). Primary data is collected by the researcher for the specific research problem at hand, whereas secondary data is information already collected for purposes other than the problem at hand (Burns & Bush, 2014:75; Malhotra, 2010:132). Significant differences between primary and secondary data are shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Differences between primary and secondary data

	Primary data	Secondary data
Purpose	Problem at hand	For other problems
Process	Very involved	Rapid and easy
Cost	High	Relatively low
Time	Long	Short

Source: Adapted from Malhotra (2010:132).

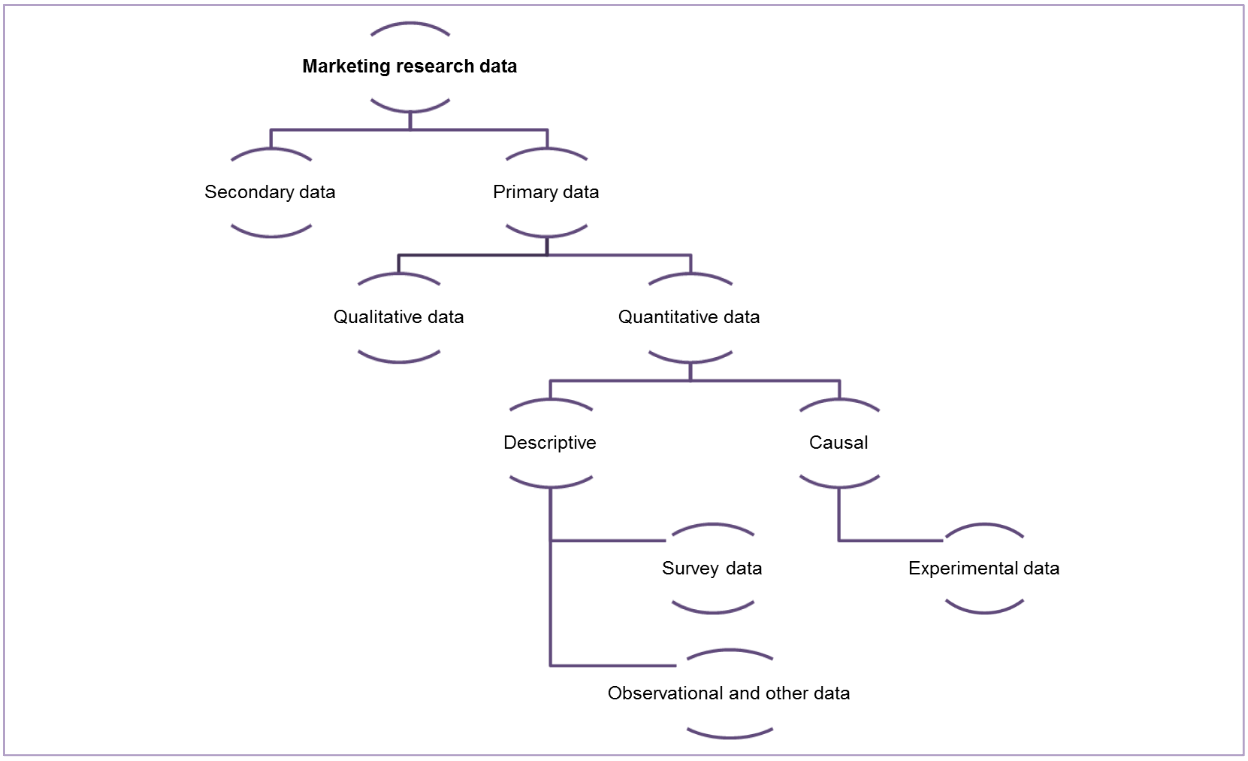
For this study, both primary and secondary data were used. The process of accessing the primary and secondary data will be discussed next.

4.8 Step 6: Determine methods of accessing data

Accessing data can take place by means of various methods. Secondary data should always be collected first (Burns & Bush, 2014:74). As indicated Table 4.1, the process of collecting secondary data is rapid and easy, and the cost is relatively low and not time-consuming. Secondary data was collected to execute the literature review with the aim of developing a theoretical background for the research problem of this study. Secondary data was obtained from various published external data sources. Published external data sources include data outside of the researcher's organisation such as journals, the internet, government sources and books (Babin & Zikmund, 2016:160; Burns & Bush, 2014:124; Malhotra, 2010:142). For this study, various marketing and branding journals were consulted (e.g. *Journal of place branding and public diplomacy* and *Journal of brand management*), the internet (e.g. American Marketing Association), government sources (e.g. Department of Social Development, South Africa), conference papers and textbooks. These secondary sources were used to build a comprehensive literature review of marketing, including place and city marketing (chapter 2) and branding, including place, city and corporate branding (chapter 3).

It is clear from Table 4.1 that the collection of primary data is more specific, involved, expensive and time-consuming. Figure 4.2 shows the different classifications of marketing research data.

Figure 4.2: Classification of marketing research data



Source: Adapted from Malhotra (2010:171).

Figure 4.2 indicates that primary data can be divided into two broad categories, namely quantitative and qualitative research data (Burns & Bush, 2014:146; Malhotra, 2010:170). Qualitative research addresses the research objectives by providing insights and understanding through techniques which provide detailed interpretations through observing what people do and say (Babin & Zikmund, 2016:109; Burns & Bush, 2014:147; Malhotra, 2010:171). Observations and statements are not standard, as the questions and observations are open ended and can be quantified only after the translation process has taken place (Burns & Bush, 2014:146). Qualitative research is normally conducted using a small number of non-representative respondents, it is unstructured, and it makes use of non-statistical data analysis with the aim of developing an initial understanding (Malhotra, 2010:171). Babin and Zikmund (2016:112) indicate that qualitative research is subjective in nature, which means that different researchers may reach different conclusions based on the same data.

In contrast, quantitative research is research involved in the administration of a set of structured questions with predetermined response options (Burns & Bush, 2014:146). The objective is to quantify data and generalise the results to the population of interest by using a large number of respondents and statistically analysing their responses (Creswell, 2014:4; Malhotra, 2010:171).

For this study, quantitative research was selected which enabled the researchers to calculate the data and generalize the results from the sample selected (Malhotra, 2010:171). Malhotra (2010:171) also suggest using quantitative when there are a large number of representative cases, in this case, the residents of three cities in the North West province. The study made use of a set of structured questions with predetermined response options (Burns & Bush, 2014:146), which were statistically analysed.

4.8.1 Methods of data collection

As indicated in Figure 4.2 descriptive studies normally use two designs to collect data, namely asking questions/survey data and observations (Hair *et al.*, 2010:105). Babin and Zikmund (2016:167) and Burns and Bush (2014:146) indicate that survey research involves using a survey to represent a way of describing public opinion through the collection of primary data by communicating directly with the individual sampling units, and it is normally quantitative in nature. Observations, on the other hand, involve the systematic observation and recording of behavioural displays of people, objects and events (Aaker *et al.*, 2013:197; Hair *et al.*, 2010:89).

For this study, survey research was used as the information gathered in a survey often addresses multiple research questions and can describe what is happening, what people believe, and what they like (Babin & Zikmund, 2016:168). Surveys also gather information to assess consumer knowledge and awareness of products and brands and are used to measure customer attitudes, feelings and behaviour (Babin & Zikmund, 2016:169). Surveys are also quick, normally inexpensive, efficient and an accurate means of assessing information about the population (Babin & Zikmund, 2016:168).

The different types of data collection methods available for survey research are shown in Table 4.2. These methods have been categorised based on the use of an interviewer and computer technology used.

Table 4.2: Data collection methods

	No computer	Computer-assisted
Interviewer	Person-administered	Computer-assisted
No interviewer	Self-administered	Computer-administered

Source: Adapted from Burns and Bush (2014:175).

Person-administered surveys are characterised by the interviewer reading the questions to respondents, either face to face or over the telephone, and recording their response without the use of a computer (Babin & Zikmund, 2016:174; Burns & Bush, 2014:175). Techniques to collect person-administered surveys include the following (Hair *et al.*, 2010:107):

- in-home interviews, which are face-to-face structured question and answer exchanges performed in the respondent's home
- mall intercepts, where the face-to-face interview takes place in a mall. Respondents are stopped and asked to complete the survey

Self-administered surveys are when the respondents complete the survey on their own, with no human or computer administering the interview (Burns & Bush, 2014:179). Babin and Zikmund (2016:178–180) indicate that person-administered and self-administered surveys can take place by means of mail surveys, a mail survey panel, drop-off surveys or online surveys.

In the case of computer-administered surveys, the role of technology, and specifically a computer, is integral in posing the questions. Burns and Bush (2014:179) argue that with computer-administered surveys no interviewer is present. The respondent is directed to a website that hosts the survey, which is then completed by the respondent (Burns & Bush, 2014:179).

It was decided to use surveys administered by a person (the interviewer) for this study and include in-house interviews as well as mall intercepts. According to Burns and Bush (2014:196) and Hair *et al.* (2010:108), in-house interviewing is conducted in the privacy of the respondent's own house, making the respondent feel more comfortable. Both in-house interviews and mall intercepts enable the interviewer to answer questions the respondents might have, ensuring that the respondent understands the questions correctly. This type of survey is also a fast and convenient way of collecting data, and the interviewer can ensure that the correct respondents are interviewed by screening them beforehand. According to Hair *et al.* (2010:108), interviewers might record responses incorrectly, or influence the respondents with their body language or facial expression. Therefore the interviewers were provided with extensive training to offset these disadvantages.

The next section will discuss the design of the data collection form, in this case the questionnaire used for the collection of the data.

4.9 Step 7: Design data collection forms

Malhotra (2010:334) argues that survey research requires some form of standardisation so as to ensure that the data collected are internally consistent and can be analysed in a uniform and coherent manner, therefore suggesting the use of a questionnaire. The author defines a questionnaire as a formalised set of questions for obtaining information from respondents. Questionnaire design is a very important stage in the survey process, as a bad questionnaire provides bad results (Babin & Zikmund, 2016:304). A questionnaire is a tool which allows the researcher to translate the information required into a set of specific questions which the respondents can and will answer. The questionnaire must also aim to minimise response error, when a respondent gives inaccurate answers or their answers are incorrectly recorded or misanalysed (Malhotra, 2010:335).

The following section describes the scales of measurement used in the questionnaire, followed by the types of response formats. Thereafter, the questionnaire layout and sources used to develop the statements are presented as well as a short discussion pertaining to the pilot study conducted.

4.9.1 Scales of measurements

The quality of the response to any question depends directly on the scale measurements used by the researcher (Hair *et al.*, 2010:153), as not all scales capture the same richness in a measurement. Hair *et al.* (2010:153) states that scale measurement involves allocating a set of scale descriptors to represent the range of possible responses to a question or statement. All scale elements can be classified as one of four basic scale levels, which will now be explained.

- **Nominal scale:** A nominal scale assigns a value to an object for identification or classification purposes and is the most basic and least powerful scale design (Babin & Zikmund, 2016:271; Hair *et al.*, 2010:153). Answers to nominal scales include yes/no, agree/disagree or any instance where the descriptors cannot be differentiated and are normally used to indicate gender, race, religion and type of employment (Burns & Bush, 2014:205). Babin and Zikmund (2016:273) state that nominal scales do not represent quantities but are very useful in marketing research.

- **Ordinal scale:** An ordinal scale enables the researcher to rank order the respondents or their responses (Babin & Zikmund, 2016:274; Burns & Bush, 2014:205). It is therefore a ranking scale in which numbers are allocated to indicate the relative degree to which the objects have some characteristic (Malhotra, 2010:286). An ordinal scale allows a researcher to determine whether an object has more or less of a characteristic but not how much more or less; hence an ordinal scale can indicate relative position but not the magnitude of the difference between the objects (Malhotra, 2010:286).

- **Interval scale:** Interval scales have both nominal and ordinal properties but can capture information about differences in quantities of a concept, as the scale represents numerically equal distances between values in the characteristics being measured (Babin & Zikmund, 2016:275; Malhotra, 2010:286). Malhotra (2010:286) indicates that with interval scales the differences between any two scale values are identical to the difference between any other two adjacent values. When using interval scales, the researcher is able to calculate not only the mode and median but also the mean and standard deviation of the respondent's answers (Hair *et al.*, 2010:155).

- **Ratio scale:** Ratio scales are the highest-level scale as they enable researchers not only to identify the absolute differences between each scale point but also to make absolute comparisons between the responses (Hair *et al.*, 2010:155). In the case of ratio scales, a true zero point exists, so ratio scales can identify objects, classify objects, rank objects and compare intervals or differences (Malhotra, 2010:288).

For the purpose of this study, nominal, ordinal and interval scales were used during the questionnaire design. Nominal data was used at the screening, gender and ethnicity questions as this type of data is used for the determination of equality/inequality and the researcher will be able to do frequency counts and percentages (McDaniel & Gates, 2013:210). Ordinal data was used in the questionnaire to order data (McDaniel & Gates, 2013:211), and interval data was used as it enables the researcher to report on findings not only of hierarchical differences but also absolute differences between the data (Hair *et al.*, 2010:155). The types of scale used for each question in the questionnaire are indicated in Table 4.3.

4.9.2 Types of question formats

According to Hair *et al.* (2010:180), questionnaire design is a systematic process which involves a series of logical actions, and one of these actions is to decide on the type of question format to be used. The question format can include unstructured (open-ended) or structured (closed-ended) questions (Hair *et al.*, 2010:180).

Unstructured questions are open-ended questions which enable the respondents to supply their answers in their own words (Hair *et al.*, 2010:180). Feinberg *et al.* (2013:274) indicates that open-ended questions allow for general attitudes to be expressed, which aids the researcher when interpreting more structured questions. The authors also mention that unstructured questions are normally useful for exploratory research designs. However, a major disadvantage of unstructured questions is the time associated with answering this type of question, as well as the potential for interviewer bias (Feinberg *et al.*, 2013:274).

Structured questions, also known as closed-ended questions, give the respondents a limited number of specified alternatives to choose from; thus the respondents are asked to choose from the predetermined set of responses or scale points (Babin & Zikmund, 2016:306; Hair *et al.*, 2010:180). Structured questions can be classified into multiple-choice questions, dichotomous questions and scale questions (Malhotra, 2010:344). These types of questions are discussed next.

- **Multiple-choice questions:** With multiple-choice questions, the respondent is given a choice of answers and they should choose one or more of the alternatives given (Malhotra, 2010:344). Feinberg *et al.* (2013:276) mention that some of the questions can reply using scales, whereas others ask for ratings, some require trade-offs, and some allow for an "all that apply" option.

- **Dichotomous questions:** Dichotomous questions normally offer two response alternatives, with often an added alternative such as "don't know" or "no option" (Babin & Zikmund, 2016:309; Malhotra, 2010:278).

- **Scale questions:** Scale questions provide a range upon which measured objects are located (Malhotra, 2010:282). Scaling techniques can be classified into two categories: comparative scales and non-comparative scales.
    - **Comparative scales:** Comparative scales involve the direct comparison of objectives when a respondent expresses their attitudes, feelings, or behaviours about an object or its attributes (Hair *et al.*, 2010:166; Malhotra, 2010:289).

    - **Non-comparative scales:** These scales are also referred to as monadic or metric scales, as each object is scaled independently of the others in the stimulus set; thus the respondent expresses their attitudes, behaviour or intentions about an object without making reference to another object (Hair *et al.*, 2010:166; Malhotra, 2010:289).

Non-comparative scaling is the most widely used scale in marketing research (Feinberg *et al.*, 2013:462; Malhotra, 2010:288).

- **Multi-item scale:** This is a scale that includes various statements relating to an object or construct being examined (Hair *et al.*, 2010:168).

- **Likert-type scale:** The Likert-type scale is the most common scaling method in all of survey research (Feinberg *et al.*, 2013:462). With a Likert-type scale, respondents are asked to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement with each of a series of statements regarding an object or objects (Burns & Bush, 2014; Malhotra, 2010). According to Babin and Zikmund (2016:287), the scale results indicate the respondent's attitude ranging from very positive to very negative. The authors also mention that researchers commonly use five options, although they also often use six or seven options.

For the purpose of this study, only structured questions were utilised, as these questions are used more frequently, are easy for respondents to complete and easily captured (Hair *et al.*, 2010:180). Dichotomous and multiple-choice questions were used to reduce interviewer bias, and these types of questions are also easy and quick to answer, which saves money and time (Feinberg *et al.*, 2013:277). A multiple-item scale was used in the questionnaire. The city branding construct has multiple factors, therefore the multiple-item scale is very applicable. Multiple-item questions are also more reliable and valid to use (Hair *et al.*, 2010:168). It was decided to make use of a five-point Likert-type scale to measure the respondent's level of agreement with, and level of importance accorded to, the given statements, which measured the city branding construct. Malhotra (2010:309) also states that this type of question is easy to construct and administer, and respondents easily understand how to use the scale.

4.9.3 Questionnaire layout

According to Babin and Zikmund (2016:320), questionnaire flow refers to the ordering of questions in a questionnaire. The authors revealed that the layout of the questionnaire is a very critical matter, as the questionnaire's layout and the ease with which the respondents complete the questionnaire might have an effect on the quality of the information gathered. A well-organised questionnaire therefore motivates respondents to be conscientious and complete, enabling researchers to get valuable information (Burns & Bush, 2014:222).

Malhotra (2010:351) argues that questions should be asked in a logical way, so that questions that deal with a specific topic should be finished with before beginning on a new topic. The questionnaire should start with an introduction to the study by introducing the interviewer, followed by the general purpose of the study. By reading the introduction, the respondents should be made aware of how and why they are selected, followed by their agreement to participate in the study. (Burns & Bush, 2014:222). Screening questions are used in most questionnaires, with the purpose of identifying and qualifying prospective respondents and preventing unqualified respondents from being included into the sample (Burns & Bush, 2014:184; Hair *et al.*, 2010:224). After the screening questions, the initial questions should be simple, interesting and non-threatening to the respondent so as to get their attention and show them the ease of responding to the questions (Burns & Bush, 2014:225; Hair *et al.*, 2010:260). The format, spacing and positioning of questions can have a meaningful effect on results; therefore Malhotra (2010:352) suggests that the questionnaire be divided into several sections which are clearly numbered and give clear instructions on how to answer the questions. Branching questions, or skip questions, are used to direct respondents to different places in the questionnaire, which depend on how they respond to the question at hand (Malhotra, 2010:351).

The questions, response formats, measurement scales and sources used to develop the questionnaire are shown Table 4.3. It is also mentioned in Table 4.3 whether a statement was adapted or adopted from the source. This table is only a summary of the questionnaire; the pre-test questionnaire is supplied in Annexure A and the final questionnaire in Annexure B. The changes made to the pre-test questionnaire are discussed in 4.9.4 of this chapter. The next section discusses each of the sections of the final questionnaire used in this study. In Table 4.3 the name of the city is indicated as [city] but the questionnaires were customised for each city by inserting the particular city name.

Table 4.3: Questions, response formats and measurement scales used in this study

Question / statement number	Question / statement	Response format	Measurement scale	Source	Adapted/ adopted
Screening questions					
Question 1	In which city do you reside?	Multiple-choice	Nominal	Self-generated	-
Question 2	Are you a permanent resident of city mentioned at question 1 for more than 2 years?	Dichotomous	Nominal	Self-generated	-
Question 3	Please indicate your age?	Multiple-choice	Ordinal	Self-generated	-
Section A: Demographic information					
Question 1	What is your gender?	Dichotomous	Nominal	Self-generated	-
Question 2	What is your highest level of education?	Multiple-choice	Ordinal	Self-generated	-
Question 3	What is your ethnicity?	Multiple-choice	Nominal	Self-generated	-
Question 4	What is your current employment status?	Multiple-choice	Nominal	Self-generated	-

Table 4.3: Questions, response formats and measurement scales used in this study (cont.)

Question / statement number	Question / statement	Response format	Measurement scale	Source	Adapted/ adopted
Section B: Level of experience and importance					
Business					
Statement 1	[City] is a good place to do business in	Multi-item scale – Likert-type scale	Interval	Merrilees *et al*. (2009)	Adopted
Statement 2	[City] has good economic growth	Multi-item scale – Likert-type scale	Interval	Zenker (2009)	Adapted
Statement 3	There are many self-employment opportunities in [city]	Multi-item scale – Likert-type scale	Interval	Merrilees *et al*. (2009)	Adopted
Statement 4	The business in [city] is innovative	Multi-item scale – Likert-type scale	Interval	Merrilees *et al*. (2009)	Adopted
Cityscape					
Statement 5	[City] has lots of parks and available green zones	Multi-item scale – Likert-type scale	Interval	Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012)	Adopted
Statement 6	There is access to clean outdoor recreational areas in [city]	Multi-item scale – Likert-type scale	Interval	Merrilees *et al*. (2009)	Adopted
Statement 7	[City] has low pollution	Multi-item scale – Likert-type scale	Interval	Zenker (2009)	Adopted
Statement 8	[City] is a clean city	Multi-item scale – Likert-type scale	Interval	Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012)	Adapted
Education					
Statement 9	There is a high quality of school education available in [city]	Multi-item scale – Likert-type scale	Interval	Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012)	Adopted

Table 4.3: Questions, response formats and measurement scales used in this study (cont.)

Question / statement number	Question / statement	Response format	Measurement scale	Source	Adapted/ adopted
Education					
Statement 10	There are many educational facilities in [city]	Multi-item scale – Likert-type scale	Interval	Merrilees *et al.* (2009)	Adopted
Statement 11	The general standard of the local schools in [city] is good	Multi-item scale – Likert-type scale	Interval	Anholt (2006)	Adapted
Statement 12	There are prestigious tertiary institutions in [city]	Multi-item scale – Likert-type scale	Interval	Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012)	Adopted
Culture					
Statement 13	There is a lot of different cultures and ethnical groups in [city]	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012)	Adapted
Statement 14	There is sufficient cultural centres in [city]	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Kavaratzis (2008)	Adapted
Statement 15	[City] has made an important contribution to the South Africa's culture	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Anholt (2006)	Adopted
Statement 16	[City] has a good cultural diversity	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Merrilees *et al.* (2009)	Adopted
Housing					
Statement 17	There is sufficient housing available in [city]	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012)	Adopted
Statement 18	It is easy to find affordable housing in [city]	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Anholt (2006)	Adapted

Table 4.3: Questions, response formats and measurement scales used in this study (cont.)

Question / statement number	Question / statement	Response format	Measurement scale	Source	Adapted/ adopted
Statement 19	The housing market in [city] is favourable	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Zenker (2009)	Adopted
		Image			
Statement 20	[City] has a very attractive image	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012)	Adapted
Statement 21	[City] has a good national status	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Anholt (2006)	Adapted
Statement 22	There is a good energy in [city]	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Zenker *et al.* (2013)	Adapted
Statement 23	The image of [city] is appealing	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Zenker (2009)	Adopted
		Infrastructure			
Statement 24	[City] is easy to reach from most other cities	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012)	Adopted
Statement 25	The traffic in [city] is well organised	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012)	Adopted
Statement 26	The roads in [city] is well maintained	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Merrilees *et al.* (2009)	Adopted
Statement 27	The public transport in [city] is adequate	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Merrilees *et al.* (2009)	Adapted
Statement 28	[City] has easy access to water	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Zenker *et al.* (2013)	Adapted

Table 4.3: Questions, response formats and measurement scales used in this study (cont.)

Question / statement number	Question / statement	Response format	Measurement scale	Source	Adapted/ adopted
Leisure and shopping					
Statement 29	[City] has a diverse range of restaurants	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Merrilees *et al.* (2009)	Adopted
Statement 30	There is sufficient amount of cultural events / festivals in [city]	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Merrilees *et al.* (2009)	Adopted
Statement 31	[City] has a wide range of outdoor activities	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Zenker (2009)	Adopted
Statement 32	There is interesting things to do in [city]	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Anholt (2006)	Adopted
Statement 33	[City] has a wide range of shopping opportunities	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Zenker (2009)	Adopted
Medical care					
Statement 34	[City] has a high quality of medical care faculties	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012)	Adapted
Statement 35	[City] has good access to medical care	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Merrilees *et al.* (2009)	Adapted
Employment					
Statement 36	[City] has a diversified employment opportunities	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012)	Adapted
Statement 37	In [city] it is easy to find employment	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Anholt (2006)	Adapted

Table 4.3: Questions, response formats and measurement scales used in this study (cont.)

Question / statement number	Question / statement	Response format	Measurement scale	Source	Adapted/ adopted
Leisure and shopping					
Statement 38	The salaries in [city] is good	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Zenker (2009)	Adapted
Statement 39	There is a lot of professional networks in [city]	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Zenker (2009)	Adopted
Safety					
Statement 40	You feel safe in [city]	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Anholt (2006)	Adapted
Statement 41	The level of crime in [city] is lower than the average of South Africa	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012)	Adapted
Statement 42	There is a low level of corruption in [city]	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Shafranskaya and Potapov (2012)	Adopted
Social interactions					
Statement 43	[City] is a good place for bonding with your family	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Merrilees *et al.* (2009)	Adopted
Statement 44	It is easy to make friends in [city]	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Merrilees *et al.* (2009)	Adopted
Statement 45	The people in [city] is friendly	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Anholt (2006)	Adopted
Statement 46	It is easy to fit into the community of [city]	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Anholt (2006)	Adopted

Table 4.3: Questions, response formats and measurement scales used in this study (cont.)

Question / statement number	Question / statement	Response format	Measurement scale	Source	Adapted/ adopted
Leisure and shopping					
Statement 47	The residents in [city] is intolerant against outsiders	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Anholt (2006)	Adapted
Vision and strategy					
Statement 48	I'm proud to stay in [city]	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Merrilees *et al.* (2009)	Adopted
Statement 49	The overall lifestyle of [city] is good	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Merrilees *et al.* (2009)	Adopted
Statement 50	I trust the local government of [city] to make good decisions	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Merrilees *et al.* (2009)	Adapted
Statement 51	The effectiveness of [city]'s governing structure is good	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Kavaratzis (2008)	Adapted
Statement 52	Residents can participate in local decision making	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Kavaratzis (2008)	Adapted
Statement 53	The local vision of [city] is favourable	Multi-item scale – Likert type scale	Interval	Kavaratzis (2008)	Adopted

Table 4.3: Questions, response formats and measurement scales used in this study (cont.)

Question / statement number	Question / statement	Response format	Measurement scale	Source	Adapted/ adopted
Section C: Level of importance					
Question 1	Below is a list of characteristics that a city might hold. Select five characteristics that are most important to you, and rank them from 1 to 5. Where 1 = the most important, 2 = the second most important, 3 = the third most important, 4 = the fourth most important and 5 = the fifth most important characteristic.	Multiple choice	Ordinal	Self-generated	-

- **Screening questions**

Screening questions were used in this questionnaire to allow only residents older than 18 years of age who had permanently resided in Potchefstroom or Klerksdorp or Rustenburg for more than 2 years to complete the questionnaire. Should the respondent have answered “no” to either of these questions, they were not required to continue with the questionnaire.

- **Section A: Demographic information**

The purpose of section A of the questionnaire was to obtain demographic information such as age, gender, education level, ethnicity and employment status of the respondents. The age groupings were obtained from previous studies to ensure consistency of age categories.

- **Section B: Level of experience**

Section B measured the level of experience of residents of a particular town in respect of each statement. The respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with each of the statements. The relevant city’s name was inserted into each statement for clarification purposes. The statements were all multi-item Likert-type scale questions, where the respondent firstly had to indicate their level of agreement with the anchor options from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree.

- **Section C: Level of importance**

This section measured the level of importance of the city branding factors. The respondents were asked to choose five characteristics (factors) which were the most important to them and rank them from 1 = most important to 5 = fifth most important.

4.9.4 Pre-testing the questionnaire

The final evaluation of the questionnaire is done by means of a pre-test (Hair *et al.*, 2010:191), which involves testing the questionnaire on a small sample of representative respondents to expose any questionnaire errors before the survey is launched (Burns & Bush, 2014:229; Malhotra, 2010:354). According to Malhotra (2010:354), all aspects of the questionnaire should be tested, including the question content, wording, sequence, form and layout. It is best to conduct the pre-test through personal interviews, as the interviewers are able to observe respondents' reaction and attitudes (Malhotra, 2010:354). Hair *et al.* (2010:191) mention that the number of respondents to interview during the pre-test is normally between 20 and 30 individuals, and respondents should be informed that they are busy with a pre-test and should indicate any questions which are difficult to follow and understand. The responses from the pre-test should be coded and analysed as this can serve as a check on the adequacy of the problem definition and data required (Malhotra, 2010:354).

It was decided to pre-test the questionnaire among 30 respondents in the Potchefstroom area as this is the number of respondents usually interviewed for pre-testing (Hair *et al.*, 2010:191). Interviews were done by means of personal interviews to flag any problem areas. The data obtained were coded and analysed to ensure that the information needed was received.

After the pre-test was done, the following changes were made to the questionnaire before the final data collection took place.

- Introduction

It was decided to ask the respondents for contact details, so that call-backs could be done to verify that the interview actually took place and that the interviewee understood the questions in the questionnaire.

- Screening questions

It was decided to replace the question “Are you older than 18 years of age?” with the multi-choice question “Please indicate your age”, which was asked in section A. Replacing this question could serve a dual purpose. The respondent had to indicate their age only once, and the response indicated whether the respondent qualified to answer the questionnaire and also gave demographic information of the respondent.

- Section A

The “Please indicate your age” question was moved to the screening question section.

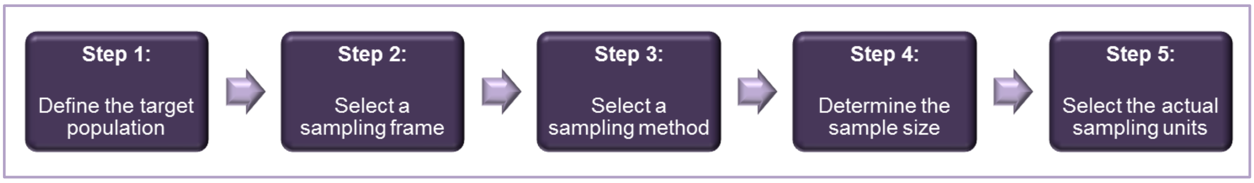
- Section B

Two changes were made to this section. Firstly, it was decided to remove the level of importance questions. The mean for these questions was 6.19, which indicated that almost all statements were important. This indicated that the question would not be able to determine what factors were more important than others, and therefore section C was added. Secondly, the scale used was changed from a 7-point Likert-type scale to a 5-point Likert-type scale. The reason was based on the suggestion made by Revilla *et al.* (2014:89) to use a 5-point Likert scale because this type of scale yielded better quality data and because the more categories a scale has, the lower the quality and validity of the data.

4.10 Step 8: Determine the sample plan and size

Sampling is an important part of the marketing research process. In most cases it is not possible to contact the entire population, it is also inconvenient and far too expensive and therefore sampling is used (Babin & Zikmund, 2016:337). Sampling can be defined as the selection of a relatively small number of elements, or subset, from a larger defined group of elements or larger population (Babin & Zikmund, 2016:337; Hair *et al.*, 2010:130). A five-step procedure is presented in Figure 4.3 which indicates the steps to be followed when designing a sample plan.

Figure 4.3: Designing a sampling plan



Source: Adapted from Babin and Zikmund (2016:340) and McDaniel and Gates (2013:279).

4.10.1 Step 1: Define the target population

The target population can be defined as the collection of elements or objects that own the information required by the researcher and about which conclusions are to be made (Malhotra, 2010:372). The target population is normally specified in terms of geographical or demographic characteristics, product or service uses, or awareness measures (McDaniel & Gates, 2013:279). Malhotra (2010:372) indicates that the target population should be defined in terms of elements, sampling units and time. The author defines an element as the object about which or from which the information is desired, normally referred to as the respondent. The sampling units are the target population elements actually available to be used during the sampling process, the basic level of investigation (Burns & Bush, 2014:239; Hair *et al.*, 2010:131).

The target population for this study was all residents above the age of 18 years who had permanently resided in Potchefstroom or Klerksdorp or Rustenburg for more than 2 years.

4.10.2 Step 2: Select a sampling frame

The sampling frame can be defined as the master source of the sample units in the population, thus the list of all qualified sampling units (Burns & Bush, 2014:240; Hair *et al.*, 2010:131). Identifying the sampling frame may mean specifying the procedure to generate a list of sample units which is complete and accurate, but unfortunately there is usually no such list (McDaniel & Gates, 2013:281). According to Burns and Bush (2014:240), sample frame error is the degree to which the sample frame fails to include all the sample elements of the population and should be taken into account when defining the sample frame.

For the purpose of this study, a sample frame could not be defined, as there is no complete list of permanent residents in Potchefstroom, Klerksdorp or Rustenburg. Therefore, the fieldworkers made use of the screening questions in the questionnaire to ensure that they met the criteria for the target population before continuing with the questionnaire.

4.10.3 Step 3: Select a sampling method

The third step in developing a sample plan is the selection of a sampling method to be used. The selection of the sampling method will depend on the objectives of the study, the financial resources available, time limitations and the nature of the problem (McDaniel & Gates, 2013:282). According to Burns and Bush (2014:242) all sample designs can be categorised into probability and non-probability sampling. These two classifications will be discussed next.

4.10.3.1 Probability sampling

Probability sampling refers to a sampling procedure whereby each sampling unit in the defined target population has a known chance of being selected for the sample (Hair *et al.*, 2010). This type of sampling is done by mathematical rules and does not leave any discretion to the researcher or field interviewer; hence the target population should be precisely defined, and also a general specification of the sample frame is needed (Feinberg *et al.*, 2013:304; Malhotra, 2010:377). Probability sampling techniques include simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling and cluster sampling (Burns & Bush, 2014:243; Malhotra, 2010:376). Table 4.4 discusses these techniques in more detail.

4.10.3.2 Non-probability sampling

Non-probability sampling is the procedure whereby samples in the population are selected in a non-random manner; thus the sampling relies on the personal judgement of the researcher instead of chance to be selected (Malhotra, 2010:376; McDaniel & Gates, 2013:282). Burns and Bush (2014:242) mention that with non-probability sampling there is no way to determine the probability, even when the population size is known, as non-probability sampling is subjective and makes use of human intervention. Non-probability sampling techniques include convenience sampling, judgement sampling, quota sampling and snowball sampling (Hair *et al.*, 2010:132; Malhotra, 2010:376). The different techniques are discussed in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Probability and non-probability sampling techniques

Probability sampling	
Simple random sampling	With this technique, every sampling unit has a known and equal chance of being selected (Hair *et al*., 2010:134). The researcher makes use of random numbers from a computer, digit dialling or some form of random selection procedure to ensure that each member of the population in the sample frame has a chance of being selected (Burns & Bush, 2014:243).
Systematic sampling	Burns and Bush (2014:243) mention that systematic sampling is the use of a sample frame that lists members of the population. The researcher then selects a random starting point for the first sample member, thereafter picking every i^{th} element in sequence from the sampling frame (Malhotra, 2010:383).
Stratified sampling	Stratified sampling involves the division of the target population into different groups and then selecting samples from each group (Hair *et al*., 2010:134) by making use of simple random sampling. For example, the target population can be divided into male and female respondents and then samples are selected from each group.

Table 4.4: Probability and non-probability sampling techniques (cont.)

Probability sampling	
Cluster sampling	In cluster sampling, the primary sampling unit is not an individual element any more but rather a larger cluster of elements (Babin & Zikmund, 2016:354); therefore with cluster sampling the target population is divided into mutually exclusive clusters, and then random samples of clusters are selected (Malhotra, 2010:385). For example, residential areas in a city can be identified and then a sample can be drawn of these areas.
Non-probability sampling	
Convenience sampling	Convenience sampling refers to sampling whereby people or units are obtained that are conveniently available, and the selection of respondents is done by the interviewer, as the respondents happen to be in the right place at the right time. Techniques include mall intercepts and interviews with people on the street (Babin & Zikmund, 2016:348; Malhotra, 2010:377).
Judgemental sampling	Hair *et al*. (2010:138) and Babin and Zikmund (2016:349) state that judgemental sampling occurs when a respondent is selected because the researcher or interviewer believes they meet the requirements of the study.
Quota sampling	In quota sampling, the researcher identifies quota characteristics, such as demographics or use factors, and uses these characteristics to set quotas for each class of respondents (Burns & Bush, 2014:225). Hair *et al*. (2010:139) mention that the purpose of quota sampling is to ensure that the pre-specified subgroups of the population are represented
Snowball sampling	Snowball sampling involves the identification of a set of respondents who can assist the researcher to identify additional people to interview (Hair *et al*., 2010:139).

For the purpose of this study, non-probability sampling was used, as there is no sample frame for this study. The non-probability techniques include a combination of quota and convenience sampling. Quota sampling was selected as this technique creates samples which contain specific subgroups in the proportions required by the researcher (Hair *et al.*, 2010:138). In the case of this study, the quota characteristics were city of residence and gender. Convenience sampling was also used as it enables researchers to interview a large number of respondents in a relatively short time (Babin & Zikmund, 2016:349; Hair *et al.*, 2010:138). Consequently, the two-stage sampling entailed firstly dividing the population into a quota, based on city of residence and gender, and then realising the quotas by means of convenience sampling.

4.10.4 Step 4: Determine the sampling size

Sample size indicates the number of elements to be included in the study (Malhotra, 2010:374). The author mentions that the determination of a sample size is usually complex where qualitative and quantitative considerations are involved. Hair *et al.* (2010:142) indicates that sample size determination differs between probability and non-probability designs. The author also mentions that sample formulas (quantitative) cannot be used for non-probability samples, and are usually done subjectively and spontaneously where the judgement made by the researchers is based on past studies, industry standards or the amount of resources available.

As mentioned, non-probability sampling was used for this study due to the lack of a sample frame; therefore statistical formulas could not be used to determine the sample size (Hair *et al.*, 2010:142). As the nature of this study is problem-solving research, the minimum sample size suggested is 200 respondents and the typical sample size between 300 and 500 respondents (Malhotra, 2010:375). Hence it was decided on a sample of 600 respondents. The quota sample and sample size of this study are presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Sample size

City	Total sample	Gender	
		Male	Female
Rustenburg	200	100	100
Klerksdorp	200	100	100
Potchefstroom	200	100	100

4.10.5 Step 5: Select the actual sampling units

In this step, the researcher should decide how the prospective respondents will be contracted; therefore clear instructions should be provided to the interviewers to know what they should do and how to handle problems (Hair *et al.*, 2010:144). A summary of the sample plan for this study is presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Sample plan of this study

Sample plan	
Target population	Permanent residents, 18 years and older, residing in Rustenburg, Klerksdorp or Potchefstroom
Sampling frame	No sampling frame exists

Table 4.6: Sample plan of this study (cont.)

Sample plan	
Sampling method	Non-probability sampling, two-stage sampling procedure – quota and convenience samples
Sampling units and elements	Permanent residents who have resided in Rustenburg, Klerksdorp or Potchefstroom for 2 years or more
Sample size	600 respondents

The next section discusses the data collection process which was followed for this study.

4.11 Step 9: Collecting data

When the researcher has finalised the sample design, the collection of the data can begin (Babin & Zikmund, 2016:69). According to Malhotra (2010:434), data collection involves some kind of field force, either operating in the field (e.g. personal interviews at home, or mall intercepts) or from an office (e.g. telephone interviews or mailing). Normally the fieldworkers collecting the data have limited research background or training, and therefore the training of fieldworkers is critical to the quality of the data collected (Malhotra, 2010:436).

In this study, questionnaires administered by a person (the interviewer) were completed during August 2015 using seven fieldworkers. The fieldworkers used for this study are currently marketing students at the North-West University. They were selected due to their marketing knowledge gained at the university and their place of residence to ensure sample realisation in the different cities (Malhotra, 2010:434).

Based on the sample design, each fieldworker received their quota samples to interview based on city of residence and gender. The fieldworkers used were all trained in the fieldworker process to follow, including the making of the initial contact with the respondents, how to ask the questions, and correctly recording the answers (Malhotra, 2010:437).

4.12 Step 10: Data analysis

Aaker *et al.* (2013:404) explain that the raw data obtained from the questionnaires must undergo initial preparation before statistical techniques can be used to analyse the data. The initial preparation includes questionnaire checking, data editing, coding, and the statistical adjustments of the data (Aaker *et al.*, 2013:404; Malhotra, 2010:452). Questionnaire checking involves the process of checking all questionnaires for completeness and interviewing quality (Malhotra, 2010:452). The author also mentions that when quotas for sampling have been included, the acceptable questionnaires are counted to ensure that all quotas have been realised.

After the questionnaire checking process, the editing of the data can commence. Editing is the process of checking the data for any mistakes made by the interviewer or respondents (Hair *et al.*, 2010:237). During the editing process, the researcher checks to ensure that only qualified respondents are included in the study, using the screening questions in the questionnaire and checking for missing information where not all questions are answered (Hair *et al.*, 2010:238; McDaniel & Gates, 2013:327). Based on the assessment of the questionnaires, the researcher can decide to return to the field and ask respondents to answer the missing questions, might assign missing values, or might discard unsatisfactory respondents (Malhotra, 2010:454).

The coding process involves the allocation of a code, usually a number, to each possible response of each question in the questionnaire (Hair *et al.*, 2010:238). Most surveys use closed-ended questions which are pre-coded, meaning that the numeric code has been assigned to each response before the start of the fieldwork (McDaniel & Gates, 2013:331). When the coding of the questions has been completed, the entry of the data starts. Hair *et al.* (2010:246) define data entry as the procedure of entering coded data into a computer file, which will enable the researcher to conduct subsequent data analysis.

The questionnaire was pre-coded, and therefore the coded data was entered into SPSS (version 22) using these codes. The questionnaires were screened for completeness and were excluded when the respondents did not complete section B and section C of the questionnaire. A total of 15 questionnaires were excluded.

4.12.1 Data analysis techniques used in this study

As mentioned previously, the data obtained from the questionnaires are captured into a dataset, which is arranged into rows and columns. The columns represent the answers to the questions on the questionnaire, and each row represents a respondent (Burns & Bush, 2014:317). According to Burns and Bush (2014:317) and Hair *et al.* (2010:260), data analysis is used to describe a dataset by using a small number of statistics which characterise the various aspects of the data. There are five basic data analysis techniques to be used by marketing researchers to analyse a dataset, namely descriptive analysis, inferential analysis, difference analysis, association analysis and predictive analysis (Burns & Bush, 2014:317). This study used descriptive analysis and inferential analysis. Each of these types of techniques will be discussed next.

4.12.1.1 Descriptive statistical techniques

Descriptive techniques are normally conducted early in the analysis process and become the basis for subsequent inferential analysis (Burns & Bush, 2014:318). Pallant (2013:55) supplies three reasons for using descriptive statistical techniques in research:

- Descriptive statistics describe the characteristics of the sample.
- It checks the variables for any violation of the assumptions underlying the statistical technique which will be used to address the research objectives.
- Descriptive statistics addresses specific research questions.

Burns and Bush (2014:319) state that descriptive studies indicate the typical responses of the respondents as well as the similarity of the responses in a study. To indicate the typical responses of the respondents, the median and mean are calculated and, to indicate the similarity in responses, the frequency and standard deviation (Babin & Zikmund, 2016:365; Burns & Bush, 2014:320). Descriptive studies also provide some information regarding the distribution of data by calculating the skewness and kurtosis of the data (Pallant, 2013:67). Table 4.7 provides the definition of each of these techniques together with a reference to where these techniques were used in this study.

Table 4.7: Descriptive statistical techniques used in this study

Descriptive statistical technique	Definition	Reference of use in this study
Mean	Burns and Bush (2014:320) and McDaniel and Gates (2013:343) define the mean as the average of a set of numbers calculated by the sum of the values for all observations divided by the number of observations.	Tables 5.12, 5.13, 5.14, 5.15, 5.16, 5.17
Median	The median is the central tendency that is the midpoint and value below which 50 percent of the observations falls (Babin & Zikmund, 2016:366; McDaniel & Gates, 2013:343).	Table 5.20
Frequency	This is the number of times that each difference value appears in a specific set of values (Burns & Bush, 2014:321).	Tables 5.1, 5.2, 5.21

Table 4.7: Descriptive statistical techniques used in this study (cont.)

Descriptive statistical technique	Definition	Reference of use in this study
Standard deviation	Malhotra (2010:487) defines the standard deviation as the square root of the variance, where the variance is the mean squared deviation from the mean. According to the author, a small standard deviation would indicate that all the respondents have supplied the same value, whereas a large standard deviation reveals a lack of agreement about the value derived.	Tables 5.12, 5.13, 5.14, 5.15, 5.16
Skewness	Skewness indicates the symmetry of the distribution of the data; thus the deviations from the mean being larger in one direction than in the other (Malhotra, 2010:488; Pallant, 2013:58).	Tables 5.12, 5.14, 5.15, 5.16
Kurtosis	Kurtosis provides information on the "peakness" of the distribution, and when the value is 0 the distribution is perfectly normal (Pallant, 2013:59).	Tables 5.12, 5.14, 5.15, 5.16

For the purpose of this study, the mean was used to measure the level of experience and importance. The median was used for the non-parametric tests, and the frequency was used for the sample profile of the respondents who participated in the study. The standard deviation was provided with the statistics as well as the skewness and kurtosis to indicate the distribution of the data.

According to Burns and Bush (2014:156), all measurement scales should be assessed for reliability and validity; therefore the next section explains how it is done.

4.12.1.2 Evaluating reliability and validity

Hair *et al.* (2010:156) and Babin and Zikmund (2016:280) define reliability as the degree to which a scale can replicate the same or similar measurement results when repeated; thus reliability is an indicator of a measure's internal consistency. Internal consistency is the extent to which the individual questions of a construct are correlated (Hair *et al.*, 2010:157). The techniques to evaluate the internal consistency are the split-half test and coefficient alpha (Cronbach's alpha). Babin and Zikmund (2016:280) and Malhotra (2010:319) state that the split-half test takes half of the items from a scale, and checks them against the results from the other half. Internal consistency is indicated with a high correlation between the scores. The

Cronbach's alpha is to evaluate the reliability of a measurement scale and can be defined as the calculation of the average of all possible split-half measures that result from different ways of dividing the scale questions (Babin & Zikmund, 2016:280; Hair *et al.*, 2010:157). The coefficient value can range between 0 to 1, and in most cases a value of more than 0.70 indicates an acceptable internal consistency and thus a reliable scale (Hair *et al.*, 2010:157).

The second characteristic of a good measurement scale is validity, and since a reliable measurement scale does not mean the scale is also valid, researchers have to calculate the validity of a scale (Hair *et al.*, 2010:157). According to Babin and Zikmund (2016:281), the validity of a measurement scale evaluates whether the scale measures what it is supposed to measure; thus validity is the accuracy of the measurement or the extent to which the score truthfully represents the construct. Babin and Zikmund (2016:282) state that there are three ways to assess the validity of a measurement, namely content validity, criterion validity and construct validity. Content validity is based on the researcher's evaluation of whether the statements appear to measure what is supposed to be measured and involves the use of experts to judge how well the scale represents the concept definition (Hair *et al.*, 2010:158). Malhotra (2010:320) states that criterion validity reveals whether a scale performs as expected in relation to other variables selected as meaningful criteria. The author indicates that meaningful criteria can include demographic and psychographic characteristics or scores obtained from other scales. Construct validity is very important for marketing scientists and can be defined as a measure to evaluate whether a measurement scale behaves according to the theory behind the prediction. When a researcher claims that the measurement scale has construct validity, they are claiming that the observed pattern in a research project corresponds to the theoretical pattern (McDaniel & Gates, 2013:220). Babin and Zikmund (2016:283) suggest the use of confirmatory factor analysis to establish the construct validity of a measurement scale, consisting of both convergent and discriminant validity.

Before the validity and reliability of the study was measured, an exploratory factor analysis was performed to establish the factors to be used for this study, based on the need for data summarisation where the structure of the data is defined (Hair *et al.*, 2014:92). As indicated in chapter 3, various existing frameworks were used to develop the questionnaire used for this study. After the extraction of the factors, the reliability of these factors was measured by using the Cronbach's alpha test. Items were deleted to improve the internal consistency, and reduction of the factors into smaller factors was done where the 11 factors were established (Field, 2013:667). A confirmatory factor analysis was executed to measure construct validity.

The next section explains the process of factor analysis in more detail.

4.12.1.3 Multivariate data analysis

Statistical techniques can be classified as univariate or multivariate (Malhotra, 2010:467). Univariate techniques are used when there is a single measurement of each element in the sample or if there are several measurements on each element but each variable is analysed in isolation. On the other hand, multivariate techniques are used to analyse data when there are two or more measurements on each element and the variables are analysed simultaneously with the simultaneous relationships among two or more phenomena (Malhotra, 2010:466). Multivariate techniques can be classified as dependence techniques and interdependence techniques (Malhotra, 2010:466). The authors define dependence techniques as techniques used when one or more of the variables can be identified as dependant variables whereas in interdependence techniques the variables are not classified as dependent or independent but the whole set of interdependent relationships is examined.

For the purpose of this study, multivariate interdependence techniques are used, making use of factor analysis as the method. The next section explains the process of factor analysis, with reference to exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis.

- Factor analysis

Factor analysis is the statistical technique that is used to analyse interrelationships among a large number of variables and to explain these variables in terms of their common factors (Hair *et al.*, 2014:16). According to Pallant (2013:188) factor analysis can be seen as a data reduction technique whereby researchers can take a large set of variables and reduce or summarise these variables into a smaller set of factors or components. Factor analysis can also be used to identify the underlying structure among the variables of a study by providing an instrument to analyse the structure of the correlations among a large number of variables by providing sets of variables that are highly interrelated into factors (Hair *et al.*, 2014:92).

There are two types of factor analysis, namely exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis (Pallant, 2013:188).

(a) Exploratory factor analysis

Exploratory factor analysis is often used during the early stages of the research to gain more information about the structure of the set of variables, whereas confirmatory factor analysis is more complex and is normally used later in the research process to test or confirm theories regarding the structure of the underlying set of variables (Pallant, 2013:188). Factor analysis makes use of a variety of different, yet related, techniques. The process to conduct exploratory factor analysis includes three main steps (Pallant, 2013:189):

(i) The assessment of the suitability of the data for factor analysis

When assessing the suitability of data for factor analysis, Pallant (2013:189) suggests a consideration of the sample size and the strength of the relationship among the variables. In terms of the sample size, Tabachnick and Fidell (2014:666) suggest that a sample of at least 300 cases should be used for factor analysis. Hair *et al.* (2014:100) suggest that the sample should be at least five times the number of variables tested. Pallant (2013:190) suggests also using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure to determine sampling adequacy, and a KMO of more than .6 indicates that the sample is adequate for factor analysis (Gaskin, 2015). The Bartlett's test of sphericity is a statistical test used to test the overall significance of all correlations within a correlation matrix (Hair *et al.*, 2014:90), whereas the correlation matrix indicates the inter-correlations between all variables and should be above .3 (Hair *et al.*, 2014:90; Pallant, 2013:199).

(ii) Factor extraction

According to Pallant (2013:190), factor extraction includes the determination of the smallest number of factors which can be used to best represent the interrelationships among the set of variables. The most regularly used extraction approach is the principal component analysis (Pallant, 2013:190). The principal component analysis considers the total variance in the data whereas the common factor analysis estimates the factors based only on the common variables in the data (Malhotra, 2010:643). There are a number of techniques used to assist in the decision concerning the number of factors, namely Kaiser's criterion, scree test and parallel analysis. The Kaiser's criterion is the most popular technique and uses the rule that only factors with an eigenvalue of 1.0 or more will be retained for further investigation (Pallant, 2013:191). The scree test involves the plotting of each of the eigenvalues of the factors and checking the plot to see if there is a point at which the shape of the curve changes direction and becomes horizontal (Pallant, 2013:191). According to this author, it is recommended that all factors above the elbow in the plot must be retained.

(iii) Factor rotation

To assist in the process of interpreting the number of factors, factors are "rotated" (Pallant, 2013:191). According to the author, this rotation of the factors does not change the underlying solution but rather presents the pattern of loadings in a manner that is easier to interpret. There are two approaches to rotation, namely orthogonal and oblique factor solutions (Field, 2013:680). The author states that orthogonal rotations refer to unrelation, which means that factors are rotated while keeping them independent or unrelated, whereas oblique rotation allows for the factors to be correlated. Tabachnick and Fidell (2014:673) state that orthogonal rotation, used for uncorrelated constructs, is usually easier to interpret and report, whereas oblique factor solution is used for factors that are correlated to be more difficult to interpret. The results of these two approaches are often very similar, particularly when the pattern of correlation among the constructs is clear (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014:673). The orthogonal approach most commonly used is the varimax method, which focuses on simplifying the factors in the factor matrix and is the approach whereby the maximum possible simplification is reached (Hair *et al.*, 2014:113). Oblique rotations are similar to orthogonal rotations, except that oblique rotations permit correlated factors (Hair *et al.*, 2014:114). These authors state that the most commonly used oblique approach is the direct oblimin. There are no specific rules in terms of the selection of the rotation method, only some considerations when making the selection (Hair *et al.*, 2014:114). The orthogonal rotation method is the most widely used rotational method, and it is suggested that the correlation matrix be visually inspected to screen how many correlations are below about .3, which indicates unrelated variables, whereas correlations above .3 indicate related/correlated variables (Field, 2013:685; Hair *et al.*, 2014:114).

The interpretation of the factor matrix is done by identifying the variables that have large loadings on the same factor (Malhotra, 2010:647). When examining the factor loadings given in the factor matrix, the rule of thumb is that factors with loadings of .30 or more are interpreted, where the greater the loading, the more the variable is a strong measure of the factor (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014:702). However, Gaskin (2015) indicates that sufficient factor loadings also depend on the sample size, and when the sample is greater than 350, a sufficient factor loading is .30.

(b) Confirmatory factor analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis for this study was conducted using SPSS AMOS 22.0. One of the main differences between exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis is that with confirmatory factor analysis the researcher must have firm a priori sense based on past evidence and theory (Brown, 2015:1). As mentioned by this author, confirmatory factor analysis is normally used for the development of a structural equation model, but as this study does not require that function, confirmatory factor analysis is used to determine construct validity and to confirm the exploratory factor analysis done. Confirmatory factor analysis is also used to examine the structure of the questionnaire and to verify the factors of the construct (Brown, 2015:2).

One of the primary objectives of CFA is to assess the construct validity of the measurement theory (Hair *et al.*, 2014:618). Construct validity is discussed next.

4.12.1.4 Construct validity

Construct validity is the degree to which a set of measured items actually reflects the theoretical construct which those items were designed to measure (Hair *et al.*, 2014:618). According to these authors, convergent validity and discriminant validity can be used to determine the construct validity of the instrument. Each of these terms is discussed next.

4.12.1.4.1 Convergent validity

Convergent validity indicates that the items which are indicators of a specific construct share a high proportion of variance (Hair *et al.*, 2014:618). The size of the factor loadings is an important concern, and a good indication is that a factor loading must be higher than .5 (Hair *et al.*, 2014:618). According to these authors, the average variance extracted (AVE) is also used to measure convergent validity and should be higher than .5. Reliability is also an indicator of convergent validity, where the construct reliability (CR) should be between .6 and .7 to be acceptable (Hair *et al.*, 2014:619).

For the purpose of this study, convergent validity was measured by reviewing the factor loadings, calculating the AVE and also the CR.

4.12.1.4.2 Discriminant validity

According to (Hair *et al.*, 2014:619), discriminant validity assesses the extent to which an independent construct is truly distinct from other independent constructs. Discriminant validity is measured by comparing the average variance extracted for any two constructs with the square of the correlation estimate between the two constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981:49). The average variance extracted should be greater than the squared correlation estimate (Hair *et al.*, 2014:620).

For this study, discriminant validity was measured by calculating the average variance explained and comparing these values with the squared correlated estimates.

4.12.1.5 Goodness of fit metrics

Goodness of fit (GOF) specifies how well the specified model reproduces the observed covariance matrix among the indicator items (Hair *et al.*, 2014:576). These authors suggest that multiple fit indices should be used to access a model's goodness of fit. According to these authors, the GOF measures can be classified into three groups: absolute measures, incremental measures and parsimony fit measures.

The absolute fit indexes indicate a direct measure of how well the specified model reproduces the observed data (Hair *et al.*, 2014:578). According to these authors, the absolute fit indexes include:

(1) Goodness-of-fit index (GFI) – according to (Gaskin, 2015), the acceptable range is >.95 is great, >.90 is traditional and >.80 is sometimes allowed. Therefore a higher value indicates a better fit (Hair *et al.*, 2014:579).

(2) Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) – between a value of .05 and .10 is deemed to be acceptable (Gaskin, 2015; Hair *et al.*, 2014:579). When comparing models, a lower value indicates a better fit (Hair *et al.*, 2014:579).

The incremental fit indexes measure how well the estimated model fits relative to some alternative baseline model (Hair *et al.*, 2010:580). According to these authors, the incremental fit indexes include the following:

(1) Comparative fit index (CFI) – ranges between 0 and 1 with the higher values indicating a better fit

(2) Tucker Lewis index (TLI) – normally, values close to 1 indicate the best model fit (Hair *et al.*, 2014:580).

According to Hair *et al.* (2014:580), the parsimony fit provides information of which model among a set of competing models is the best. The indexes include:

(1) Adjusted goodness of fit (AGFI) – the threshold for AGFI is >.80 (Gaskin, 2015).

(2) Parsimony normed fit index (PNFI) – a relatively high value represents a relatively better fit (Hair *et al.*, 2014:581).

Hair *et al.* (2014:589) suggest the assessment of a model's goodness of fit should include one absolute fit index, one incremental fit index, one goodness-of-fit index and one badness-of fit index. For the purpose of this study, SPSS AMOS (version 22) and Statistica were used to compare the theoretical 13-factor measurement model against the 11-factor measurement model to determine which model had the best fit. GFI, RMSEA, CFI, TLI, AGFI and PNFI were used to do this comparison.

4.12.1.6 Inferential statistics

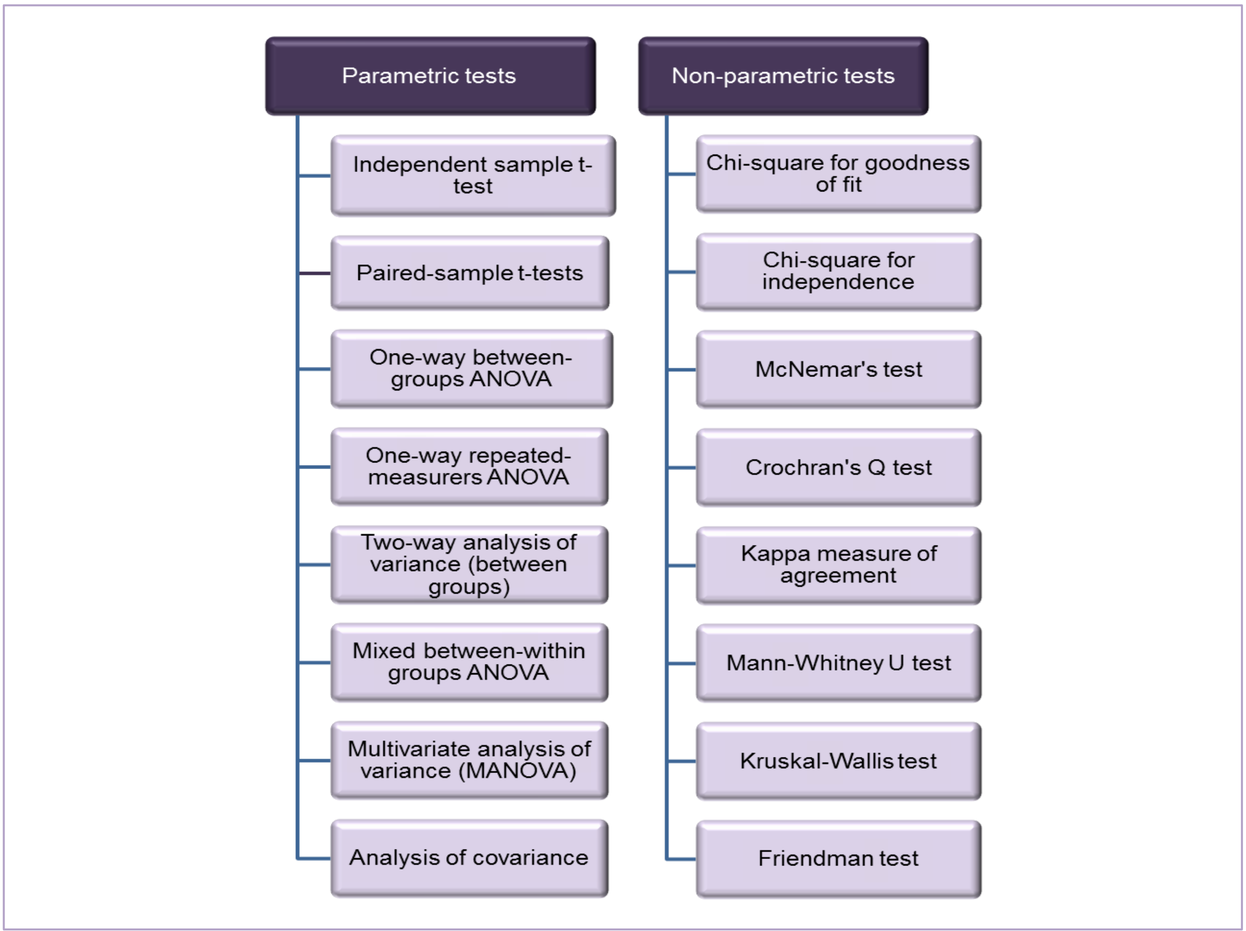
Inferential statistics generate inferences, using probability, to generalise the results to the population (Walker & Almond, 2010:119). According to Pallant (2013:211), there are quite a few techniques to test for significant differences among groups. These tests can be classified as parametric and non-parametric tests (Pallant, 2013:212). According to the author, the main difference between these tests is the assumption of normal distribution and the nature of the data. Parametric techniques can be used when the data is normally distributed and an interval scale was used, whereas non-parametric techniques are used when data is not normally distributed (Field, 2013:881, 880).

- Test for normality

To test for normal distribution of the data, the Kolmogrov-Smirnov test and Shapiro-Wilk test can be used (Field, 2013:185). According to the author these tests compare the scores in the sample to a normal distributed set of scores with the same mean and standard deviation. Should the test be non-significant ($p>0.5$) then the data is normally distributed, and should the test be significant ($p<0.5$) then the data is not normally distributed.

The Kolmogrov-Smirnov test and Shapiro-Wilk test were used in this study to test for normal distribution of the data. The different parametric and non-parametric tests are shown in Figure 4.4.

Figure 4.4: Parametric and non-parametric tests



Source: Adapted from Pallant (2013:212).

The data for this study was found to be not normally distributed; therefore non-parametric tests were used for comparing the scores of different groups. The Mann-Whitney U test was performed for this study, as this test is used to test for differences between two independent groups on a continuous measure (Pallant, 2013:235). The Mann-Whitney U test compares the medians instead of the means, as the test converts the scores on the continuous variable to rank the scores across the two groups (Pallant, 2013:235). According to Pallant (2013:60), when using non-parametric statistics the mean score can be biased, and therefore the author recommends using the median instead. When interpreting the results from the Mann-Whitney U tests, the **Z** value and **Asymp.Sig** are important to look at (Walker & Almond, 2010:133). For this study, the two groups used during this test were males and females. The effect size of the differences, should there be significant difference, was calculated using the formula: r = z / square root of N, where N = total number of cases (Pallant, 2013:238).

The Kruskal-Wallis test is the non-parametric alternative for the one-way between-groups analysis of variance (Pallant, 2013:240). By using this test the researcher is allowed to compare scores on some continuous variable for three or more groups. For this study the Kruskal-Wallis test indicated whether there was a significant difference between the scores of residents residing in Potchefstroom, Klerksdorp and Rustenburg. It must be noted that the Kruskal-Wallis test does not identify the precise sources of group differences; only a significant result is obtained (Walker & Almond, 2010:142).

- Importance measurement

In the questionnaire the respondents were asked to rank the factors from 1 to 5 where 1 indicated the most important, and 5 indicated the fifth most important factor. When using this scale, 1 indicates the highest value whereas 5 indicates the lowest value. It is therefore the opposite of how the results are obtained with the other scales in the questionnaire (5 – highest value: strongly agree and 1 – lowest value: strongly disagree). To enable better interpretation, so that the values of the different scales indicate the same effect (high versus low), the scale values had to be converted. To ensure that this conversion was suitable for the measurement, a sensitivity analysis using the different rank aggregation methods was performed.

Sensitivity analysis is a series of analyses of a data set to determine whether changes or modifications of the assumptions made may lead to different final interpretations or conclusions (Thabane *et al.*, 2013:2). Thus a sensitivity analysis tests the effect of any changes made to the data analysis method (Thabane *et al.*, 2013:2). These authors mention that when a sensitivity analysis has been performed and the findings are consistent with those of the primary analysis, the researcher can be assured that the underlying factors had little or no influence and therefore the results are robust. For the purpose of this study, the level of experience was used to indicate the performance level experienced by the respondent in terms of the specific factor. The sensitivity analysis was performed using different rank aggregation methods to calculate the importance scores of the factors. The rank aggregation methods include the Borda score method, plurality method and RankAggreg package. These methods are discussed below.

  - Primary analysis: Borda score method

The Borda score of a given characteristic is the total number of Borda points given by the respondents. The ranking of the characteristics is obtained by sorting the Borda scores in descending order (Viappiani, 2015:105). When calculating the Borda score, n = items of objects. For the purpose of the study, the respondents had to indicate their top 5 characteristics; therefore n = 5. To calculate the Borda score, the item ranked first gets a score of n, the item ranked second gets a score of n –1, and so on (Viappiani, 2015:105).

The Borda point for this study was calculated as follows:

1 (most important) to 5 (*n*)

2 (second most important) to 4 (*n* -1)

3 (third most important) to 3 (*n* -2)

4 (fourth most important) to 2 (*n* -3)

5 (fifth most important) to 1 (*n* -4)

For the purpose of this study, the Borda points were calculated as indicated above, and the sum of these scores per factor were calculated to determine the Borda score per factor.

- Alternative 1: Plurality method

According to Viappiani (2015), the plurality method is where the items are scored by the number of times that they are ranked first.

- Alternatives 2 to 4: Package ‘RankAggreg’ method

The package ‘RankAggreg” performs aggregations of ordered lists based on the ranks using the Cross-Entropy Monte Carlo algorithm, Genetic algorithm and brute force algorithm (Pihur *et al.*, 2009).

After all the primary analysis and alternatives were performed, the results were compared to determine the sensitivity of using different algorithms. The aim of this analysis was to determine the values of the importance scores to be used to calculate which city branding factors are most important as well as to determine values to be used when developing the importance–performance matrix, which is discussed next.

In marketing perhaps the best-known importance–performance matrix is based on a method proposed in 1977 by Martilla and James (1977:78). The information from surveys measuring performance and importance are presented on a two-dimensional matrix, where the importance is presented on the *x*-axis and performance along the *y*-axis (Matzle *et al.*, 2004:272). The importance–performance matrix is divided into four quadrants to indicate the priority given against the performance of the factor (Martilla & James, 1977:78). The four quadrants in the Importance–performance matrix were also named, and are shown in Figure 4.5.

Figure 4.5: Importance–Performance matrix

Source: Adapted from Martilla and James (1977:78).

Each of these quadrants indicates the following (Murdy & Pike, 2012:1282):

"Concentrate here" quadrant: Indicates factors which are considered important but the performance is only fair. The factors falling into this quadrant must be concentrated on so that the factors can move to the "Maintain performance" quadrant.

"Not important" quadrant: These factors are not important and the performance of these factors is also fair. The factors which fall into this quadrant should remain untouched.

"Possible overkill" quadrant: The factors in this quadrant indicate excellent performance but are not important. This could mean the overuse of resources which improve the performance of factors not important to respondents.

"Maintain performance" quadrant: The factors in this quadrant represent factors which are important and are also being well performed. Factors in this quadrant should be maintained to ensure they remain at this level.

The importance–performance analysis will be used in this study to determine which city branding factors are important for residents against the performance of these factors. The importance and performance scores are plotted on a graph with an x-axis (performance) and y-axis (importance) to indicate the position of the factor in the different quadrants.

4.13 Step 11: Preparation and presentation of the final research report

The results and main findings of this study are reported in chapter 5, followed by the recommendations and conclusions in chapter 6.

4.14 Conclusion

The research methodology of this study was presented in this chapter by using the marketing research process as a framework. Each step in the marketing research process was discussed, including reference to what was done in this study. Chapter 5 presents the results obtained from this marketing research process.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to report and discuss the results from the data collection and analysis process explained in chapter 4. The chapter commences with the sample realisation and demographic profile of the respondents who participated in the study. Then the results of the factor analysis are provided with reference to the exploratory factor analysis conducted, which enabled the researcher to perform reliability tests and validity tests of the measurement scale. The goodness-of-fit measures are presented which compared the measurement model derived from literature and the measurement model resulting from the exploratory factor analysis. The results of the tests of normality are shown, which leads to the next section in this chapter, namely the results of level of experience measured in section B of the questionnaire. Lastly, the results of the importance ranking question, section C of the questionnaire, are presented.

5.2 Sample realisation

The study was performed among permanent residents of Potchefstroom, Klerksdorp and Rustenburg. Multi-stage sampling applied for this study, with the city of residence and gender being the control categories. Based on this sampling method, the respondents were residents older than 18 years of age who had permanently resided in one of these cities for more than 2 years. Quotas for male and female were predetermined, and fieldworkers were instructed to screen the respondents based on their age to ensure that the predetermined sample was realised.

In Table 5.1 the predetermined sample and realised sample are shown.

Table 5.1: Sample realisation

Sample	Predetermined sample	Realised sample	Realisation rate
City			
Potchefstroom	200	194	97.00%
Klerksdorp	200	207	103.50%
Rustenburg	200	202	101.00%
TOTAL	600	603	100.50%

Table 5.1: Sample realisation (cont.)

Sample	Predetermined sample	Realised sample	Realisation rate
Gender			
All – male	300	295	98.33%
All – female	300	308	102.67%
Potchefstroom – male	100	96	96.00%
Potchefstroom – female	100	98	98.00%
Klerksdorp – male	100	99	99.00%
Klerksdorp – female	100	108	108.00%
Rustenburg – male	100	100	100.00%
Rustenburg – female	100	102	102.00%

It is evident from Table 5.1 that 100.50% of the predetermined sample was realised. In terms of the residents of the different cities, 97.00% of the predetermined sample for Potchefstroom residents was realised, 103.50% for the Klerksdorp residents, and 101.00% for the Rustenburg residents. Table 5.1 also indicates the realisation of the gender predetermined samples for this study. For this study, 98.67% of the male predetermined sample was realised and 102.67% of the female predetermined sample.

The next section indicates the demographic variables and composition for this study.

5.3 Demographic profile

The questionnaire used in this study included demographic questions which were asked to understand the demographic profile of the respondents who participated. The demographic (categorical) variables included age, gender, level of education, ethnicity and employment status. Table 5.2 provides the demographic profile of the sample realised.

Table 5.2: Demographic profile

	Potchefstroom		Klerksdorp		Rustenburg		Total	
	Count (n)	%	Count (n)	%	Count (n)	%	Count (n)	%
Total realised	194	32.33	207	34.50	202	33.67	603	100.00
Age								
Younger than 18 years of age	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
18–26 years of age	68	35.05	73	35.27	78	38.61	219	36.32
27–35 years of age	46	23.71	57	27.54	82	40.59	185	30.68
36–47 years of age	35	18.04	49	23.67	28	13.86	112	18.57
48–66 years of age	37	19.07	24	11.59	13	6.44	74	12.27
Older than 67+ years of age	8	4.12	4	1.93	1	0.50%	13	2.16
Gender								
Male	96	49.48	99	47.83	100	49.50%	295	48.92
Female	98	50.52	108	52.17	102	50.50	308	51.08
Education								
Primary school completed	2	1.03	2	0.97	1	0.50%	5	0.83
Some high school	13	6.70	24	11.59	18	8.91	55	9.12
Matric/grade 12	91	46.91	127	61.35	108	53.47	326	54.06
Diploma	39	20.10	42	20.29	58	28.71	139	23.05
Degree	27	13.92	10	4.83	10	4.95	47	7.79
Postgraduate degree	20	10.31	1	0.48	7	3.47	28	4.64
Missing	2	1.03	1	0.48	0	0.00%	3	0.50%
Ethnicity								
Black	50	25.77	89	43.00	99	49.01	238	39.47
White	95	48.97	105	50.72	100	49.50	300	49.75
Indian/Asian	21	10.82	3	1.45	2	0.99	26	4.31
Coloured	28	14.43	10	4.83	1	0.50%	39	6.47

Table 5.2: Demographic profile (cont.)

	Potchefstroom		Klerksdorp		Rustenburg		Total	
	Count (n)	%	Count (n)	%	Count (n)	%	Count (n)	%
Employment status								
Full-time employed	111	57.22	164	79.23	170	84.16	445	73.80
Part-time employed	25	12.89	23	11.11	16	7.92	64	10.61
Self-employed	27	13.92	13	6.28	9	4.46	49	8.13
Student	17	8.76	3	1.45	1	0.50%	21	3.48
Housewife/House husband	7	3.61	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	7	1.16
Retired	5	2.58	1	0.48	0	0.00%	6	1.00%
Unemployed	2	1.03	1	0.48	6	2.97	9	1.49
Other	0	0.00%	1	0.48	0	0.00%	1	0.17
Missing data	0	0.00%	1	0.48	0	0.00%	1	0.17

Table 5.2 indicates that 32.33% of the total sample was made up of respondents residing in Potchefstroom, 34.50% residing in Klerksdorp, and 33.67% residing in Rustenburg. In terms of the age of the total sample, 67.00% (36.32% + 30.68%) of the respondents were between the ages of 18 and 35 years old, 18.57% between 36 and 47 years, and 14.43% (12.27% + 2.16%) older than 48 years. Table 5.2 also indicates that 48.92% of the total sample were males and 51.08% females. The majority of the total realised sample had matric/grade 12 education comprising 54.06% of the sample, with 9.12% having some high school education; while 35.49% of the sample had either a diploma (23.05%), degree (7.79%) or postgraduate degree (4.64%). In terms of the ethnicity of the total realised sample, 49.75% of the respondents were white, 39.47% were black, and 4.31% and 6.47% were Indian/Asian and coloured respectively. The majority of the total sample was employed full-time (73.80%) and 10.61% part-time. Self-employed respondents' accounted for 8.13% of the sample, and 7.13% were either students (3.48%), housewives/househusbands (1.16%), retired (1.00%) or unemployed (1.49%).

In terms of the sample realised for residents residing in Potchefstroom, Table 5.2 indicates that 194 respondents were interviewed. In terms of the age of these residents, the majority (35.05%) were between the ages of 18 and 26 years, 23.71% between 27 and 35 years, and 41.75% between 36 and 66 years (18.04% + 19.07%). Only 4.12% of the sample realised for residents residing in Potchefstroom were older than 67 years, with 49.48% of these being male and

50.52% female. The majority of these Potchefstroom respondents (46.91%) had a matric/grade 12 level of education, with 44.33% holding either a diploma (20.10%), a degree (13.92%) or a postgraduate degree (10.31%). Only 1.03% of these respondents had only primary school education and 6.70% had only some level of high school education. With regard to the ethnicity of the respondents residing in Potchefstroom, 48.97% were white, 25.77% were black, 14.43% were coloured and only 10.82% indicated their ethnicity as Indian/Asian. The majority of the respondents (57.22%) were employed full-time, with 13.92% being self-employed and 12.89% employed part-time. Respondents busy with studying accounted for 8.76% of the respondents residing in Potchefstroom, 3.61% were housewives/househusbands, and 2.58% were retired. Only 1.03% of the Potchefstroom residents who participated in the study were unemployed.

A total of 207 respondents indicated that they permanently reside in Klerksdorp for more than 2 years. Of these respondents, 35.27% were between the ages of 18 and 26 years, 27.54% between 27 and 35 years, and 23.67% between 36 and 47 years. A total of 13.53% of the respondents residing in Klerksdorp were older than 48 years (11.59% + 1.93%). The gender distribution of the Klerksdorp sample was 47.83% male and 52.17% female. The majority of these respondents (61.35%) had a grade 12 education and 11.59% had completed some high school. In terms of tertiary education, 20.29% indicated that they had a diploma, 4.83% a degree and 0.48% a postgraduate degree. In terms of ethnicity, the majority (50.72%) of the respondents residing in Klerksdorp who participated in this study were white, 43.00% were black, 4.83% were coloured and 1.45% were Indian/Asian. Of these respondents, 79.23% were employed full-time, 11.11% part-time and only 6.28% were self-employed. Of the respondents residing in Klerksdorp, 1.45% indicated that they were students, while 0.48% were retired, 0.48% were unemployed and 0.48% indicated “other” as their employment status.

Permanent residents of Rustenburg were also included in this study, with a total of 202 respondents being interviewed. Of these respondents, 79.21% were between the ages of 18 and 35 years (38.61% + 40.59%), 13.86% were between 36 and 47 years, and only 6.44% were older than 48 years. Of these respondents 50.50% were female and 49.50% male. The majority of the respondents residing in Klerksdorp (53.47%) had a matric/grade 12 level of education, 28.71% a diploma, and 4.95% a degree. Only 3.47% of these respondents had a postgraduate degree, while 8.91% indicated that they had some high school education and 0.50% had primary school education. The ethnicity profile of these respondents included 49.50% white, 49.01% black, 0.99% Indian/Asian and 0.50% coloured respondents. The majority (84.16%) of the respondents residing in Rustenburg were employed full-time, 7.92% were employed part-time, 4.46% were self-employed, 2.97% were unemployed and only 0.50% were students.

The sample profile of all respondents who participated in this study is as follows:

Main finding 1: *The majority of the respondents were white females, between the ages of 18 and 26 years, with a matric/grade 12 level of education and employed full-time.*

The next section deals with the validity and reliability of the measurement instrument.

5.4 Factor analysis

As mentioned in chapter 4, factor analysis was performed before the reliability and validity of the scale were measured. By performing an exploratory factor analysis, 11 factors instead of the theoretical 13 factors were extracted. The next section presents the results of the exploratory factor analysis process and results.

5.4.1 Exploratory factor analysis (EFA)

In terms of the suitability of the data for factor analysis, the sample size of this study was 603 respondents, which is more than the suggested 300 cases suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2014:613). Table 5.3 indicates the KMO measure and Bartlett's test for this study.

Table 5.3: KMO and Bartlett's test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measurement of sampling adequacy		.928
Bartlett's test of sphericity	Approx. chi-square	15960.847
	Df	1378
	Sig.	.000

Main finding 2: *From Table 5.3 it is evident that the KMO measure of sampling adequacy for this study is .928, which is well above the suggested 0.6 and can be regarded as marvellous (Gaskin, 2015). The Bartlett's test of sphericity for this study is also significant as $p < .05$.*

When inspecting the correlation matrix supplied in Annexure C, the majority of the correlations were below .3. However, it should also be mentioned that some of the factors did show a correlation by producing correlations of above .3. As mentioned by Pallant (2013:205), should the correlations between the factors be quite low, there will not be much difference in the results obtained between the different rotation methods.

Main finding 3: *Based on the visual screening, and the fact that the majority of the correlations are below .3, it was decided to use Varimax orthogonal rotation for the factor analysis in this study.*

To determine the number of factors, the Kaiser's criterion was used (Pallant, 2013:199). Table 5.4 indicates the total variance explained table, which shows the eigenvalues for each component. The factors were extracted using the principal component matrix, as the main concern was to determine the minimum number of factors that would account for the maximum variance in the data (Malhotra, 2010:643).

Table 5.4: Kaiser's criterion – total variance explained

Component	Initial eigenvalues		
	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	15.092	28.475	28.475
2	3.187	6.013	34.487
3	2.463	4.647	39.134
4	1.902	3.590	42.724
5	1.816	3.427	46.150
6	1.674	3.159	49.309
7	1.637	3.088	52.398
8	1.463	2.760	55.158
9	1.289	2.432	57.590
10	1.278	2.411	60.002
11	1.109	2.093	62.095
12	.999	1.885	63.979
13	.926	1.747	65.727
14	.900	1.698	67.425
15	.849	1.602	69.027
16	.786	1.484	70.510
17	.767	1.447	71.957
18	.729	1.375	73.332
19	.701	1.323	74.655
20	.677	1.278	75.933
21	.651	1.228	77.161
22	.648	1.223	78.384
23	.582	1.098	79.482
24	.573	1.082	80.563

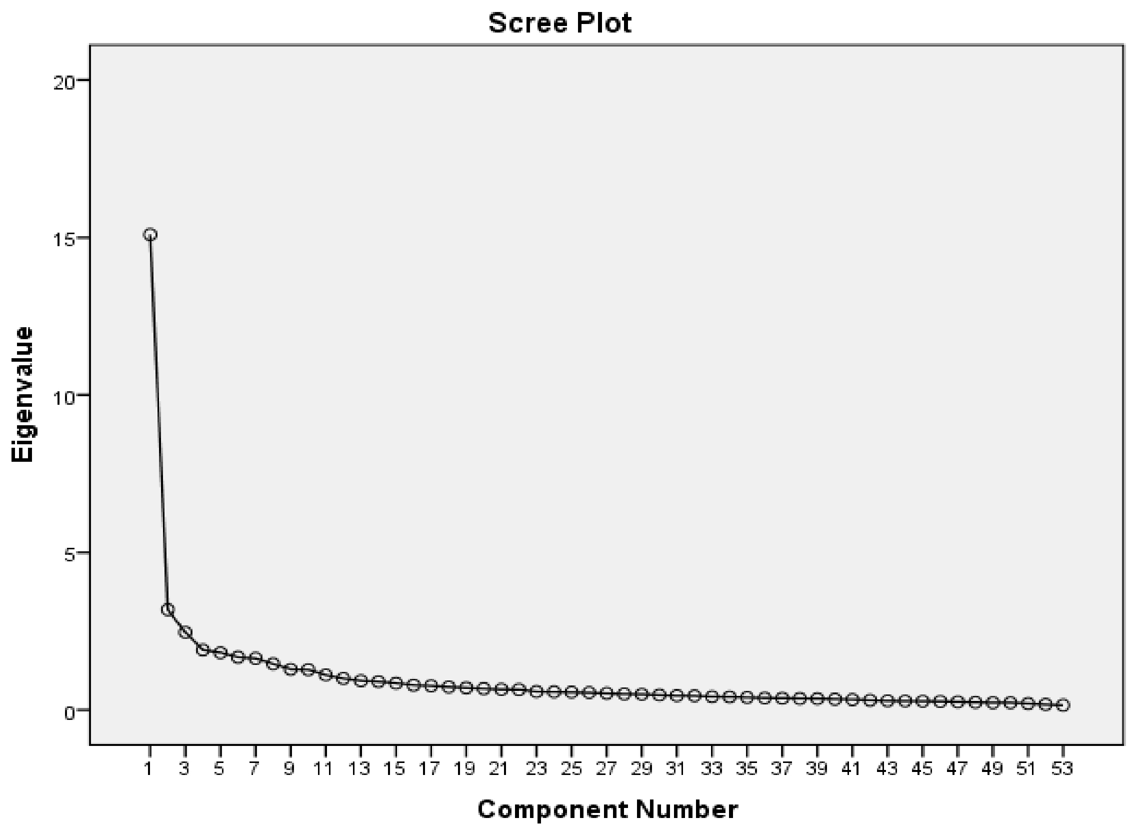
Table 5.4: Kaiser's criterion – total variance explained (cont.)

Component	Initial eigenvalues		
	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %
25	.563	1.062	81.625
26	.549	1.035	82.660
27	.526	.992	83.652
28	.506	.955	84.607
29	.496	.935	85.543
30	.473	.893	86.436
31	.454	.856	87.292
32	.448	.845	88.137
33	.420	.792	88.929
34	.415	.783	89.711
35	.397	.748	90.460
36	.379	.714	91.174
37	.372	.702	91.876
38	.362	.684	92.560
39	.357	.674	93.234
40	.341	.644	93.877
41	.328	.619	94.496
42	.307	.580	95.076
43	.290	.547	95.623
44	.285	.537	96.160
45	.279	.526	96.685
46	.272	.513	97.198
47	.257	.485	97.683
48	.242	.457	98.140
49	.230	.434	98.574
50	.227	.429	99.003
51	.203	.383	99.386
52	.176	.331	99.717
53	.150	.283	100.000

* Extraction method: Principal component analysis

***Main finding 4:** It can be noted from Table 5.4 that 11 factors indicated eigenvalues of more than 1 (Pallant, 2013:199). Table 5.4 also indicates that these 11 factors explain a total of 62.095% of the variance.*

Figure 5.1: Scree plot



It is noted from Figure 5.1 that although there is an obvious change at component number 2, the graph flattens out from component 11, which corresponds with the Kaiser's criterion indicated in Figure 5.4.

The factor loadings of the items measured are shown in the rotated component matrix in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5: Rotated component matrix

Orthogonal_varimax													
Pattern/structure coefficients													
Statement	**Factor number**	**11-factor name**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**10**	**11**
The overall lifestyle of [city] is good	1	Lifestyle & social interaction	.490										
[City] is a good place for bonding with your family	1	Lifestyle & social interaction	.503										
The residents in [city] are tolerant against outsiders	1	Lifestyle & social interaction	.648										
I'm proud to stay in [city]	1	Lifestyle & social interaction	.655										
It is easy to make friends in [city]	1	Lifestyle & social interaction	.724										
The people in [city] are friendly	1	Lifestyle & social interaction	.770										
It is easy to fit into the community of [city]	1	Lifestyle & social interaction	.783										
I trust the local government of [city] to make good decisions	2	Vision & strategy		.754									
Residents can participate in local decision-making	2	Vision & strategy		.763									

Table 5.5: Rotated component matrix (cont.)

Orthogonal_varimax													
Pattern/structure coefficients													
The local government's vision for [city] is favourable	2	Vision & strategy		.775									
The effectiveness of [city]'s governing structure is good	2	Vision & strategy		.778									
[City] has a good national status	3	Image			.560								
[City] is easy to reach from most other cities	3	Image			.566								
The image of [city] is appealing	3	Image			.645								
[City] has a very attractive image	3	Image			.645								
There is a good energy in [city]	3	Image	.329		.521								
There are prestigious tertiary institutions in [city]	4	Education				.631							
The general standard of the local schools in [city] is good	4	Education				.658							

Table 5.5: Rotated component matrix (cont.)

Orthogonal_varimax													
Pattern/structure coefficients													
There is high quality of school education available in [city]	4	Education				.726							
There are many educational facilities in [city]	4	Education				.754							
[City] has low pollution	5	Safety					.334	.529					
There is a low level of corruption in [city]	5	Safety		.395				.650					
I feel safe in [city]	5	Safety						.668					
The level of crime in [city] is lower than the average of South Africa	5	Safety						.736					
[City] has lots of parks and available green zones	6	Leisure and cityscape					.407						
There is access to clean outdoor recreational areas in [city]	6	Leisure and cityscape			.303		.494						
There are interesting things to do in [city]	6	Leisure and cityscape					.607						
There are sufficient amount of cultural events/festivals in [city]	6	Leisure and cityscape					.622						

Table 5.5: Rotated component matrix (cont.)

Orthogonal_varimax													
Pattern/structure coefficients													
[City] has a wide range of outdoor activities	6	Leisure and cityscape					.665						
[City] has diversified employment opportunities	7	Employment							.648				
There are a lot of professional/business networks in [city]	7	Employment							.686				
In [city] it is easy to find employment	7	Employment							.698				
The salaries in [city] are good	7	Employment							.763				
[City] has good economic growth	8	Business			.304					.656			
The business in [city] is innovative	8	Business								.677			
There are many self-employment opportunities in [city]	8	Business								.715			
[City] is a good place to do business in	8	Business								.726			
[City] has a wide range of shopping opportunities	9	Shopping & medical care					.368				.489		

Table 5.5: Rotated component matrix (cont.)

Orthogonal_varimax													
Pattern/structure coefficients													
[City] has a diverse range of restaurants	9	Shopping & medical care									.553		
[City] has good access to medical care	9	Shopping & medical care				.302					.717		
[City] has a high quality of medical care facilities	9	Shopping & medical care				.305					.735		
There are a lot of different cultures and ethnic groups in [city]	10	Culture										.569	
There are sufficient cultural centres in [city]	10	Culture					.370					.585	
[City] has made an important contribution to South Africa's culture	10	Culture										.706	
[City] has a good cultural diversity	10	Culture										.744	
There is sufficient housing available in [city]	11	Housing										.353	.587
The housing market in [city] is favourable	11	Housing											.664
It is easy to find affordable housing in [city]	11	Housing											.762

Table 5.5: Rotated component matrix (cont.)

Orthogonal_varimax													
Pattern/structure coefficients													
The traffic in [city] is well organised					.379						.307		.371
The public transport in [city] is adequate							.370				.306		
[City] has easy access to water								.363			.331		
[City] is a clean city					.342			.380					
The roads in [city] are well maintained					.380		.313						

*Rotation converged in 9 iterations

Main finding 5: *From Table 5.5 it is evident that 11 factors were explored, with factor loadings <.30 (Gaskin, 2015). The items shown in red were deleted as the factor loadings were too low.*

5.4.2 Reliability

After the extraction of the 11 factors, their reliability was tested to ensure that the scale used had internal consistency (Pallant, 2013:101). Using the Cronbach's alpha test, SPSS also provided the alpha value should an item be deleted. This function was taken into consideration when determining the final 11 factors and their items which influence city branding. The results are shown in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6: Cronbach's alpha values

Factor	Cronbach's alpha values	Cronbach's alpha values if item deleted
Lifestyle and social interaction	0.876	N/A
Vision and strategy	0.893	N/A
Image	0.822	0.837 ([City] is easy to reach from most other cities)
Education	0.824	N/A
Safety	0.757	0.810 ([City] has low pollution)
Leisure and cityscape	0.810	N/A
Employment	0.810	N/A
Business	0.762	N/A
Shopping and medical care	0.761	0.775 ([City] has a diverse range of restaurants)
Culture	0.706	0.723 (There are a lot of different cultures and ethnic groups in [city])
Housing	0.736	N/A

Main finding 6: *From Table 5.6 it is evident that all the factors have good internal consistency, as the values are above 0.7, which is considered acceptable (Pallant, 2013:104). Based on the alpha value if an item is deleted, it was decided to delete some items to improve the internal consistency.*

The final 11 factors and their items are shown in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7: Factors influencing the city branding construct

Factor	Factor name	Loading	Item included in the factor
1	Lifestyle and social interaction	.490	The overall lifestyle of [city] is good
		.503	[City] is a good place for bonding with your family
		.648	The residents in [city] are tolerant against outsiders
		.655	I'm proud to stay in [city]
		.724	It is easy to make friends in [city]
		.770	The people in [city] are friendly
		.783	It is easy to fit into the community of [city]
2	Vision and strategy	.754	I trust the local government of [city] to make good decisions
		.763	Residents can participate in local decision-making
		.775	The local government's vision for [city] is favourable
		.778	The effectiveness of [city]'s governing structure is good
3	Image	0.560	[City] has a good national status
		0.645	The image of [city] is appealing
		0.645	[City] has a very attractive image
		0.521	There is good energy in [city]
4	Education	0.631	There are prestigious tertiary institutions in [city]
		0.658	The general standard of the local schools in [city] is good
		0.726	There is high quality of school education available in [city]
		0.754	There are many educational facilities in [city]
5	Safety	0.650	There is a low level of corruption in [city]
		0.668	I feel safe in [city]
		0.736	The level of crime in [city] is lower than the average of South Africa
6	Leisure and cityscape	0.407	[City] has lots of parks and available green zones
		0.494	There is access to clean outdoor recreational areas in [city]
		0.607	There are interesting things to do in [city]
		0.622	There are sufficient amount of cultural events/festivals in [city]
		0.665	[City] has a wide range of outdoor activities

Table 5.7: Factors influencing the city branding construct (cont.)

Factor	Factor name	Loading	Item included in the factor
7	Employment	0.648	[City] has diversified employment opportunities
		0.686	There are a lot of professional/business networks in [city]
		0.698	In [city] it is easy to find employment
		0.763	The salaries in [city] are good
8	Business	0.656	[City] has good economic growth
		0.677	The business in [city] is innovative
		0.715	There are many self-employment opportunities in [city]
		0.726	[City] is a good place to do business in
9	Shopping and medical care	0.489	[City] has a wide range of shopping opportunities
		0.717	[City] has good access to medical care
		0.735	[City] has a high quality of medical care facilities
10	Culture	0.585	There are a lot of different cultures and ethnic groups in [city]
		0.706	There are sufficient cultural centres in [city]
		0.744	[City] has made an important contribution to South Africa’s culture
11	Housing	0.587	There is sufficient housing available in [city]
		0.644	The housing market in [city] is favourable
		0.762	It is easy to find affordable housing in [city]

5.4.3 Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

CFA was performed using SPSS AMOS. The next section deals with convergent and discriminant validity for this study.

5.4.3.1 Convergent validity

Table 5.8 indicates the squared correlations between factors for the 11-factor model used for this study.

Table 5.8: Squared correlations between factors

Factor	CR value	AVE
Housing	0.746	0.500
Lifestyle and social interaction	0.878	0.509
Vision and strategy	0.894	0.679
Image	0.838	0.564
Education	0.831	0.554
Leisure and cityscape	0.814	0.469
Safety	0.813	0.592
Employment	0.811	0.519
Business	0.765	0.448
Shopping and medical care	0.812	0.606
Culture	0.737	0.491

Main finding 7: *It can be noted from Table 5.8 that the CR levels of all factors are above 0.70 which indicate that construct reliability was achieved (Hair et al., 2014:619). In terms of convergent validity, the factors "Leisure and cityscape", "Business" and "Culture" showed an AVE value of less than .5, which is below the acceptable level of .5 (Hair et al., 2014:618). But according to Malhotra and Dash (2011:702), should the AVE not be .5 but the CR values are acceptable, the convergent validity of the factors is adequate.*

The next section examines discriminant validity.

5.4.3.2 Discriminant validity

The results of the discriminant validity performed in SPSS AMOS are supplied in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9: Discriminant validity

	Housing	Lifestyle and social	Vision and strategy	Image	Education	Leisure & cityscape	Safety	Employ-ment	Business	Culture	Shopping and medical care
Housing	0.707										
Lifestyle & social	0.441	0.713									
Vision and strategy	0.446	0.545	0.824								
Image	0.500	0.700	0.538	0.751							
Education	0.346	0.490	0.320	0.582	0.744						
Leisure & cityscape	0.491	0.583	0.641	0.709	0.569	0.685					
Safety	0.312	0.516	0.615	0.484	0.277	0.451	0.769				
Employment	0.529	0.383	0.488	0.478	0.391	0.546	0.391	0.721			
Business	0.331	0.454	0.337	0.579	0.444	0.493	0.220	0.487	0.670		
Shopping & medical care	0.322	0.402	0.307	0.434	0.540	0.434	0.211	0.454	0.401	0.779	
Culture	0.394	0.447	0.326	0.563	0.490	0.568	0.229	0.473	0.448	0.355	0.700

It is evident from Table 5.9 that 10 of the 11 factors suggested discriminant validity based on the AVE of each factor being greater than the squared correlation of the other factors (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Only the AVE value (presented in Table 5.8) of the "Leisure and cityscape" factor is smaller than the squared correlation.

Main finding 8: *It can be concluded that the 11 factors measuring city branding are reliable and valid based on the reliability and validity tests performed.*

5.4.3.3 Goodness of fit metrics

The comparison of the goodness of fit metrics for the 13-factor and 11-factor measurement models is presented in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10: Goodness of fit metrics

Goodness of fit metrics	Values: 13-factor measurement model	Values: 11-factor measurement model
GFI	0.528	0.644
RMSEA	0.113	0.109
CFI	0.840	0.890
TLI	0.841	0.872
AGFI	0.549	0.610
PNFI	0.603	0.671

Main finding 9: *It can be noted from Table 5.10 that the 11-factor measurement model has a better goodness of fit due to the higher GFI value, CFI value, TLI value, AGFI value and PNFI value compared to the 13-factor model. In terms of RMSEA the 11-factor measurement model has the lower value, which also indicates the better fit measurement model.*

5.5 Assessing distribution of data

The Kolmogrov-Smirnov test and Shapiro-Wilk test were used for testing the normality of the data (Field, 2013:185). Table 5.11 indicates the results of these two tests in this study.

Table 5.11: Test of normality

	Kolmogrov-Smirnova			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
Lifestyle and social interaction	.056	603	.000	.984	603	.000
Vision and strategy	.086	603	.000	.964	603	.000
Image	.083	603	.000	.984	603	.000
Education	0.84	603	.000	.965	603	.000
Safety	.082	603	.000	.961	603	.000
Leisure and cityscape	.059	603	.000	.987	603	.000
Employment	.069	603	.000	.977	603	.000
Business	.075	603	.000	.985	603	.000
Shopping and medical care	.096	603	.000	.964	603	.000
Culture	.093	603	.000	.979	603	.000
Housing	.087	603	.000	.972	603	.000

Main finding 10: *It can be concluded from Table 5.11 that the data for this study is not normally distributed as the Sig. value is .000 ($p < .05$).*

Based on the results that the data for this study is not normally distributed, non-parametric tests were used to compare the level of experience scores of the different groups.

5.6 Respondents' level of experience with the city branding factors

Section B of the questionnaire asked the respondents to indicate their level of agreement with the statements using a 1 to 5 scale, where 1 indicated "Strongly disagree" and 5 indicated "Strongly agree" with the statement asked.

In Table 5.12 the level of experience of the 11 factors of city branding is shown. This table includes the total population of this study, thus permanent residents of Potchefstroom, Klerksdorp and Rustenburg.

Table 5.12: Level of experience of the 11 factors of city branding

Factor	N	Mean	Std. deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
				Statistic	Std. error	Statistic	Std. error
Education	603	3.61	.914	-.453	.100	-.235	.199
Shopping and medical care	603	3.55	.934	-.354	.100	-.275	.199
Lifestyle and social interaction	603	3.39	.864	-.329	.100	-.297	.199
Business	603	3.29	.820	-.080	.100	-.127	.199
Image	603	3.22	.901	-.112	.100	-.392	.199
Culture	603	3.04	.884	-.116	.100	-.132	.199
Leisure and cityscape	603	2.84	.914	.155	.100	-.430	.199
Housing	603	2.78	1.01	.223	.100	-.509	.199
Safety	603	2.64	1.06	.180	.100	-.674	.199
Employment	603	2.53	.862	.326	.100	-.043	.199
Vision and strategy	603	2.53	.995	.352	.100	-.360	.199

Main finding 11: *It is evident from Table 5.12 that the "Education" factor scored the highest level of experience (performance) of all the factors with a mean score of 3.61. When referring to the scale used, it can be mentioned that most of the respondents agreed with the items (statements) which make up the factor. The "Shopping and medical" factor scored the second highest performance score with a mean score of 3.55, and the "Lifestyle and social" factor scored a mean score of 3.39, which indicates the third highest performance level. The "Vision and strategy" and "Employment" factors had the worst level of experience, scoring a mean score of 2.53 for both factors. These scores indicate that the respondents disagreed or were indifferent towards the items (statements). Table 5.12 also indicates the skewness and kurtosis values, which indicate that the data is not normally distributed, as the skewness and kurtosis value is not equal to 0 (Pallant, 2013:59). The standard deviations for the factors range between 0.862 and 1.06, which indicate that the scores are relatively the same and centred around the mean score.*

Table 5.13 indicates the level of experience of each item which makes up the factors; again the results are for the total population of this study.

Table 5.13: Level of experience per item

Statement	Valid	Mean	Std. Dev.
Education			
There is high quality of school education available in [city]	603	3.85	1.102
There are many educational facilities in [city]	603	3.68	1.150
The general standard of the local schools in [city] is good	603	3.63	1.054
There are prestigious tertiary institutions in [city]	603	3.29	1.206
Shopping and medical care			
[City] has a high quality of medical care facilities	603	3.61	1.118
[City] has good access to medical care	603	3.52	1.133
[City] has a wide range of shopping opportunities	603	3.51	1.123
Lifestyle and social interaction			
I'm proud to stay in [city]	603	3.57	1.214
The overall lifestyle of [city] is good	603	3.48	1.094
[City] is a good place for bonding with your family	603	3.41	1.097
It is easy to make friends in [city]	603	3.40	1.176
The people in [city] are friendly	603	3.32	1.148
It is easy to fit into the community of [city]	603	3.31	1.125
The residents in [city] are tolerant against outsiders	603	3.22	1.126
Business			
[City] is a good place to do business in	603	3.63	1.042
[City] has good economic growth	603	3.40	1.071
The business in [city] is innovative	603	3.09	.983
There are many self-employment opportunities in [city]	603	3.05	1.187
Image			
The image of [city] is appealing	603	3.26	1.095
[City] has a very attractive image	603	3.24	1.118
[City] has a good national status	603	3.20	1.061
There is a good energy in [city]	603	3.19	1.123

Table 5.13: Level of experience per item (cont.)

Statement	Valid	Mean	Std. Dev.
Culture			
[City] has a good cultural diversity	603	3.21	1.087
[City] has made an important contribution to South Africa's culture	603	3.06	1.134
There are sufficient cultural centres in [city]	603	2.86	1.084
Leisure and cityscape			
There are sufficient amount of cultural events/festivals in [city]	603	3.06	1.197
[City] has a wide range of outdoor activities	603	2.92	1.154
There are interesting things to do in [city]	603	2.83	1.221
There is access to clean outdoor recreational areas in [city]	603	2.79	1.223
[City] has lots of parks and available green zones	603	2.61	1.261
Housing			
There is sufficient housing available in [city]	603	3.10	1.271
The housing market in [city] is favourable	603	2.79	1.191
It is easy to find affordable housing in [city]	603	2.45	1.273
Safety			
I feel safe in [city]	603	2.88	1.287
The level of crime in [city] is lower than the average of South Africa	603	2.71	1.253
There is a low level of corruption in [city]	603	2.32	1.209
Employment			
There are a lot of professional/business networks in [city]	603	2.94	1.047
[City] has diversified employment opportunities	603	2.72	1.080
In [city] it is easy to find employment	603	2.24	1.086
The salaries in [city] are good	603	2.21	1.105
Vision and strategy			
The local government's vision for [city] is favourable	603	2.62	1.149
Residents can participate in local decision-making	603	2.53	1.101
The effectiveness of [city]'s governing structure is good	603	2.50	1.106
I trust the local government of [city] to make good decisions	603	2.46	1.212

Main finding 12: *It can be noted from Table 5.13 that in terms of "Education", the item which was scored with the highest level of experience is "There is a high quality of school education available in [city]", with a mean score of 3.85. In terms of "Shopping and medical care", the item "[City] has a high quality of medical care facilities" scored the highest with a mean score of 3.61. The "I'm proud to stay in [city]" item of the "Lifestyle and social interaction" factor was scored the highest, with a mean score of 3.57. For the "Business" factor, the item "[City] is a good place to do business in" scored the highest level of experience (performance) with a mean score of 3.63, whereas the item "The image of [city] is appealing" in the "Image" factor scored the highest level of performance with a mean score of 3.26. The item "[City] has a good cultural diversity" scored the highest level of experience with a mean score of 3.21, which also indicated that most of the respondents were indifferent when scoring this item of the "Culture" factor. A low level of experience was measured for the "Leisure and cityscape", "Housing", "Safety", "Employment", and "Vision and strategy" factors; therefore the items that make up these factors were also scored low. The standard deviation of these statements ranges between 0.983 and 1.273.which indicate that the results are relatively the same and centred around the mean score.*

The level of experience of the 11 factors of city branding for residents of Potchefstroom are shown in Table 5.14, followed by the level of experience of residents in Klerksdorp in Table 5.15 and residents of Rustenburg in Table 5.16.

Table 5.14: Level of experience of the 11 factors of city branding for residents of Potchefstroom

Factor	N	Mean	Std. deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
				Statistic	Std. error	Statistic	Std. error
Education	194	4.06	.742	-.726	.175	.255	.347
Lifestyle and social interaction	194	3.63	.740	-.678	.175	.940	.347
Shopping and medical care	194	3.63	.824	-.624	.175	.567	.347
Image	194	3.55	.765	-.469	.175	.251	.347
Business	194	3.27	.758	-.076	.175	.209	.347
Culture	194	3.14	.857	-.308	.175	.148	.347
Leisure and cityscape	194	3.12	.829	-.067	.175	-.203	.347
Safety	194	3.06	1.00	-.249	.175	-.251	.347
Vision and strategy	194	2.74	.910	.147	.175	-.116	.347
Housing	194	2.74	.932	.182	.175	-.273	.347
Employment	194	2.60	.777	.037	.175	-.022	.347

Main finding 13: *From Table 5.14 the "Education" factor was scored the highest level of experience with a mean score of 4.06 which indicated that the respondents agreed with the statements. The mean score for both the "Lifestyle and social interaction" factor and "Shopping and medical care" factor were 3.63 whereas the "Employment" factor was the worst experienced factor with a mean score of 2.60. Again the skewness and kurtosis indicated that the data was not normally distributed. The standard deviation for these factors ranges between 0.740 and 1.00, which indicate that the results are relatively the same and centred around the mean score.*

Table 5.15: Level of experience of the 11 factors of city branding for residents of Klerksdorp

Factor	N	Mean	Std. deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
				Statistic	Std. error	Statistic	Std. error
Shopping and medical care	207	3.63	.924	-.324	.169	-.500	.337
Education	207	3.45	.915	-.334	.169	-.220	.337
Lifestyle and social interaction	207	3.41	.835	-.135	.169	-.615	.337
Business	207	3.24	.833	-.095	.169	-.111	.337
Image	207	3.03	.961	.199	.169	-.329	.337
Culture	207	2.94	.911	.132	.169	-.258	.337
Housing	207	2.90	1.01	.114	.169	-.576	.337
Leisure and cityscape	207	2.70	.917	.394	.169	-.380	.337
Employment	207	2.41	.865	.485	.169	-.202	.337
Vision and strategy	207	2.40	1.03	.583	.169	-.282	.337
Safety	207	2.37	1.01	.422	.169	-.392	.337

Main finding 14: *In terms of the responses provided by the residents of Klerksdorp, it can be observed that the "Shopping and medical care" factor performed the best with a mean score of 3.63, followed by the "Education" factor with a mean score of 3.45. In the case of the residents of Klerksdorp, the "Safety" factor performed the worst with a mean score of 2.37, which indicated that the respondents did not agree with the statements. The standard deviation for these statements ranges between 0.833 and 1.03, which indicate that the results are relatively the same and centred around the mean score.*

Table 5.16: Level of experience of the 11 factors of city branding for residents of Rustenburg

Factor	N	Mean	Std. deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
				Statistic	Std. error	Statistic	Std. error
Shopping and medical care	202	3.38	1.02	-.122	.171	-.528	.341
Business	202	3.36	.861	-.099	.171	-.365	.341
Education	202	3.34	.903	-.272	.171	-.284	.341
Lifestyle and social interaction	202	3.13	.934	-.064	.171	-.505	.341
Image	202	3.10	.873	.025	.171	-.362	.341
Culture	202	3.05	.875	-.191	.171	.002	.341
Leisure and cityscape	202	2.72	.932	.247	.171	-.267	.341
Housing	202	2.69	1.07	.361	.171	-.564	.341
Employment	202	2.58	.925	.388	.171	.109	.341
Safety	202	2.50	1.05	.384	.171	-.563	.341
Vision and strategy	202	2.45	1.00	.407	.171	-.293	.341

Main finding 15: *Table 5.16 provides the results of the residents of Rustenburg. The three factors which scored the highest level of experience had mean scores adjacent to each other, with the "Shopping and medical care" factor having a mean score of 3.38, followed by the "Business" factor with a mean score of 3.36 and the "Education" factor with a mean score of 3.34. These residents scored the "Vision and strategy" factor as the worst performing factor, with a mean score of 2.45. The standard deviation for these factors ranges between 0.861 and 1.07, which indicate that the results are relatively the same and centred around the mean score.*

Table 5.17 indicates the level of experience of the different items as scored by the residents of the different cities.

Table 5.17: Level of experience of the statements among the different city's respondents

Statement	Mean – Potchefstroom	Mean – Klerksdorp	Mean – Rustenburg
Education			
There is high quality of school education available in [city]	4.16	3.79	3.60
There are many educational facilities in [city]	4.14	3.55	3.36
The general standard of the local schools in [city] is good	3.90	3.57	3.44
There are prestigious tertiary institutions in [city]	4.04	2.92	2.94
Shopping and medical care			
[City] has a wide range of shopping opportunities	3.44	3.71	3.38
[City] has a high quality of medical care facilities	3.78	3.64	3.41
[City] has good access to medical care	3.68	3.53	3.34
Lifestyle and social interaction			
[City] is a good place for bonding with your family	3.70	3.37	3.18
It is easy to make friends in [city]	3.54	3.47	3.19
The people in [city] are friendly	3.58	3.39	3.00
It is easy to fit into the community of [city]	3.40	3.43	3.08
The residents in [city] are tolerant against outsiders	3.39	3.28	3.01
I'm proud to stay in [city]	3.93	3.52	3.28
Lifestyle and social interaction			
The overall lifestyle of [city] is good	3.89	3.38	3.19
Business			
[City] is a good place to do business in	3.51	3.63	3.75
[City] has good economic growth	3.44	3.32	3.45
There are many self-employment opportunities in [city]	3.03	2.99	3.12
The business in [city] is innovative	3.09	3.03	3.13

Table 5.17: Level of experience of the statements among the different city's respondents (cont.)

Statement	Mean – Potchefstroom	Mean – Klerksdorp	Mean – Rustenburg
Image			
[City] has a very attractive image	3.57	3.05	3.12
[City] has a good national status	3.48	3.00	3.14
There is a good energy in [city]	3.56	3.01	3.01
The image of [city] is appealing	3.61	3.03	3.15
Culture			
There are a lot of different cultures and ethnic groups in [city]	4.02	4.04	4.14
There are sufficient cultural centres in [city]	2.88	2.84	2.86
[City] has made an important contribution to South Africa's culture	3.25	2.89	3.06
[City] has a good cultural diversity	3.30	3.10	3.25
Leisure and cityscape			
[City] has lots of parks and available green zones	3.06	2.35	2.45
There is access to clean outdoor recreational areas in [city]	3.07	2.59	2.74
There are sufficient amount of cultural events/festivals in [city]	3.34	3.04	2.83
[City] has a range of outdoor activities	3.14	2.82	2.81
Leisure and cityscape			
There are interesting things to do in [city]	3.01	2.71	2.80
Housing			
There is sufficient housing available in [city]	3.17	3.10	3.03
It is easy to find affordable housing in [city]	2.27	2.67	2.39
The housing market in [city] is favourable	2.77	2.93	2.66
Safety			
I feel safe in [city]	3.37	2.58	2.71
The level of crime in [city] is lower than the average of South Africa	3.20	2.43	2.54
There is a low level of corruption in [city]	2.62	2.10	2.24

Table 5.17: Level of experience of the statements among the different city's respondents (cont.)

Statement	Mean – Potchefstroom	Mean – Klerksdorp	Mean – Rustenburg
Employment			
[City] has employment opportunities	2.86	2.63	2.67
In [city] it is easy to find employment	2.37	2.09	2.28
The salaries in [city] are good	2.26	2.00	2.39
There are lots of professional/business networks in [city]	2.93	2.91	2.98
Vision and strategy			
I trust the local government of [city] to make good decisions	2.73	2.28	2.38
The effectiveness of [city]'s governing structure is good	2.76	2.34	2.43
Residents can participate in local decision-making	2.66	2.47	2.47
The local government's vision is favourable	2.82	2.50	2.54

Main finding 16: *From Table 5.17 it is clear that for the "Education" factor the statement "There is a high quality of school education available in [city]" was the statement which rated the highest level of experience for all the residents of the different cities. However, when examining the "Shopping and medical care" factor, the Potchefstroom residents scored the statement "[City] has a wide range of shopping opportunities" at the highest level of experience with a mean score of 3.71, whereas Klerksdorp and Rustenburg residents scored "[City] has a high quality of medical care facilities" at the highest level of experience with mean scores of 3.78 and 3.41 respectively. "The overall lifestyle of [city] is good" was the statement that residents of Potchefstroom, Klerksdorp and Rustenburg scored at the highest level of experience within the "Lifestyle and social interaction" factor. The same occurred with the "Business" factor, where the residents of all three cities scored the statement "[City] is a good place to do business in" at the highest level of experience. When investigating the "Image" factor, both the residents of Potchefstroom and Rustenburg scored the statement "The image of [city] is appealing" the highest, with mean scores of 3.61 and 3.15 respectively, whereas the residents of Klerksdorp scored the statement "[City] has a very attractive image" at the highest level of experience, with a mean score of 3.05. In terms of the factors "Culture", "Leisure and cityscape", "Housing", "Safety", "Employment" and "Vision and strategy", the residents of the three cities all scored the same statement within each factor as the highest.*

To compare the level of experience between gender groups, the Mann-Whitney U test was used. The results of this test are show in Table 5.18.

Table 5.18: Comparing the level of experience between gender groups

Test statistic [a]	Education	Shopping and medical care	Lifestyle and social interaction	Business	Image	Culture	Leisure and cityscape	Housing	Safety	Employment	Vision and strategy
Mann-Whitney U	45023	44767	43169	44569	44888	43884	39237	44996	43075	38210	44723
Wilcoxon W	92609	92353	90755	92155	92474	91470	86823	92582	90661	85796	92309
Z	-0.191	-0.312	-1.059	-0.405	-0.255	-0.728	-2.902	-0.204	-1.107	-3.390	-0.332
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.849	.755	.290	.686	.799	.467	.004	.838	.268	.001	.740

[a]. Grouping variable: Gender

Main finding 17: *The Mann-Whitney U test revealed no significant different in the scores between male and female residents for the "Education", "Shopping and medical care", "Lifestyle and social interaction", "Business", "Image", "Culture", "Housing", "Safety" and "Vision and strategy" factors as the p values > 0.05. However, there seems to be a significant difference between the scores of male and female residents for the factors "Leisure and cityscape" and "Employment" as p <0.05. Closer examination of these two factors revealed that the effect size of the difference is small at r =0.11 and r = 0.13 respectively (Cohen, 1988).*

To compare the level of experience scores between the residents of Potchefstroom, Klerksdorp and Rustenburg, the Kruskal-Wallis test was performed. The test statistics of the Kruskal-Wallis test for the 11 factors are presented in Table 5.19.

Table 5.19: Test statistics of the Kruskal-Wallis test

Test statistic [a,b]	Education	Shopping and medical care	Lifestyle and social interaction	Business	Image	Culture	Leisure and cityscape	Housing	Safety	Employment	Vision and strategy
Chi-square	75.503	10.077	34.055	2.148	45.811	7.192	30.400	5.002	51.850	8.265	16.464
df	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Asymp. sig.	.000	.006	.000	.342	.000	.027	.000	.082	.000	.016	.000

[a] Kruskal-Wallis test, [b] City of residence

Main finding 18: *It can be noted from Table 5.19 that the Kruskal-Wallis test indicated a statistically significant difference in scores for the "Education", "Shopping and medical care", "Lifestyle and social interaction", "Image", "Culture", "Leisure and cityscape", "Safety", "Employment" and "Vision and strategy" factors across the residents of the different cities as the p value < 0.05. The "Business" factor and "Housing" factor, however, did not reveal a statistically significant difference between the different cities of residence as p > 0.05.*

The median scores obtained for the factors which indicated a significant difference in the scores of the different cities' residents are presented in Table 5.20.

Table 5.20: Median scores: Kruskal-Wallis tests

City of residence	Median scores								
	Lifestyle and social interaction	Vision and strategy	Image	Education	Safety	Employment	Leisure and cityscape	Shopping and medical care	Culture
Potchefstroom	3.71	2.75	3.63	4.00	3.00	2.75	3.20	3.67	3.33
Klerksdorp	3.43	2.25	3.00	3.50	2.33	2.25	2.60	3.67	3.00
Rustenburg	3.14	2.25	3.00	3.25	2.33	2.50	2.60	3.33	3.00

Main finding 19: *It can be noted from Table 5.20 that the residents of Potchefstroom recorded higher median scores (Md = 3.71, Md = 2.75, Md = 3.63, Md = 4.00, Md = 3.00, Md = 2.75, Md = 3.20, Md = 3.67, Md = 3.33) for all these factors, which indicated a significantly different score between the groups of residents.*

The final section of the chapter offers the level of importance with the city branding factors.

5.7 Respondents' level of importance with city branding factors

In section C of the questionnaire, respondents were provided with a list of characteristics (which were the 13 factors derived from the literature) that a city might hold. The word "characteristics" was used as most respondents understood it better than the word "factors". The respondents were asked to firstly choose five characteristics that were the most important to them, and secondly to then rate these five characteristics from 1 to 5 where 1 = the most important, 2 = second most important, 3 = third most important, 4 = fourth most important and 5 = fifth most important characteristics. It is important to note that although all 13 factors might be important to the respondent, the question attempts to establish the top 5 most important characteristics in relation to all the characteristics offered.

It should be noted that this section of the questionnaire, and therefore also the results, uses the initial 13 factors, as the questionnaire was developed before an EFA could be conducted.

5.7.1 Descriptive statistics

The descriptive statistics of the importance measurement are presented in Table 5.21.

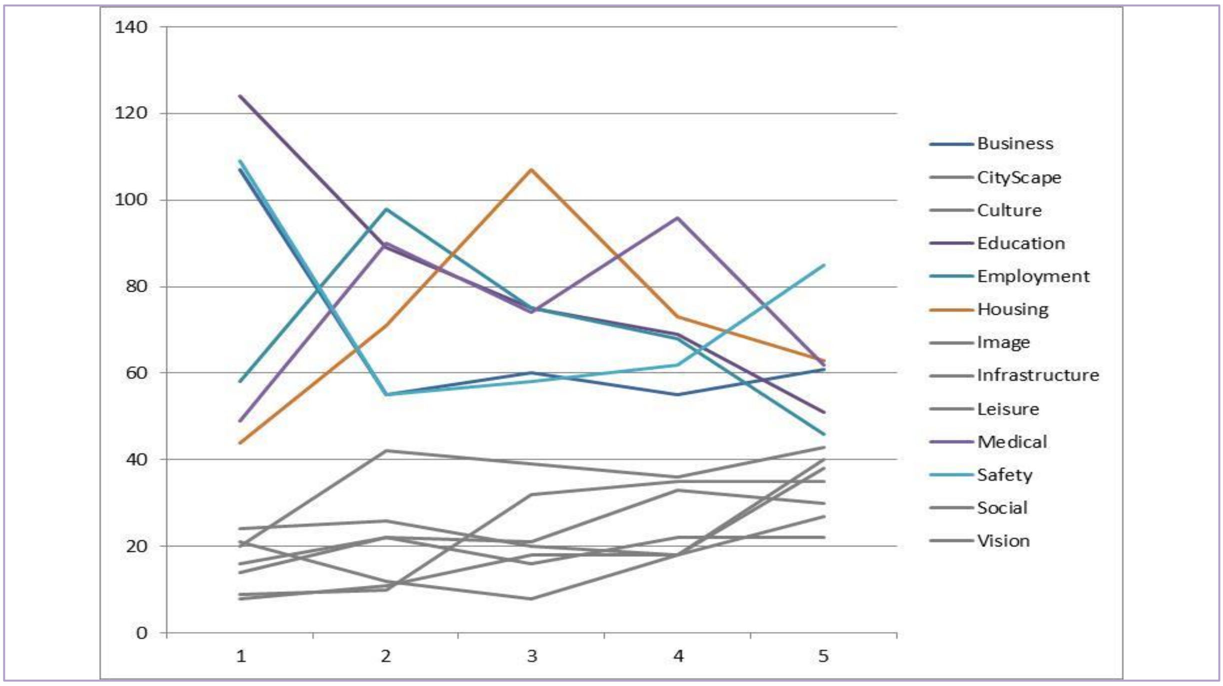
Table 5.21: Percentage of respondents ranking the factors as their top five (5) most important

Factor	Valid N	% of valid N	Mode
Education	408	67.66%	1
Medical	371	61.53%	4
Safety	369	61.19%	1
Housing	358	59.37%	3
Employment	345	57.21%	2
Business	338	56.05%	1
Infrastructure	180	29.85%	5
Leisure	121	20.07%	5, 4
Image	120	19.90%	4
Cityscape	115	19.07%	5
Culture	98	16.25%	5, 4, 2
Vision	97	16.09%	5
Social	95	15.75%	5

Main finding 20: *It can be noted from Table 5.21 that based on the percentage of valid number of respondents, which is the percentage of respondents that indicated the factor as being one of the top five most important factors, the top 6 most important factors were: Education, Medical, Safety, Housing, Employment, and Business, in that order. Table 5.21 indicates that 67.66% of the respondents indicated that "Education" was one of the top five most important factors, 61.53% indicated "Medical" as one of the top five, 61.19% indicated "Safety", 59.37% indicated "Housing", 57.21% indicated "Employment" and 56.05% indicated "Business" as one of the top five most important factors. The mode in Table 5.21 indicates the ranking value that was allocated most times. "Education", "Safety" and "Business" factors were most often ranked the most important factor, whereas "Employment" was ranked most often as the second most important, "Housing" ranked most often as the third most important factor, and "Medical" and "Image" were most often ranked as the fourth most important factor.*

The frequency counts for the factors ranked as the most important, second most important, third most important, fourth most important and fifth most important are presented in Figure 5.2.

Figure 5.2: Frequency counts for ranking scores



Main finding 21: *From Figure 5.2, it can be noted that six of the characteristics (shown in colours) were mentioned most often for their importance, whereas the other six characteristics (shown in grey) clearly show that these characteristics were mentioned only a few times as the top five most important.*

5.7.2 Importance sensitivity analysis

The importance scores recorded for all residents are shown in Table 5.22.

Table 5.22: Importance factors obtained from the sensitivity analysis using different rank aggregations

Borda score		Plurality		BruteAggreg	CE (Cross-Entropy Monte Carlo)	GA (Genetic algorithm)	GA (Genetic algorithm)*
Factor	Score	Factor	Score	Score	Score	Score	Score
Education	1390	**Education**	124	Safety	Safety	Medical	Safety
Safety	1148	**Safety**	109	Medical	Medical	Housing	Medical
Business	1106	**Business**	107	Housing	Housing	Education	Housing
Employment	1089	**Employment**	58	Employment	Employment	Employment	Education
Medical	1081	**Medical**	49	Education	Education	Safety	Business
Housing	1034	**Housing**	44				
Infrastructure	500	**Cityscape**	24				
Cityscape	347	**Vision and strategy**	21				
Image	317	**Infrastructure**	20				
Leisure	286	**Culture**	16				
Culture	282	**Image**	14				
Vision and strategy	251	**Leisure**	9				
Social	214	**Social**	8				

* Increased maximum iterations

Main finding 22: *It can be noted from Table 5.22 that all algorithms indicated the same factors as the most important for the residents. These factors are: Education, Business, Safety, Employment, Medical and Housing. Therefore, the scale seems to be not very sensitive for any changes in analysis method, e.g. the conversion of scores, and for this reason the Borda scores were determined and used for interpretation.*

5.7.3 Importance scores: Borda score

The importance scores for residents of Potchefstroom, Klerksdorp and Rustenburg as well as the combined importance scores of these residents are presented in Table 5.23.

Table 5.23: Importance scores for all residents and split between the residents of the different cities

All residents	Borda score	Potchefstroom residents	Borda score	Klerksdorp residents	Borda score	Rustenburg residents	Borda score
Education	1390	Education	525	Employment	456	Education	413
Safety	1148	Safety	393	Education	452	Business	412
Business	1106	Medical	369	Business	421	Safety	389
Employment	1089	Housing	355	Safety	366	Medical	379
Medical	1081	Employment	317	Housing	360	Housing	319
Housing	1034	Business	273	Medical	333	Employment	316
Infrastructure	500	Infrastructure	180	Infrastructure	140	Infrastructure	180
Cityscape	347	Image	95	Cityscape	128	Cityscape	132
Image	317	Leisure	89	Leisure	107	Image	125
Leisure	286	Cityscape	87	Culture	104	Culture	108
Culture	282	Social interaction	85	Image	97	Vision and strategy	91
Vision and strategy	251	Vision and strategy	72	Vision and strategy	88	Leisure	90
Social interaction	214	Culture	70	Social interaction	53	Social interaction	76

Main finding 23: *It can be noted from Table 5.23 that the six factors with the highest importance scores are the same among the residents of the different cities as well as for all residents who participated in this study. The only difference is the position of ranking for these factors.*

In terms of all residents, “Education” was ranked the most important factor, followed by “Safety”, then “Business”, “Employment”, “Medical” and “Housing”. The “Social interaction” factor received the lowest value, which indicates that this factor was mentioned the fewest times as one of the top five most important factors. Potchefstroom residents also scored “Education” as the most important factor, followed by “Safety”, “Medical”, “Housing”, “Employment” and “Business”. The order of important factors differed among the residents of Klerksdorp, who ranked “Employment” as the most important factor, followed by “Education”, “Business”, “Safety”, “Housing” and “Medical”. Again, the residents of Rustenburg ranked “Education” as the most important factor, followed by “Business”, “Safety”, “Medical”, “Housing” and then “Employment”.

5.8 Importance–performance matrix

The importance–performance matrix is developed by combining into a matrix the level of experience (which indicates performance) of section B in the questionnaire with the importance rankings of section C of the questionnaire. Due to the fact that the level of experience consists of 11 factors (refer to Table 5.7) and the importance rankings consist of 13 factors, some of the factors used for the importance ranking had to be combined to ensure the correct development of the importance–performance matrix. Table 5.24 indicates the comparison between the 11 and 13 factors and how the factors were combined.

Table 5.24: Combining the factors to develop importance–performance matrix

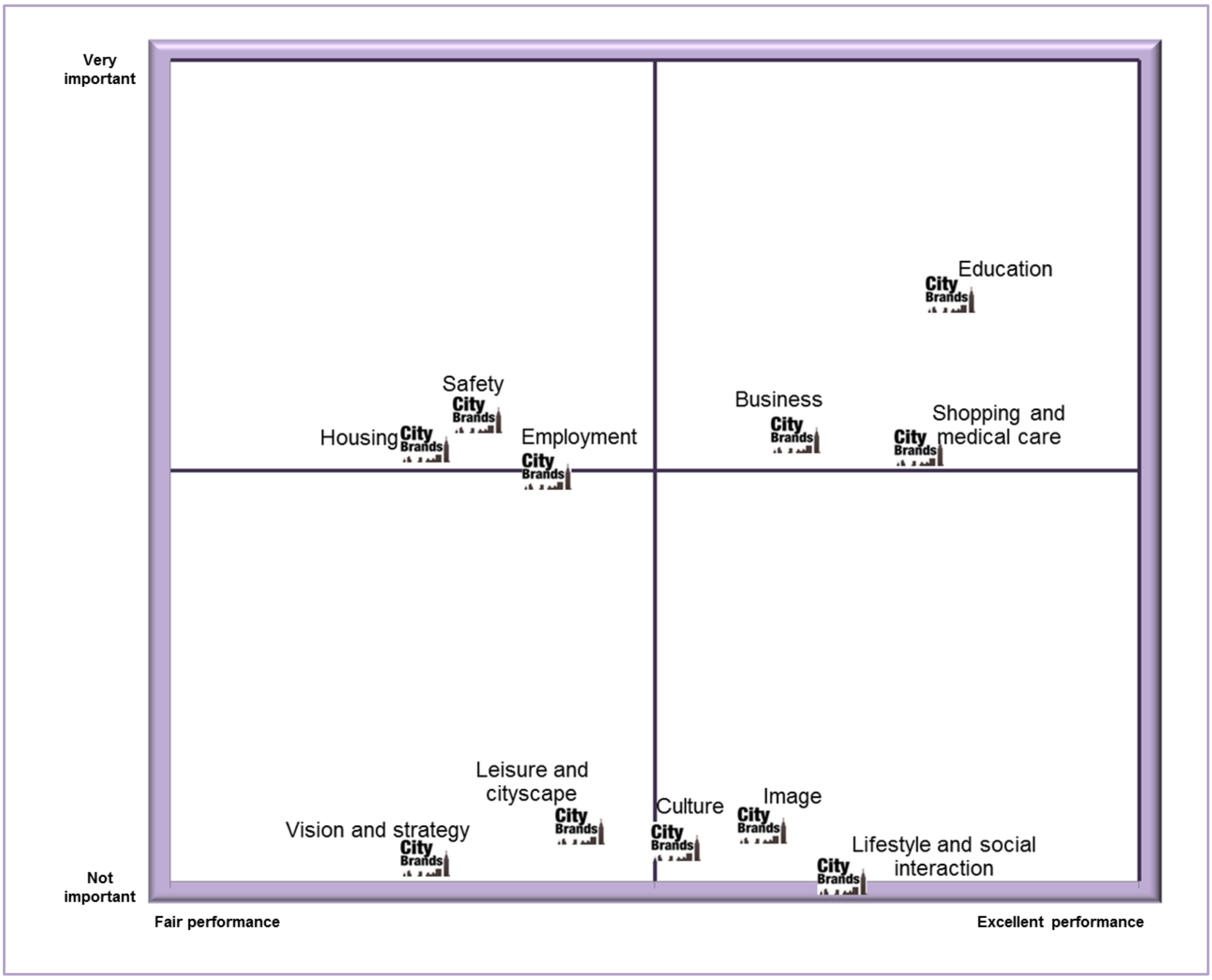
11 factors (level of experience)	13 factors (importance rankings)	Combined 11 factors (importance–performance matrix)
Image	Image	Image
Business	Business	Business
Vision and strategy	Vision and strategy	Vision and strategy
Leisure and cityscape	Cityscape	Combining cityscape and leisure and shopping
Education	Education	Education
Culture	Culture	Culture
Housing	Housing	Housing
Shopping and medical care	Medical care Leisure and shopping	Combining leisure and shopping with medical care

Table 5.24: Combining the factors to develop importance–performance matrix (cont.)

11 factors (level of experience)	13 factors (importance rankings)	Combined 11 factors (importance–performance matrix)
Employment	Employment	Employment
Safety	Safety	Safety
Lifestyle and social interaction	Social interaction Vision	Combining social interaction with vision and strategy
Not included	Infrastructure	Not included

The importance–performance matrix for all residents who participated in this study is presented in Figure 5.3.

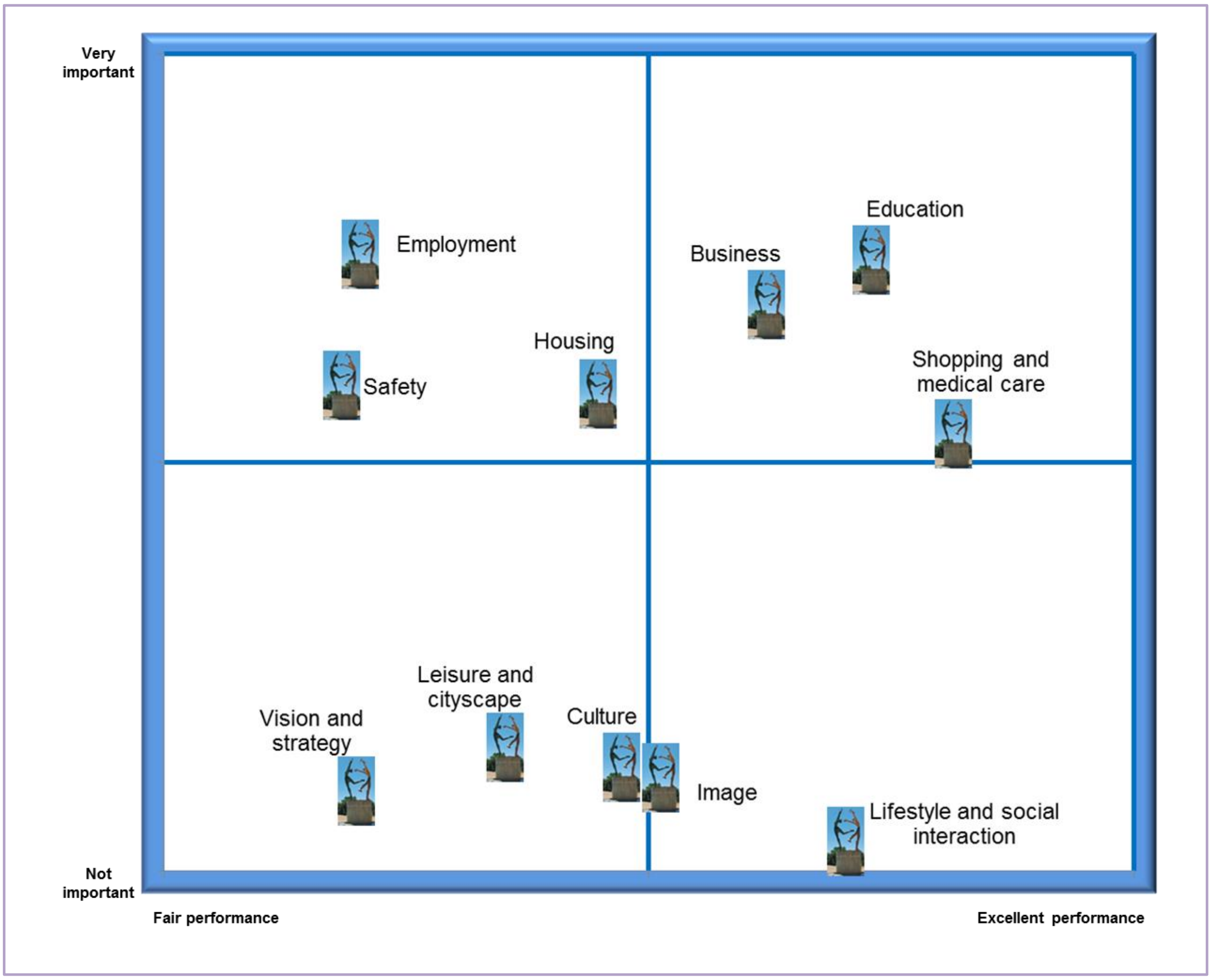
Figure 5.3: Importance–Performance Matrix for all residents



Main finding 24: *It can be noted from Figure 5.3 that the factors "Education", "Business" and "Shopping and medical care" have good performance levels and are also important factors for the residents. These factors therefore fall into the top-right quadrant of the matrix. The top-left quadrant comprises the factors "Housing", "Safety" and "Employment", which means that these factors have fair performance levels but are important factors for the residents. The factors "Culture", "Image", and "Lifestyle and social interaction" were scored as performing well but do not seem very important to the residents. Therefore, the factors "Culture", "Image", and "Lifestyle and social interaction" fall into the bottom-right quadrant of the matrix. The bottom-left quadrant consists of factors with fair performance and which are not important to the residents. The factors which fall into this quadrant are "Vision and strategy" and "Leisure and cityscape".*

The importance–performance matrix for the residents of Klerksdorp is presented in Figure 5.4.

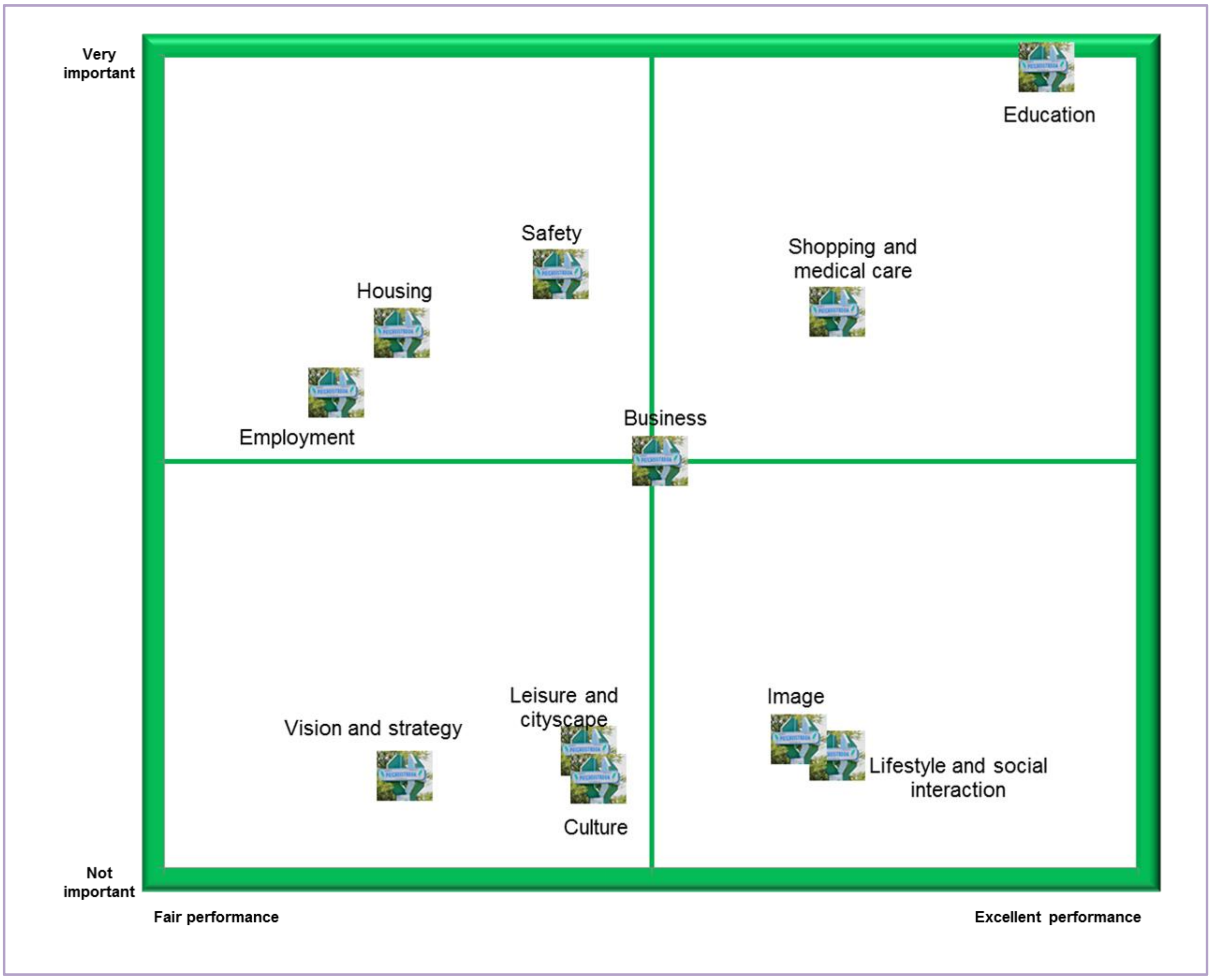
Figure 5.4: Importance–Performance Matrix for Klerksdorp residents



Main finding 25: *From Figure 5.4 it can be remarked that, as with the matrix for all the residents, for the residents of Klerksdorp the factors "Education", "Business" and "Shopping and medical care" had high performance levels and are also important for the residents. Therefore, these factors fit into the top-right quadrant of the matrix. The "Employment", "Safety" and "Housing" factors scored a fair performance level but are ranked as important factors and are positioned in the top-left quadrant of the matrix. In terms of factors with a good level of performance but low importance scores, the factors "Vision and strategy", "Leisure and cityscape" and "Culture" are located in the bottom-left quadrant, which indicates fair performance and low importance. Lastly, the factors "Image" and "Lifestyle and social interaction" were scored as being not very important to the residents but did measure a high level of performance and therefore are located in the bottom-right quadrant of the matrix.*

The importance–performance matrix for residents of Potchefstroom is presented in Figure 5.5.

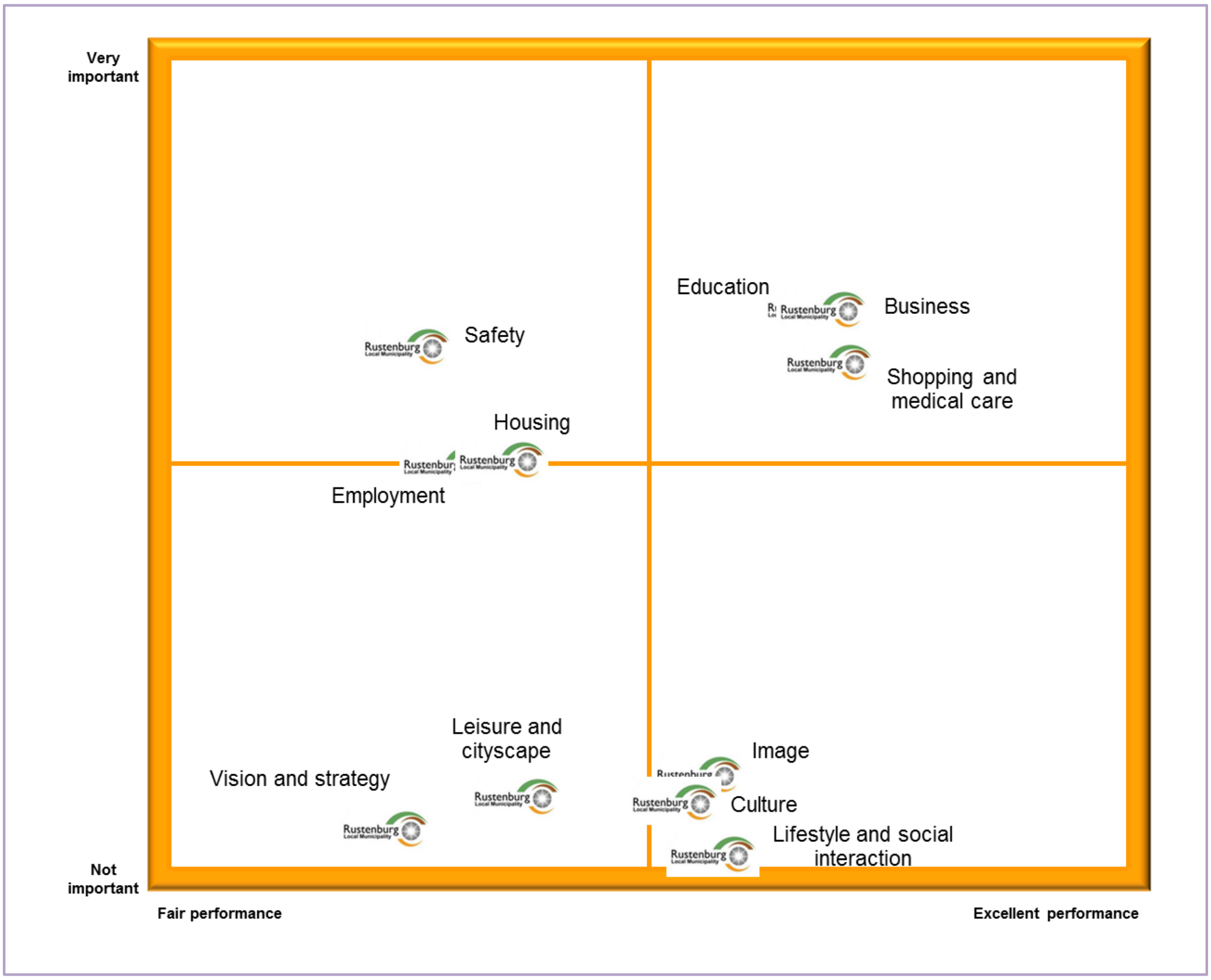
Figure 5.5: Importance-performance matrix for Potchefstroom residents



Main finding 26: *In terms of the importance–performance matrix for the residents of Potchefstroom, which is presented in Figure 5.5, it can be noted that the "Education" factor are very important to these residents and was scored as being excellent in performance. The "Shopping and medical care" factor also falls in the same quadrant as "Education", but had a lower level of importance and performance. For these residents, "Safety", "Housing" and "Employment" are important factors, but the matrix indicates the levels of performance as between good and fair and therefore positioned in the top-right quadrant of the matrix. The "Business" factor is located in the middle of the matrix, which indicates a good level of performance and average importance level. The "Image" and "Lifestyle and social interaction" factors are not important to these residents but have a good to excellent performance level and therefore are located in the bottom-right quadrant of the matrix. In terms of the bottom-left quadrant, which includes factors with a good to fair level of experience and which are not important to the residents, the factors "Culture", "Vision and strategy" and "Leisure and cityscape" are located here.*

The importance–performance matrix for residents of Potchefstroom is presented in Figure 5.6.

Figure 5.6: Importance–Performance Matrix for Rustenburg residents



***Main finding 27: T**he importance–performance matrix for residents of Potchefstroom is presented in Figure 5.6 .presents the results for the residents of Rustenburg and it can be noted that the factors "Education", "Business" and "Shopping and medical care" are located in the top-right quadrant, which indicates that these factors are important to the residents and are also scored towards excellent performance level. The "Safety" factor is positioned in the top-left quadrant which indicates that the factor was moderate to very important to the residents but scored a good to fair level of performance. The "Housing" and "Employment" factors are also positioned in the top-left quadrant but present more moderate importance levels compared to the "Safety" factor. In terms of the bottom quadrants, the "Vision and strategy" and "Leisure and cityscape" factors are located in the bottom-left quadrant, as these factors are not important to the residents and also have only a good to fair level of performance. In the bottom-right quadrant, the factors "Image", "Culture" and "Lifestyle and social interaction" are located, indicating a low level of importance but good to excellent level of performance.*

5.9 Conclusion

This chapter discussed and interpreted the results from the study. In this chapter, the demographic profile of the respondents was provided, and it was indicated that the 100.50% of the predetermined sample was realised with a very good split between the number of respondents per city – Potchefstroom: 194 respondents, Klerksdorp: 207 respondents and Rustenburg: 202 respondents. The exploratory factor analysis extracted 11 factors instead of the 13 factors presented from the literature, and had an acceptable level of reliability. The confirmatory analysis revealed that both discriminant and convergent validity were achieved; and when comparing the goodness of fit between the 11 factors and 13 factors, it was concluded that the 11-factor measurement model of city branding had a better goodness of fit.

The levels of experience scores were presented and it was revealed that the "Education" factor was scored at the highest level of experience, with the "Vision and strategy" factor recording the lowest level of experience by all residents. The score differences between gender groups and city of residence was conducted and the results presented. Based on the data for this study not being normally distributed, non-parametric tests were used to compare the differences.

The final section of this chapter provided the results obtained from analysing section C of the questionnaire, which measured the top five most important factors. It was concluded that the factor "Education" is ranked as the most important factor in relation to all the factors presented to the residents. Using the level of experience and importance scores, this chapter presented importance–performance matrixes for all the residents, those of Potchefstroom, Klerksdorp and Rustenburg. The next chapter of this study provides conclusions and recommendations based on the findings of this study.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide conclusions and recommendations drawn from the results obtained in chapter 5 as well as the literature review supplied in chapters 2 and 3. The chapter begins with an overview of the study, followed by the conclusions and recommendations for each of the secondary objectives, and concludes with a flow diagram indicating the links between the objectives of this study, questions in the questionnaire, result findings, conclusions and recommendations. The final section of the chapter discusses the limitations of the study as well as suggestions for future research.

6.2 Overview of the study

As stated by Sevin (2014:47), more and more cities have to explore branding options to increase their reputations in a very competitive environment. Globalisation has given residents the opportunity to decide where they want to stay, work and live, and therefore the understanding of how to brand a city to attract residents has become essential. This phenomenon is also evident in the number of international studies being conducted on the topic of city branding. However, there are limited academic studies being undertaken on the application of city branding within the South African context. As mentioned previously, even when the editor of the *Journal of Place Branding and Public Diplomacy* requested articles from Africa on the topic in 2014, very few articles were received, with none being from a tertiary institution in South Africa. The academic articles that do exist are all applicable to tourism and not to marketing or branding.

Currently there are various city marketing and city branding frameworks using different and mutual elements to measure and define city branding. This study used these frameworks to develop one questionnaire which could measure the level of experience and importance of residence in three cities in the North West province.

Hence, the primary objective of this study is to develop a city branding framework for selected cities in the North West province.

The secondary objectives (SO) for this study are to:

(1) provide a theoretical overview of marketing, with a specific focus on place and city marketing

(2) provide a theoretical overview of branding, including place, city and corporate branding

(3) conduct factor analysis to reduce the theoretically determined factors of the city branding construct and to confirm the factors extracted

(4) measure the residents' level of experience of the respective city branding factors

(5) measure the importance of the city branding factors among residents

(6) present an importance–performance matrix of the city branding factors

Chapter 2 of this study provided a comprehensive theoretical overview of the terms "marketing", "place marketing" and "city marketing". The chapter commenced with the definitions of these terms, supplying the first definitions published as well as more recent definitions. It was concluded that satisfying the needs and wants of customers is pivotal to marketing, place marketing and also city marketing. As mentioned by Van den Berg and Braun (1999:995) and Hospers (2010:190), the marketing of cities is not only about organising it but also about translating the marketing concept to cities. City marketing resembles the marketing concept, as it is a long term process intended to satisfy the needs and wants of a city's different target groups. According to Hospers (2011:371), places have at least three types of consumers: 1) the inhabitants looking for a place to live, work and relax, 2) firms looking for a place to locate to, conduct business in, and employ employees, and 3) visitors seeking leisure and tourism opportunities. In terms of this study, the focus was on the first target group, namely residents looking for a place to live and work. Customer behaviour, which is an important element of marketing, was also investigated, as well as its effect on city and place marketing. A customer behaviour model presented by Schiffman and Kanuk (2014:16) and Schiffman and Wisenblit (2015:48) reflects how the elements of family, social class and culture influence city marketing efforts, and can therefore assist cities with the development of city marketing strategies.

Chapter 2 furthermore supplied a theoretical overview of a marketing strategy with reference to its key elements. Marketing segmentation, targeting and positioning are traditional marketing elements which can be used when developing city and place marketing strategies, as cities need to know and understand which people want to live in the city and how public policy can accommodate them by segmenting the residents and potential residents of a city. Targeting can also be used by cities, as cities can capitalise on their strengths, enhance residential development and revitalise cities throughout the nation (Lang *et al.*, 2014:2). Positioning, which refers to the development of a distinctive image, can be used for the establishment of a city's unique image, as many cities around the world have been very successful in creating positive images by implementing place marketing strategies (Aksoyla, 2012:77). The 4 Ps of marketing – place, product, promotion and price – could all be applied to city and place marketing, as residential household location is one of the key drivers of urban dynamics (Schirmer *et al.*, 2014:3). Pricing plays a role in terms of the annual salary residents would demand for moving to a new city, as the cost of living plays a role (Zenker *et al.*, 2013:137). The promotion of a city is included in the city marketing process (Hospers, 2010:183); and the product component of the marketing mix is in creating value for city residents (Zenker *et al.*, 2014:199). Consumer marketing training has been implemented for most of the place marketing professionals working in European municipalities whereby they are informed how to sell their place as if it were a consumer product. Therefore it was evident from the literature that place marketing has become a governance process which involves policy-makers in complex interactions with the multiple shareholders of a city (Eshuis *et al.*, 2014:155).

Branding has become increasingly important within a city. As Braun (2008:35) notes, image formulation and image communication are crucial within the city marketing mix, as the encounters with the city happen through perceptions and images; thus the object of city marketing is not the city itself but its image. Chapter 3 therefore focused on branding by investigating not only traditional branding but also place, city and corporate branding. Braun *et al.* (2014:64) state that during the last decade the number of cities developing branding strategies has increased not only for global cities, capitals and well-known tourist destinations but also for an increasing number of smaller cities. From the definitions supplied for branding, including place and city branding, it was concluded that the key concepts of branding – namely identification, creation of associations and adding value – are applicable to both cities and places. Different branding elements were discussed in chapter 3, which included brand equity, which is very important for places as the reputation of a place is a valuable asset that needs to be managed, measured and protected (Anholt, 2008:3). Elements of customer-based brand equity were supplied; and as stated by Lee (2014:1253), both identification (brand recognition) and internalisation (brand recall) are applicable to cities. In respect of the brand associations of a city, Ashworth and Kavaratzis (2015:128) advise that the stronger and simpler a place brand association is, the more likely it is to be successful, although it will also be more difficult to change the association in response to changing ways. Apart from the relationships between the city's stakeholders, relationships should be built with residents within a city to develop brand loyalty towards the city (Warnaby *et al.*, 2011:258). It is argued that customer-based brand equity is the best approach to use for place/city brands, as the ultimate benefit of brand equity is in terms of the welfare of the owners of the place brands, the residents, who are also the consumers of the place product (Florek, 2015:236). Brand image is an important element to take into consideration when developing a city brand strategy, as the most straightforward indicator that place branding has been successful is the improvement of the place brand image (Braun *et al.*, 2014:65).

Chapter 3 also provided literature on the topic of brand communication, brand identity and brand personality. As mentioned by Merrilees *et al.* (2012:1032–1033), city branding can assist communication with multiple stakeholders by ensuring that it is consistent and cohesive, which enables different stakeholder groups to interact with one brand. The role of brand managers is therefore to initiate, facilitate and stimulate the place brand process by including all relevant stakeholders in the process. Because of the different stakeholders within a city and the greater number of associations, the brand personality of places includes a greater assortment and broader dimensions than product brands. Kaplan *et al.* (2010:1298) mention that a strong brand personality can assist cities in the competitive area where cities compete for resources, labour and residents. Because there are different stakeholders and target groups within a city, successful city branding strategies need to be directed at a group or a defined audience, so communicating differing messages to each group while remaining true to the brand identity as a whole.

Various existing place/city frameworks were discussed in chapter 3. These frameworks were used to develop the set of items/questions which were used during the data collection phase of this study. The different factors were explained and a total of 13 factors noticed which make up the city branding construct.

The research methodology for this study was presented in chapter 4. This study made use of a descriptive research design, using secondary data (chapters 2 and 3) as well as primary data. The primary data was collected by means of quantitative research using a structured questionnaire. Person-administered data collection was used by using seven honours students of the North-West University to conduct the interviews. Permanent residents of Potchefstroom, Klerksdorp and Rustenburg who were older than 18 years of age were interviewed for this study. Since a sampling frame did not exist, convenience and quota sampling were used. The results of the study were presented in chapter 5. SPSS, SPSS Amos and Statistica were used to capture and analyse the data. Chapter 5 presented the demographic profile of the respondents as well as the EFA conducted and importance scores of the various city branding constructs. The rest of this chapter focuses on the discussion relating to the conclusions and recommendations relevant to each secondary objective.

6.3 Conclusions and recommendations

Secondary objective 1 was attended to in chapter 2 by supplying a comprehensive literature review on marketing, place marketing and city marketing. From chapter 2, it can be concluded that the traditional marketing definition does apply to places and cities, and therefore city marketers and policy-makers can use marketing principles and techniques to develop marketing strategies for places and cities.

In chapter 3, secondary objective 2 was given attention by not only providing a theoretical overview of branding, place branding, city branding and corporate branding but also by indicating the influence of key branding elements on cities and the role they perform when developing city branding frameworks. It can be concluded that the traditional branding process, joined by the corporate branding discipline, can be applied to places and cities. Another conclusion in terms of SO 2 is that place brand equity is used to indicate the various aspects of a place's performance as experienced by the various stakeholders and is therefore a possible consideration when developing city branding strategies. Chapter 3 supplied the existing theoretical frameworks/models of city branding, and based on this theoretical foundation it was concluded that these 13 factors should be included in city branding strategies.

SO 1 and SO 2 were used to develop a broad understanding of the city branding domain, which assisted with the development of the questionnaire for this study and has also served to enrich the conclusions and recommendations for this study.

The remainder of this chapter will discuss the rest of the objectives by stating each objective, stipulating the conclusion(s) and providing practical recommendations, which can also be viewed as the managerial implications of this study.

6.3.1 Secondary objective 3

To conduct factor analysis to reduce the theoretically determined factors of the city branding construct and to confirm the factors extracted.

As presented in chapter 3 (table 3.2), there are currently six city branding frameworks/models within the academic literature. These models and frameworks consist of 13 factors, and these factors and statements were used to develop the questionnaire used in this study. After conducting an EFA, 11 factors were extracted, which made up the city branding construct. The reliability of each factor was determined, and items were deleted to increase the internal consistency of the factor. A CFA was also performed to confirm the EFA results and to compare the model fit between the theoretical 13-factor measurement model and the 11-factor measurement model.

Conclusion 1: Even though SO 2 indicated 13 factors, this study revealed 11 factors to be included in city branding strategies. The 11 factors extracted were as follows:

1. Business
2. Culture
3. Education
4. Employment
5. Housing
6. Image
7. Leisure and cityscape
8. Lifestyle and social interaction
9. Safety
10. Shopping and medical care
11. Vision and strategy

Conclusion 2: It is concluded that the 11-factor measurement fit was reliable and valid and has a better model fit than the theoretical 13-factor measurement model.

Conclusion 3: Some of the 13 factors remained the same when extracting the 11 factors, only two factors were combined, namely the “Lifestyle and social interaction” and “Shopping and medical care” factors.

Conclusion 4: Infrastructure was excluded in the 11-factor measurement model. The reason for the lack of representation of interrelationships among the set of variables might be due to the items representing infrastructure not being relevant to the residents of the cities included in this study or to the South African context. Public transport in these cities and in general in South Africa is not as advanced as the transport systems internationally, and not all residents use public transport, which means that they might not have been able to evaluate the level of experience. In terms of the traffic in these cities, based on the size of the cities, traffic is normally well organised due to the number of people using the roads. Therefore, traffic might not be a problem for these residents. Although the roads in most cities in South Africa are in a bad condition, these cities still have fairly well-maintained roads, so they are not necessarily a problem area for residents.

The recommendations for secondary objective 3 are presented in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1: Recommendations for secondary objective 3

Recommendation 1:	When policy-makers and local government develop city branding strategies, these 11 factors should be included and action plans for them should be developed.
Recommendation 2:	The 11 factors should be used in city branding strategies rather than the 13 factors, as is evident from the goodness-of-fit measurement.

6.3.2 Secondary objective 4

To measure the residents' level of experience of the respective city branding factors

As mentioned by Hanna and Rowley (2015:87), places should not only know how to brand a city but should also have a strategic approach to understand and manage the brand associations of the city, which include its reputation, image, identity and experiences. Place brand equity takes into consideration the diverse and various aspects of a city's performance experienced by the different stakeholders of a city (Florek & Kavaratzis, 2014:105). It is therefore important to know and understand the residents' experience with regard to the different city branding factors.

Conclusion 5: Education was noted to be the factor that had the highest level of experience among the residents in all three cities. The residents of Potchefstroom recorded the highest level of experience for the "Education" factor compared to the scores of the residents of Klerksdorp and Rustenburg. All the residents agreed with the statement that there is a high quality of school education available in the cities. The presence of the North-West University in Potchefstroom might be the reason for the agreement by the residents of Potchefstroom that there are prestigious tertiary institutions in the city, whereas the residents of both Klerksdorp and Rustenburg were almost indifferent towards this statement.

Conclusion 6: The range of shopping opportunities and access to and quality of medical care seem to be performing at an acceptable level. The residents of Klerksdorp indicated a high level of experience in terms of the wide range of shopping opportunities; the reason for this might be the opening of a new mall during 2015.

Conclusion 7: The residents of all three cities agreed with the statement that the cities have high-quality medical care facilities as well as good access to medical care.

Conclusion 8: The residents of these cities agreed that they are proud to stay in the city. However, the residents of Potchefstroom recorded the highest level of experience with regard to this statement.

Conclusion 9: The residents of the three cities were indifferent towards the availability of self-employment opportunities in these cities, which indicated that the level of experience towards self-employment opportunities needs improvement. The residents did, however, agree with the statement that the city is a good place to do business in, with the residents of Rustenburg scoring the highest level of agreement with this statement.

Conclusion 10: Potchefstroom is experienced as having a very attractive and appealing image, good national status and energy, as the city of Potchefstroom obtained a much higher experience score for the “Image” factor than the scores recoded for Klerksdorp and Rustenburg.

Conclusion 11: It was noted that all three cities have a lot of different cultures and ethnical groups.

Conclusion 12: The residents of the three cities indicated that it is not easy to find affordable housing in these cities.

Conclusion 13: The level of corruption in the cities is concerning, as the residents of Potchefstroom, Klerksdorp and Rustenburg indicated that the level of corruption is high in these cities.

Conclusion 14: The residents of these cities recorded that the salaries received are not very good and that it is not easy to find employment in these cities.

Conclusion 15: It seems that the vision and strategies of the local government are not regarded as performing very well. The residents of the three cities do not trust the local government to make good decisions and feel that the effectiveness of the governing structures of these cities is not good.

Conclusion 16: When comparing the level of experience of males and females, the majority of the factors were scored the same by these gender groups. For the factors of “Leisure and city scape" and "Employment", there was a significant difference in the scores of males and females; however the effect was small.

Conclusion 17: The comparison of the level of experience of the residents of the three cities revealed that scores for the majority of the factors indicated a significant difference. For the majority of the factors, Potchefstroom recorded the highest level of experience.

The recommendations for secondary objective 4 are presented in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2: Recommendations for secondary objective 4

Recommendation 3:	The governing bodies and stakeholders of these cities should focus on the availability of high-quality school education and tertiary institutions in these cities when promoting them.
Recommendation 4:	Local government should increase employment opportunities by promoting small enterprises by supplying the required assistance in terms of funding and training.
Recommendation 5:	It is critical that local government and business sectors of the cities work together to increase economic growth and development.
Recommendation 6:	Property developers should investigate the possibility of proper, affordable housing in these cities.
Recommendation 7:	Local government needs to ensure that good decisions are made and that the services that they provide are effective and of the standard expected by the residents.
Recommendation 8:	The local government can arrange public discussion sessions to inform residents about the city's future and explain to them the reasons why certain decisions are taken.
Recommendation 9:	The local government and stakeholders of Rustenburg and Klerksdorp can learn from Potchefstroom how they retain high the performance levels of the factors "Lifestyle and social interaction", "Vision and strategy", "Image" and "Education".
Recommendation 10:	Good working relationships are needed between local government and business networks within cities.

6.3.3 Secondary objective 5

To measure the importance of the city branding factors among residents

Conclusion 18: “Education”, “Safety”, “Business”, “Employment”, “Medical”, and “Housing” are the most important factors for the residents of the three cities in relation to all the factors included in the questionnaire.

Conclusion 19: Education is a very important factor for the residents of Potchefstroom, as this factor was ranked far higher than the other factors.

The recommendations for secondary objective 5 are presented in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3: Recommendations for secondary objective 5

Recommendation 11:	When developing city branding strategies, policy-makers should include and focus on the most important factors to attract and retain residents in these cities.
Recommendation 12:	Due to the Education factor being so important to the residents of Potchefstroom, local government can use this factor to promote the city and attract residence.

6.3.4 Secondary objective 6

To present an importance–performance matrix of the city branding factors

As mentioned in chapter 4, importance–performance matrixes were developed using the importance ranks and level of experience scores obtained from this study. The next section deals with the conclusions and recommendations in respect of all residents of the three cities included in this study.

Conclusion 20: The importance–performance matrix for all residents positioned the “Education”, “Business” and “Shopping and medical” factors in the top-right quadrant, This quadrant is labelled “Maintain performance”, as the performance and importance levels are high and should be maintained.

Conclusion 21: The factors “Safety”, “Housing”, and “Employment” were positioned in the top-left quadrant, labelled as “Concentrate here”, as the level of importance is moderate to high but the level of performance ranges from good to fair.

Conclusion 22: The “Culture”, “Image” and “Lifestyle and social interaction” factors are positioned in the “Possible overkill” quadrant, as these factors have a good to excellent level of performance but are not important to the residents.

Conclusion 23: The factors “Vision and strategy” and “Leisure and cityscape” are located in the bottom-left quadrant, which is labelled “Not important” as these factors are ranked as not important, but with a good to fair level of experience.

The recommendations for secondary objective 6 for all residents of the three cities are presented in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4: Recommendations for secondary objective 6 for all residents

Recommendation 12:	Local government and city marketers should try and move the factors “Housing”, “Safety” and “Employment” from the top-left quadrant to the top-right quadrant by improving the level of experience of these factors.
Recommendation 13:	Policy-makers should ensure that the quality of school education, availability of educational facilities, general standard of the local schools and availability of tertiary institutions are maintained at the current performance levels.
Recommendation 14:	When developing city branding strategies, policy-makers should capitalise on the good level of education and use it to promote the cities and create competitive advantages.
Recommendation 15:	Although the level of importance of the “Business” factor is not as high as the “Education” factor, the “Business” factor is still located in the “Maintain performance” quadrant, and therefore the level of experience should be maintained in terms of the city being a good place to do business in and offering economic growth, self-employment opportunities and innovativeness of business in the cities.
Recommendation 16:	The wide range of shopping opportunities, quality of medical care facilities and access to medical care must be included when developing city branding strategies to capitalise on the level of experience and attract residents to the three cities presented in this study. Marketing should therefore include the good level of performance of these elements.
Recommendation 17:	Local government should concentrate on improving the safety level within these cities by keeping residents’ safe, lowering the crime levels and decreasing corruption levels. Improved safety can be achieved when the South African Police Service, security companies and neighbourhood watches works together to increase visibility and protection.

Table 6.4: Recommendations for secondary objective 6 for all residents (cont.)

Recommendation 18:	The availability and affordability of housing in these cities should be improved.
Recommendation 19:	The three cities should try to increase employment opportunities and the ease of finding employment, and enable salaries received by employees to improve by creating employment opportunities and attracting more businesses to the cities, thus increasing economic growth.
Recommendation 20:	It is suggested that fewer resources be allocated to cultural centres and cultural diversity as these elements are not important to residents.
Recommendation 21:	Fewer resources should also be allocated to the attractive image and national status of the cities as these elements already record a high level of experience but are not regarded as important characteristics for the residents.
Recommendation 22:	The Vision and strategy" and "Leisure and cityscape" factors should not be the focus point of policy-makers and city marketers, as the importance levels are low.

Next, the conclusions and recommendations are presented with regard to the city of Potchefstroom, using the scores obtained from its residents.

Conclusion 24: The "Education" and "Shopping and medical care" factors are located in the "Maintain performance" quadrant, indicating that these factors have a good to excellent level of performance and are important to the residents.

Conclusion 25: The "Business" factor is located in the centre of the matrix, indicating that the factor is not located in any of the quadrants.

Conclusion 26: The "Safety", "Housing" and "Employment" factors are located in the top-left quadrant, which is labelled "Concentrate here".

Conclusion 27: Both the "Image" and "Lifestyle and social interaction" factors are located in the bottom-right quadrant, which is labelled "Possible overkill" due to the factors being scored as good to excellent in performance but as not important to the residents of Potchefstroom.

Conclusion 28: The factors "Vision and strategy", "Leisure and cityscape" and "Culture" are currently located in the quadrant labelled "Not important" as they are not important to the residents of Potchefstroom and have a good to fair level of performance.

The recommendations for objective 6 for the city of Potchefstroom are presented in Table 6.5.

Table 6.5: Recommendation for objective 6 for the city of Potchefstroom

Recommendation 23:	Because of the high importance and excellent performance level of the "Educational" factors, the city marketers of Potchefstroom should firstly ensure that the level of experience is maintained, and secondly should take advantage of the excellent level of education to attract residents by promoting and communicating the high quality schools and tertiary institutions available in Potchefstroom.
Recommendation 24:	City marketers should also maintain the performance levels of the medical care facilities and should also use this element as a promotional tool to attracted residents to Potchefstroom.
Recommendation 25:	The "Business" factor is one of the most important, and therefore although it is not located in a specific quadrant, city marketers should try to increase the level of performance by improving the economic growth of Potchefstroom and increasing the self-employment opportunities.
Recommendation 26:	As safety is important to the residents of Potchefstroom, local government should improve the level of performance by reducing the corruption level, ensure that the crime levels of Potchefstroom are lower than the average in South Africa, and make the residents feel safe.
Recommendation 27:	Because "Employment" is the factor with the lowest performance score of factors positioned in this quadrant, local government should implement business growth strategies which in turn would result in more employment opportunities and increased salaries.
Recommendation 28:	Resources currently allocated to the promotion of the image of Potchefstroom and social interactions such as making Potchefstroom a good place for bonding with family, making friends and fitting into the community could rather be allocated to the factors in the "Concentrate here" quadrant. The "Image" and "Lifestyle and social interaction" factors are performing well but are not important to the residents of Potchefstroom.
Recommendation 29:	Focus and resources should not be directed to the Vision and Strategy-, Leisure and cityscape- and Culture factors, as they are not important to the residents of Potchefstroom.

The following section provides conclusions regarding the importance–performance matrix for the residents of Klerksdorp and offers recommendations to the marketers of this city in Table 6.6.

Conclusion 29: The factors "Education", "Business" and "Shopping and medical care" are located in the top-right quadrant of the matrix, which is labelled "Maintain performance", as these factors were ranked as being moderate to very important to the residents, with good to excellent level of performance.

Conclusion 30: The factors "Employment", "Safety" and "Housing" are located in the top-left quadrant, which is labelled "Concentrate here", as these factors are important to the residents of Klerksdorp but are rated as good to fair performance.

Conclusion 31: The factors "Vision and strategy", "Leisure and cityscape" and "Culture" are located in the bottom-left quadrant, as these factors are not important to the residents of Klerksdorp and scored good to fair performance ratings.

Conclusion 32: "Image" and "Lifestyle and social interaction" are factors which are not important to the residents of Klerksdorp but have good to excellent levels of performance and are therefore located in the "Possible overkill" quadrant.

Table 6.6: Recommendations for objective 6 for Klerksdorp

Recommendation 30:	City marketers for Klerksdorp should maintain the performance levels of local schools and available tertiary intuitions, as these characteristics of a city are important to these residents.
Recommendation 31:	The new mall which opened in 2015 should be communicated in marketing efforts to promote the city and attract residents and shoppers to it.
Recommendation 32:	Local government should increase employment opportunities, especially self-employment opportunities, to ensure that this factor remains in this quadrant.
Recommendation 33:	Local government and city marketers must improve the safety of the city by reducing corruption and the crime level there.
Recommendation 34:	To increase the performance score of the "Employment" factor, local government should concentrate on implementing strategies to increase employment opportunities and salaries earned by the residents of Klerksdorp.
Recommendation 35:	Affordable housing decreased the average performance score of this factor; therefore property developers should work with local government to develop more affordable housing for the residents of Klerksdorp.
Recommendation 36:	"Vision and strategy", "Leisure and cityscape" and "Culture" are not important factors to the residents of Klerksdorp, and therefore these factors should not receive attention at this stage.
Recommendation 37:	To provide good to excellent levels of performance, resources are being used to improve the image of Klerksdorp and to provide opportunities for social interaction. However, as these factors are not important to the residents, the resources could be better utilised to create employment opportunities, to improve the safety of the city and to provide affordable housing.

The final section of secondary objective 6 is presented in the next section. This section deals with the importance–performance matrix for residents of Rustenburg.

Conclusion 33: “Education”, “Business” and “Shopping and medical care” are the factors located in the top-right quadrant of the importance–performance matrix for residents of Rustenburg.

Conclusion 34: The “Employment” and “Housing” factors are moderately important to the residents but have a good to fair performance level; therefore these factors are positioned in on the border between the top-left and bottom-left quadrants.

Conclusion 35: The “Safety” factor is the only one that is located in the top-left quadrant, as it is important to the residents of Rustenburg but has a good to fair level of experience.

Conclusion 36: The “Vision and strategy” and “Leisure and cityscape” factors are located in the bottom-left quadrant, which is labelled “Not important” as these factors are not important to the residents, and it also scored good to fair level of performance.

Conclusion 37: The factors “Image”, “Culture” and “Lifestyle and social interaction” all had good performance levels but are factors which are not important to the residents. Therefore, these factors are located in the bottom-right quadrant of the matrix, which is labelled “Possible overkill”.

The recommendations for secondary objective 6 for the city of Rustenburg are presented in Table 6.7.

Table 6.7: Recommendations for secondary objective 6 for Rustenburg

Recommendation 38:	The marketers of Rustenburg should focus on the marketing of the tertiary education options like Boston City Campus, Damelin College and other institutions which are available to the residents of Rustenburg, thus increasing the performance level of the availability of tertiary institutions.
Recommendation 39:	To maintain the “Business” factor in the top-right quadrant, the performance level of Rustenburg as a good place to do business should be maintained by means of economic growth and should also be used in the branding strategies of Rustenburg to attract and retain residents.
Recommendation 40:	The residents of Rustenburg agreed that the city has a high quality of medical care facilities; therefore these facilities should be maintained, and the availability of high-quality medical care facilities should be communicated and used in branding campaigns.

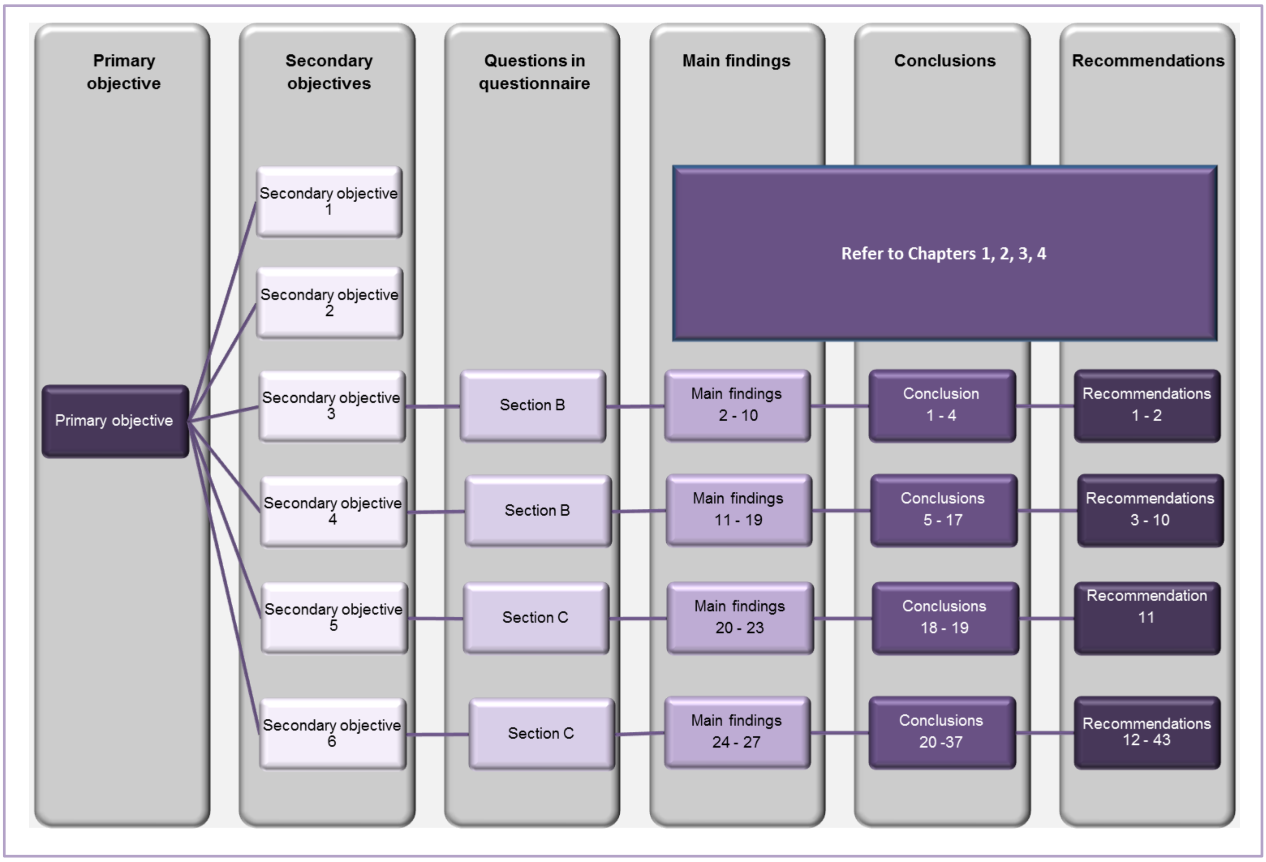
Table 6.7: Recommendations for secondary objective 6 for Rustenburg (cont.)

Recommendation 40:	The residents of Rustenburg agreed that the city has a high quality of medical care facilities; therefore these facilities should be maintained, and the availability of high-quality medical care facilities should be communicated and used in branding campaigns.
Recommendation 41:	Local government must make an effort to move these factors to the right-hand side of the importance–performance matrix by improving the level of experience of the "Employment" and "Housing" factors by increasing the ease of finding employment and sufficient housing.
Recommendation 42:	Local government must work toward increasing the level of experience of the "Safety" factor by lowering the corruption levels in the city.
Recommendation 43:	The resources used to provide the level of experience in terms of "Image", "Culture" and "Lifestyle and social interaction" should rather be allocated to the improvement of the housing and employment situation in Rustenburg.

6.4 The links between the research objectives, questions in the questionnaire, main findings, conclusions and recommendations

The linkages between the objectives of this study, the questions used in the questionnaire to resolve the objectives as well as the main findings, conclusions and recommendations per objective are presented in Figure 6.1.

Figure 6.1: Link between the research objectives, questions in the questionnaire, main findings, conclusions and recommendations



It can be noted from Figure 6.1 that all the secondary objectives for this study were met. Furthermore, it can be concluded that the primary objective of the study, namely to develop a city branding framework for selected cities in the North West province, was accomplished. This study successfully made of use of the theoretical literature to establish the factors used in city branding strategies and to develop a questionnaire which measured the level of experience and importance of these factors. The data obtained for this study enabled the researcher to explore and confirm the factors presented in literature, and by determining the level of experience and importance it was possible to create importance–performance matrixes.

6.5 Limitations of the study

As with any study, this study has a few limitations:

- The study was conducted among residents of only three cities in one province in South Africa.
- The cities selected can be viewed as medium-sized cities in South Africa.

- The study was not able to compare results of different demographic groups, like ethnicity, level of education and age groups.

Based on the limitations presented, the following recommendations for future research are suggested.

6.6 Recommendations for future research

The following suggestions are made with regard to future research:

- It is suggested that the study also be conducted among residents of smaller and larger cities, as the results might differ.

- There might be differences in the scores of different demographic groups, which should be investigated.

6.7 Conclusion

This chapter commenced with an overview of the study, which included a short summation of conclusions from the literature review done in chapters 2 and 3. Thereafter, the secondary objectives for this study were discussed, with mention of the conclusions and recommendations for each of the objectives. Then a flow diagram was presented in Figure 6.1 which indicated the link between the objectives, questionnaire, conclusions and recommendations of the various objectives. Finally, the chapter concluded with the limitations of the study as well as recommendations for future research.

As a conclusion, based on the data analysis performed and theoretical discussion of this study, Figure 6.2 offers the city branding framework for selected cities in the North West province.

Figure 6.2: City branding framework

Based on the research of this study, it can be concluded that a city branding framework for the residents of Potchefstroom, Klerksdorp and Rustenburg consists of 11- city branding factors and not 13 – factors as founded in the literature.

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ANNEXURE A: PRE-TEST QUESTIONNAIRE

City branding questionnaire measuring the levels of experience and importance amongst residents

This questionnaire is designed to measure your level of experience with and perceived importance of city branding factors in selected cities of the North-West Province. The results of this survey will assist in the development of a city branding framework to assist marketers and local government with the branding and promotion of cities.

Taking part in this survey is completely voluntary and anonymous. The questionnaire will take no more than 15 minutes. Your co-operation is highly appreciated!

When evaluating the questions, please answer the questions from your own perspective.

Should you have any questions, please feel free to contact:

Mia Bothma: miabothma@gmail.com

Thank you for your time to complete the survey!

Screening Questions:

S1) in which city do you reside?

Potchefstroom	1
Klerksdorp	2
Rustenburg	3

If another city is mentioned, end the questionnaire. If one of the three, continue to the next screening question

S2) Are you a permanent resident of city mentioned at question 1, for more than 2 years?

Yes	1
No	2

If no, end the questionnaire. If yes, continue to the next screening question

S3) Are you older than 18 years of age?

Yes	1
No	2

If no, end the questionnaire. If yes, continue to the next screening question

SECTION A – DEMOGRAPHICS

A1) What is your age?

18 – 26 years	1
27 – 35 years	2
36 – 47 years	3
48 – 66 years	4
67 years and older	5

A2) What is your gender?

Male	1
Female	2

A3) What is your highest level of education?

Primary school completed	1
Some high school	2
Matric / Grade 12	3
Tech diploma / degree	4
University degree / postgraduate degree	5

A4) What is your ethnicity?

Black	1
White	2
Indian / Asian	3
Coloured	4

A5) What is your current employment status?

Full-time employed	1
Part-time employed	2
Self-employed	3
Student	4
Housewife / Househusband	5
Retired	6
Unemployed	7
Other, specify	8

SECTION B: LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE AND IMPORTANCE

Please indicate your ***level of agreement*** with and ***level of importance*** of the following statements using a 7 point scale, where:

Level of agreement – **1** indicate **“Strongly disagree”** and **7** means **“Strongly agree”**

Level of importance **– 1** means **“Not important at all”** and **7** means **“Very important”**

When answering these questions, please think of the specific city your reside in and answered above

Level of experience								Level of importance						
Strongly disagree				Strongly agree			Statements	Not important at all				Very important		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B1: Potchefstroom is a good place to do business in	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B2: Potchefstroom has good economic growth	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B3: There are many self-employment opportunities in Potchefstroom	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B4: The business in Potchefstroom is innovative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B5: Potchefstroom has lots of parks and available green zones	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B6: There is access to clean outdoor recreational areas in Potchefstroom	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B7: Potchefstroom has low pollution	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B8: Potchefstroom is a clean city	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B9: There is high quality of school education available in Potchefstroom	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B10: There is many educational facilities in Potchefstroom	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B11: The general standard of the local schools in Potchefstroom is good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B12: There are prestigious tertiary institutions in Potchefstroom	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B13: There is a lot of different cultures and ethnical groups in Potchefstroom	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B14: There is sufficient cultural centres in Potchefstroom	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Level of experience								Level of importance						
Strongly disagree				Strongly agree			Statements	Not important at all				Very important		
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**		**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B15: Potchefstroom has made an important contribution to South Africa's culture	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B16: Potchefstroom has a good cultural diversity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B17: There is sufficient housing available in Potchefstroom	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B18: It is easy to find affordable housing in Potchefstroom	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B19: The housing market in Potchefstroom is favourable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B20: Potchefstroom has a very attractive image	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B21: Potchefstroom has a good national status	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B22: There is a good energy in Potchefstroom	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B23: The image of Potchefstroom is appealing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B24: Potchefstroom is easy to reach from most other cities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B25: The traffic in Potchefstroom is well organised	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B26: The roads in Potchefstroom is well maintained	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B27: The public transport in Potchefstroom is adequate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B28: Potchefstroom has easy access to water	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B29: Potchefstroom has a diverse range of restaurants	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B30: There is sufficient amount of cultural events / festivals in Potchefstroom	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B31: Potchefstroom has a wide range of outdoor activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B32: There is interesting things to do in Potchefstroom	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Level of experience								Level of importance						
Strongly disagree				Strongly agree			Statements	Not important at all				Very important		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B33: Potchefstroom has a wide range of shopping opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B34: Potchefstroom has a high quality of medical care faculties	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B35: Potchefstroom has good access to medical care	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B36: Potchefstroom has diversified employment opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B37: In Potchefstroom it is easy to find employment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B38: The salaries in Potchefstroom is good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B39: There is a lot of professional / business networks in Potchefstroom	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B40: I feel safe in Potchefstroom	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B41: The level of crime in Potchefstroom is lower than the average of South Africa	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B42: There is a low level of corruption in Potchefstroom	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B43: Potchefstroom is a good place for bonding with your family	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B44: It is easy to make friends in Potchefstroom	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B45: The people in Potchefstroom is friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B46: It is easy to fit into the community of Potchefstroom	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B47: The residents in Potchefstroom is tolerant against outsiders	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B48: I'm proud to stay in Potchefstroom	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B49: The overall lifestyle of Potchefstroom is good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B50: I trust the local government of Potchefstroom to make good decisions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Level of experience								Level of importance						
Strongly disagree				Strongly agree			Statements	Not important at all				Very important		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B51: The effectiveness of Potchefstroom's governing structure is good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B52: Residents can participate in local decision making	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	B53: The local government's vision for Potchefstroom is favourable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Thank you very much for your willingness to participate in this study!

ANNEXURE B: FINAL QUESTIONNAIRE

NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
YUNIBESITI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT
POTCHEFSTROOMKAMPUS

Questionnaire number: | | | |

City branding questionnaire measuring the levels of experience and importance amongst residents

This questionnaire is designed to measure your level of experience with and perceived importance of city branding factors in selected cities of the North-West Province. The results of this survey will assist in the development of a city branding framework to assist marketers and local government with the branding and promotion of cities.

The questionnaire will take no more than 15 minutes. Your co-operation is highly appreciated!

When evaluating a question, please answer the question from your own perspective by placing an X in the appropriate box or completing where required.

Should you have any questions, please feel free to contact: Mia Bothma: miabothma@gmail.com

Please provide us with your contact number and/or e-mail address. It is imperative that we follow up on the fieldwork for quality control purposes. Your personal information will NOT, by any means, be used for ANY purpose other than quality control.

Contact number: ___________________________ or E-mail: ____________________________________

Screening Questions:

S1) In which city do you reside?

Potchefstroom	1
Klerksdorp	2
Rustenburg	3

If another city is mentioned, end the questionnaire. If one of the three, continue to the next screening question

S2) Are you a permanent resident of city mentioned at question 1, for more than 2 years?

Yes	1
No	2

If no, end the questionnaire. If yes, continue to the next screening question

S3) Please indicate your age?

Younger than 18 years	1
18 – 26 years	2
27 – 35 years	3
36 – 47 years	4
48 – 66 years	5
67 years and older	6

If respondent is "younger than 18 years", please end the questionnaire. If 18 years and older, continue to the next section

SECTION A: Demographic information

A1) What is your gender?

Male	1
Female	2

A2) What is your highest level of education?

Primary school completed	1
Some high school	2
Matric / Grade 12	3
Diploma	4
Degree	5
Postgraduate degree	6

A3) What is your ethnicity?

Black	1
White	2
Indian / Asian	3
Coloured	4

A4) What is your current employment status?

Full-time employed	1
Part-time employed	2
Self-employed	3
Student	4
Housewife / Househusband	5
Retired	6
Unemployed	7
Other, specify	8

SECTION B: Level of experience

One a scale of 1 to 5 where **1** indicate **"Strongly disagree"** and **5** means **"Strongly agree"**, indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements.

Statements	Strongly disagree				Strongly agree
B1: City is a good place to do business in	1	2	3	4	5
B2: City has good economic growth	1	2	3	4	5
B3: There are many self-employment opportunities in City	1	2	3	4	5
B4: The business in City is innovative	1	2	3	4	5
B5: City has lots of parks and available green zones	1	2	3	4	5
B6: There is access to clean outdoor recreational areas in City	1	2	3	4	5
B7: City has low pollution	1	2	3	4	5
B8: City is a clean city	1	2	3	4	5

Statements	**Strongly disagree**				**Strongly agree**
B9: There is high quality of school education available in City	1	2	3	4	5
B10: There are many educational facilities in City	1	2	3	4	5
B11: The general standard of the local schools in City is good	1	2	3	4	5
B12: There are prestigious tertiary institutions in City	1	2	3	4	5
B13: There is a lot of different cultures and ethnical groups in City	1	2	3	4	5
B14: There is sufficient cultural centres in City	1	2	3	4	5
B15: City has made an important contribution to South Africa’s culture	1	2	3	4	5
B16: City has a good cultural diversity	1	2	3	4	5
B17: There is sufficient housing available in City	1	2	3	4	5
B18: It is easy to find affordable housing in City	1	2	3	4	5
B19: The housing market in City is favourable	1	2	3	4	5
B20: City has a very attractive image	1	2	3	4	5
B21: City has a good national status	1	2	3	4	5
B22: There is a good energy in City	1	2	3	4	5
B23: The image of City is appealing	1	2	3	4	5
B24: City is easy to reach from most other cities	1	2	3	4	5
B25: The traffic in City is well organised	1	2	3	4	5
B26: The roads in City are well maintained	1	2	3	4	5
B27: The public transport in City is adequate	1	2	3	4	5
B28: City has easy access to water	1	2	3	4	5
B29: City has a diverse range of restaurants	1	2	3	4	5
B30: There is sufficient amount of cultural events / festivals in City	1	2	3	4	5
B31: City has a wide range of outdoor activities	1	2	3	4	5
B32: There are interesting things to do in City	1	2	3	4	5
B33: City has a wide range of shopping opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
B34: City has a high quality of medical care faculties	1	2	3	4	5
B35: City has good access to medical care	1	2	3	4	5
B36: City has diversified employment opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
B37: In City it is easy to find employment	1	2	3	4	5
B38: The salaries in City is good	1	2	3	4	5
B39: There is a lot of professional / business networks in City	1	2	3	4	5
B40: I feel safe in City	1	2	3	4	5
B41: The level of crime in City is lower than the average of South Africa	1	2	3	4	5
B42: There is a low level of corruption in City	1	2	3	4	5
B43: City is a good place for bonding with your family	1	2	3	4	5
B44: It is easy to make friends in City	1	2	3	4	5
B45: The people in City are friendly	1	2	3	4	5
B46: It is easy to fit into the community of City	1	2	3	4	5
B47: The residents in City are tolerant against outsiders	1	2	3	4	5
B48: I’m proud to stay in City	1	2	3	4	5
B49: The overall lifestyle of City is good	1	2	3	4	5
B50: I trust the local government of City to make good decisions	1	2	3	4	5

Statements	Strongly disagree				Strongly agree
B51: The effectiveness of City's governing structure is good	1	2	3	4	5
B52: Residents can participate in local decision making	1	2	3	4	5
B53: The local government's vision for City is favourable	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION C: Level of importance

Below is a list of characteristics that a city might hold. Select five characteristics that are most important to you, and rank them from 1 to 5. Where 1 = the most important, 2 = the second most important, 3 = the third most important, 4 = the fourth most important and 5 = the fifth most important characteristic.

Characteristic	Ranking
Business e.g. economic growth of the city, good place to do business in, self-employment opportunities and business	
Cityscape e.g. parks and green zones, access to outdoor recreational areas, low pollution, cleanliness of a city	
Culture e.g. different cultures within a city, cultural centres, cultural contribution of a city, cultural diversity	
Education e.g. quality of school education, educational facilities, prestigious universities	
Employment e.g. diverse employment opportunities, ease to find employment, salaries, professional networks	
Housing e.g. housing available in a city, affordable housing, favourable housing market	
Image e.g. Attractiveness of a city, national status, energy and vibe, appealing image	
Infrastructure e.g. Accessibility of a city from other cities, traffic, maintenance of roads, public transport, access to water	
Leisure and shopping e.g. range of restaurants, amount of cultural events / festivals, range of outdoor activities, things to do in a city,	
Medical care e.g. quality of medical care facilities, access to medical care	
Safety e.g. to feel safe in a city, level of crime, level of corruption	
Social interaction e.g. bonding with family, ease of making friends, friendliness of people, ease to fit into the community	
Vision and strategy e.g. overall lifestyle in a city, trust in local government, effectiveness of local government, participation in local	

<u>Thank you very much for your willingness to participate in this study!</u>

ANNEXURE C: CORRELATION MATRIX

ANNEXURE C: CORRELATION MATRIX

Correlation	City is a good place to do business in	City has good economic growth	There are many self-employment opportunities in City	The business in City is innovative	City has lots of parks and available green zones	There is access to clean outdoor recreational areas in City	City has low pollution	City is a clean city	There is high quality of school education available in City	There are many educational facilities in City	The general standard of the local schools in City is good	There are prestigious tertiary institutions in City	There is a lot of different cultures and ethnical groups in City	There is sufficient cultural centres in City	City has made an important contribution to South Africa's culture	City has a good cultural diversity	There is sufficient housing available in City	It is easy to find affordable housing in City	The housing market in City is favourable	City has a very attractive image	City has a good national status	There is a good energy in City	The image of City is appealing	City is easy to reach from most other cities	The traffic in City is well organised	The roads in City are well maintained
City is a good place to do business in	1.000	0.547	0.429	0.443	0.211	0.231	0.047	0.224	0.199	0.195	0.213	0.100	0.101	0.099	0.222	0.217	0.080	0.175	0.142	0.283	0.306	0.294	0.277	0.206	0.166	0.150
City has good economic growth	0.547	1.000	0.385	0.368	0.231	0.253	0.039	0.258	0.267	0.236	0.236	0.161	0.121	0.109	0.272	0.286	0.046	0.076	0.144	0.327	0.332	0.327	0.342	0.205	0.180	0.200
There are many self-employment opportunities in City	0.429	0.385	1.000	0.513	0.225	0.232	0.054	0.191	0.293	0.237	0.268	0.131	0.073	0.224	0.213	0.252	0.170	0.233	0.182	0.238	0.294	0.299	0.200	0.135	0.164	0.227
The business in City is innovative	0.443	0.368	0.513	1.000	0.308	0.212	0.036	0.257	0.250	0.245	0.262	0.196	0.064	0.213	0.225	0.233	0.178	0.228	0.196	0.277	0.289	0.316	0.265	0.150	0.136	0.221
City has lots of parks and available green zones	0.211	0.231	0.225	0.308	1.000	0.591	0.280	0.452	0.297	0.326	0.317	0.320	0.051	0.256	0.289	0.292	0.194	0.262	0.223	0.364	0.416	0.403	0.411	0.167	0.292	0.336
There is access to clean outdoor recreational areas in City	0.231	0.253	0.232	0.212	0.591	1.000	0.274	0.483	0.334	0.300	0.307	0.318	0.066	0.268	0.251	0.243	0.137	0.242	0.232	0.431	0.427	0.353	0.392	0.226	0.274	0.388
City has low pollution	0.047	0.039	0.054	0.036	0.280	0.274	1.000	0.411	0.183	0.129	0.179	0.191	-0.020	0.149	0.193	0.053	0.081	0.193	0.135	0.172	0.176	0.272	0.231	0.093	0.218	0.191
City is a clean city	0.224	0.258	0.191	0.257	0.452	0.483	0.411	1.000	0.309	0.266	0.298	0.318	0.062	0.172	0.279	0.206	0.152	0.310	0.295	0.421	0.414	0.452	0.435	0.228	0.379	0.436
There is high quality of school education available in City	0.199	0.267	0.293	0.250	0.297	0.334	0.183	0.309	1.000	0.666	0.589	0.445	0.251	0.182	0.317	0.209	0.204	0.178	0.195	0.317	0.391	0.271	0.328	0.288	0.205	0.156
There are many educational facilities in City	0.195	0.236	0.237	0.245	0.326	0.300	0.129	0.266	0.666	1.000	0.584	0.503	0.248	0.198	0.292	0.215	0.212	0.196	0.174	0.305	0.350	0.301	0.283	0.228	0.186	0.146
The general standard of the local schools in City is good	0.213	0.236	0.268	0.262	0.317	0.307	0.179	0.298	0.589	0.584	1.000	0.476	0.297	0.284	0.338	0.298	0.271	0.178	0.208	0.331	0.410	0.326	0.369	0.307	0.191	0.185
There are prestigious tertiary institutions in City	0.100	0.161	0.131	0.196	0.320	0.318	0.191	0.318	0.445	0.503	0.476	1.000	0.153	0.245	0.311	0.264	0.208	0.155	0.205	0.316	0.339	0.354	0.305	0.246	0.131	0.160
There is a lot of different cultures and ethnical groups in City	0.101	0.121	0.073	0.064	0.051	0.066	-0.020	0.062	0.251	0.248	0.297	0.153	1.000	0.236	0.299	0.308	0.188	0.015	0.074	0.122	0.188	0.129	0.143	0.261	0.117	-0.005
There is sufficient cultural centres in City	0.099	0.109	0.224	0.213	0.256	0.268	0.149	0.172	0.182	0.198	0.284	0.245	0.236	1.000	0.445	0.359	0.232	0.215	0.144	0.163	0.226	0.198	0.186	0.043	0.098	0.141
City has made an important contribution to South Africa's culture	0.222	0.272	0.213	0.225	0.289	0.251	0.193	0.279	0.317	0.292	0.338	0.311	0.299	0.445	1.000	0.589	0.291	0.241	0.193	0.333	0.440	0.336	0.315	0.234	0.231	0.243
City has a good cultural diversity	0.217	0.286	0.252	0.233	0.292	0.243	0.053	0.206	0.209	0.215	0.298	0.264	0.308	0.359	0.589	1.000	0.342	0.145	0.179	0.271	0.359	0.298	0.228	0.258	0.199	0.199
There is sufficient housing available in City	0.080	0.046	0.170	0.178	0.194	0.137	0.081	0.152	0.204	0.212	0.271	0.208	0.188	0.232	0.291	0.342	1.000	0.452	0.409	0.168	0.239	0.200	0.109	0.155	0.171	0.112
It is easy to find affordable housing in City	0.175	0.076	0.233	0.228	0.262	0.242	0.193	0.310	0.178	0.196	0.178	0.155	0.015	0.215	0.241	0.145	0.452	1.000	0.589	0.271	0.311	0.300	0.184	0.110	0.328	0.321
The housing market in City is favourable	0.142	0.144	0.182	0.196	0.223	0.232	0.135	0.295	0.195	0.174	0.208	0.205	0.074	0.144	0.193	0.179	0.409	0.589	1.000	0.360	0.339	0.329	0.298	0.195	0.283	0.299
City has a very attractive image	0.283	0.327	0.238	0.277	0.364	0.431	0.172	0.421	0.317	0.305	0.331	0.316	0.122	0.163	0.333	0.271	0.168	0.271	0.360	1.000	0.640	0.498	0.557	0.336	0.300	0.353
City has a good national status	0.306	0.332	0.294	0.289	0.416	0.427	0.176	0.414	0.391	0.350	0.410	0.339	0.188	0.226	0.440	0.359	0.239	0.311	0.339	0.640	1.000	0.584	0.526	0.350	0.321	0.337
There is a good energy in City	0.294	0.327	0.299	0.316	0.403	0.353	0.272	0.452	0.271	0.301	0.326	0.354	0.129	0.198	0.336	0.298	0.200	0.300	0.329	0.498	0.584	1.000	0.572	0.371	0.318	0.354
The image of City is appealing	0.277	0.342	0.200	0.265	0.411	0.392	0.231	0.435	0.328	0.283	0.369	0.305	0.143	0.186	0.315	0.228	0.109	0.184	0.298	0.557	0.526	0.572	1.000	0.355	0.364	0.399
City is easy to reach from most other cities	0.206	0.205	0.135	0.150	0.167	0.226	0.093	0.228	0.288	0.228	0.307	0.246	0.261	0.043	0.234	0.258	0.155	0.110	0.195	0.336	0.350	0.371	0.355	1.000	0.330	0.221
The traffic in City is well organised	0.166	0.180	0.164	0.136	0.292	0.274	0.218	0.379	0.205	0.186	0.191	0.131	0.117	0.098	0.231	0.199	0.171	0.328	0.283	0.300	0.321	0.318	0.364	0.330	1.000	0.537
The roads in City are well maintained	0.150	0.200	0.227	0.221	0.336	0.388	0.191	0.436	0.156	0.146	0.185	0.160	-0.005	0.141	0.243	0.199	0.112	0.321	0.299	0.353	0.337	0.354	0.399	0.221	0.537	1.000
The public transport in City is adequate	0.172	0.213	0.182	0.201	0.296	0.304	0.164	0.380	0.163	0.127	0.181	0.114	-0.022	0.161	0.196	0.195	0.150	0.326	0.224	0.323	0.311	0.325	0.328	0.221	0.440	0.513
City has easy access to water	0.149	0.146	0.158	0.140	0.280	0.260	0.302	0.382	0.232	0.242	0.312	0.283	0.092	0.104	0.210	0.168	0.150	0.174	0.201	0.323	0.310	0.338	0.318	0.233	0.349	0.300
City has a diverse range of restaurants	0.165	0.136	0.066	0.071	0.148	0.144	0.060	0.114	0.223	0.246	0.220	0.200	0.249	0.106	0.092	0.126	0.111	0.027	0.091	0.218	0.210	0.194	0.249	0.248	0.163	0.151
There is sufficient amount of cultural events / festivals in City	0.200	0.181	0.192	0.144	0.301	0.402	0.218	0.253	0.268	0.259	0.252	0.311	0.139	0.362	0.351	0.269	0.192	0.265	0.177	0.290	0.342	0.281	0.272	0.190	0.238	0.305
City has a wide range of outdoor activities	0.170	0.188	0.213	0.232	0.385	0.444	0.231	0.323	0.318	0.345	0.293	0.323	0.095	0.259	0.267	0.244	0.197	0.270	0.248	0.298	0.373	0.332	0.353	0.209	0.227	0.315
There are interesting things to do in City	0.269	0.255	0.321	0.278	0.375	0.422	0.214	0.379	0.279	0.290	0.289	0.270	0.066	0.320	0.364	0.307	0.206	0.342	0.287	0.379	0.490	0.373	0.355	0.195	0.287	0.400
City has a wide range of shopping opportunities	0.241	0.248	0.186	0.174	0.199	0.222	0.049	0.229	0.286	0.301	0.308	0.178	0.180	0.240	0.280	0.266	0.187	0.209	0.193	0.271	0.296	0.232	0.228	0.189	0.225	0.217
City has a high quality of medical care faculties	0.227	0.224	0.242	0.212	0.222	0.241	0.105	0.235	0.370	0.379	0.378	0.281	0.196	0.158	0.224	0.253	0.205	0.213	0.164	0.282	0.297	0.309	0.230	0.247	0.197	0.220
City has good access to medical care	0.234	0.218	0.293	0.237	0.226	0.233	0.112	0.243	0.368	0.357	0.379	0.315	0.220	0.163	0.233	0.281	0.230	0.232	0.190	0.298	0.311	0.312	0.227	0.311	0.225	0.214
City has diversified employment opportunities	0.211	0.221	0.306	0.284	0.223	0.229	0.091	0.235	0.236	0.301	0.238	0.267	0.096	0.222	0.329	0.270	0.317	0.325	0.265	0.262	0.279	0.290	0.233	0.203	0.217	0.279
In City it is easy to find employment	0.168	0.259	0.289	0.298	0.242	0.261	0.177	0.251	0.191	0.206	0.196	0.192	-0.040	0.217	0.296	0.202	0.216	0.358	0.267	0.293	0.254	0.311	0.235	0.188	0.207	0.323
The salaries in City is good	0.112	0.172	0.234	0.265	0.222	0.265	0.124	0.203	0.181	0.178	0.209	0.171	-0.022	0.211	0.253	0.178	0.219	0.291	0.233	0.277	0.245	0.225	0.261	0.178	0.088	0.259
There is a lot of professional / business networks in City	0.235	0.194	0.306	0.264	0.124	0.200	0.083	0.227	0.213	0.208	0.235	0.249	0.122	0.235	0.258	0.219	0.225	0.276	0.237	0.249	0.263	0.300	0.219	0.212	0.081	0.251
I feel safe in City	0.192	0.213	0.234	0.209	0.326	0.295	0.283	0.399	0.219	0.200	0.247	0.280	0.001	0.109	0.225	0.212	0.184	0.250	0.224	0.349	0.338	0.379	0.354	0.222	0.321	0.324
The level of crime in City is lower than the average of South Africa	0.025	0.087	0.084	0.075	0.271	0.250	0.289	0.308	0.097	0.110	0.148	0.196	-0.023	0.063	0.104	0.098	0.115	0.119	0.144	0.227	0.247	0.284	0.265	0.129	0.240	0.276
There is a low level of corruption in City	0.048	0.098	0.065	0.131	0.302	0.294	0.307	0.348	0.119	0.099	0.175	0.244	-0.048	0.145	0.122	0.076	0.145	0.215	0.190	0.223	0.226	0.276	0.290	0.166	0.253	0.324
City is a good place for bonding with your family	0.226	0.232	0.280	0.187	0.238	0.245	0.212	0.375	0.309	0.298	0.309	0.262	0.175	0.164	0.278	0.227	0.201	0.237	0.196	0.371	0.388	0.389	0.337	0.229	0.276	0.274
It is easy to make friends in City	0.282	0.199	0.247	0.235	0.251	0.241	0.226	0.281	0.227	0.198	0.254	0.207	0.135	0.166	0.210	0.233	0.198	0.237	0.225	0.289	0.373	0.402	0.383	0.268	0.326	0.283
The people in City are friendly	0.177	0.150	0.208	0.192	0.271	0.244	0.221	0.336	0.275	0.231	0.311	0.251	0.200	0.167	0.296	0.259	0.219	0.260	0.278	0.315	0.370	0.425	0.356	0.290	0.353	0.232
It is easy to fit into the community of City	0.219	0.205	0.232	0.218	0.280	0.228	0.185	0.257	0.277	0.214	0.299	0.157	0.177	0.169	0.247	0.229	0.256	0.281	0.192	0.361	0.336	0.395	0.370	0.268	0.341	0.255
The residents in City are tolerant against outsiders	0.142	0.085	0.141	0.160	0.228	0.260	0.241	0.261	0.225	0.193	0.264	0.205	0.139	0.169	0.193	0.152	0.278	0.208	0.201	0.296	0.297	0.374	0.318	0.223	0.297	0.211
I'm proud to stay in City	0.270	0.291	0.243	0.191	0.312	0.290	0.246	0.346	0.281	0.240	0.349	0.277	0.171	0.147	0.295	0.227	0.215	0.213	0.227	0.431	0.423	0.447	0.441	0.218	0.352	0.280
The overall lifestyle of City is good	0.266	0.289	0.306	0.219	0.332	0.331	0.252	0.374	0.367	0.334	0.385	0.302	0.133	0.203	0.347	0.239	0.244	0.257	0.227	0.415	0.445	0.443	0.450	0.299	0.378	0.323
I trust the local government of City to make good decisions	0.163	0.205	0.173	0.175	0.416	0.404	0.259	0.482	0.209	0.198	0.205	0.219	-0.027	0.215	0.269	0.158	0.224	0.355	0.291	0.303	0.358	0.324	0.345	0.147	0.336	0.462
The effectiveness of City's governing structure is good	0.161	0.206	0.151	0.203	0.382	0.409	0.236	0.484	0.189	0.218	0.209	0.250	0.008	0.182	0.237	0.159	0.195	0.288	0.265	0.298	0.355	0.360	0.357	0.161	0.341	0.454
Residents can participate in local decision making	0.211	0.242	0.195	0.225	0.360	0.391	0.236	0.402	0.231	0.197	0.178	0.226	0.041	0.226	0.186	0.148	0.171	0.264	0.303	0.310	0.354	0.338	0.336	0.167	0.287	0.360
The local government's vision for City is favourable	0.164	0.195	0.200	0.213	0.331	0.353	0.213	0.414	0.178	0.184	0.164	0.183	0.057	0.192	0.203	0.136	0.167	0.252	0.289	0.313	0.379	0.333	0.323	0.149	0.306	0.406

	The public transport in City is adequate	City has easy access to water	City has a diverse range of restaurants	There is sufficient amount of cultural events / festivals in City	City has a wide range of outdoor activities	There are interesting things to do in City	City has a wide range of shopping opportunities	City has a high quality of medical care faculties	City has good access to medical care	City has diversified employment opportunities	In City it is easy to find employment	The salaries in City is good	There is a lot of professional / business networks in City	I feel safe in City	The level of crime in City is lower than the average of South Africa	There is a low level of corruption in City	City is a good place for bonding with your family	It is easy to make friends in City	The people in City are friendly	It is easy to fit into the community of City	The residents in City are tolerant against outsiders	I'm proud to stay in City	The overall lifestyle of City is good	I trust the local government of City to make good decisions	The effectiveness of City's governing structure is good	Residents can participate in local decision making	The local government's vision for City is favourable
City is a good place to do business in	0.172	0.149	0.165	0.200	0.170	0.269	0.241	0.227	0.234	0.211	0.168	0.112	0.235	0.192	0.025	0.048	0.226	0.282	0.177	0.219	0.142	0.270	0.266	0.163	0.161	0.211	0.164
City has good economic growth	0.213	0.146	0.136	0.181	0.188	0.255	0.248	0.224	0.218	0.221	0.259	0.172	0.194	0.213	0.087	0.098	0.232	0.199	0.150	0.205	0.085	0.291	0.289	0.205	0.206	0.242	0.195
There are many self-employment opportunities in City	0.182	0.158	0.066	0.192	0.213	0.321	0.186	0.242	0.293	0.306	0.289	0.234	0.306	0.234	0.084	0.065	0.280	0.247	0.208	0.232	0.141	0.243	0.306	0.173	0.151	0.195	0.200
The business in City is innovative	0.201	0.140	0.071	0.144	0.232	0.278	0.174	0.212	0.237	0.284	0.298	0.265	0.264	0.209	0.075	0.131	0.187	0.235	0.192	0.218	0.160	0.191	0.219	0.175	0.203	0.225	0.213
City has lots of parks and available green zones	0.296	0.280	0.148	0.301	0.385	0.375	0.199	0.222	0.226	0.223	0.242	0.222	0.124	0.326	0.271	0.302	0.238	0.251	0.271	0.280	0.228	0.312	0.332	0.416	0.382	0.360	0.331
There is access to clean outdoor recreational areas in City	0.304	0.260	0.144	0.402	0.444	0.422	0.222	0.241	0.233	0.229	0.261	0.265	0.200	0.295	0.250	0.294	0.245	0.241	0.244	0.228	0.260	0.290	0.331	0.404	0.409	0.391	0.353
City has low pollution	0.164	0.302	0.060	0.218	0.231	0.214	0.049	0.105	0.112	0.091	0.177	0.124	0.083	0.283	0.289	0.307	0.212	0.226	0.221	0.185	0.241	0.246	0.252	0.259	0.236	0.236	0.213
City is a clean city	0.380	0.382	0.114	0.253	0.323	0.379	0.229	0.235	0.243	0.235	0.251	0.203	0.227	0.399	0.308	0.348	0.375	0.281	0.336	0.257	0.261	0.346	0.374	0.482	0.484	0.402	0.414
There is high quality of school education available in City	0.163	0.232	0.223	0.268	0.318	0.279	0.286	0.370	0.368	0.236	0.191	0.181	0.213	0.219	0.097	0.119	0.309	0.227	0.275	0.277	0.225	0.281	0.367	0.209	0.189	0.231	0.178
There are many educational facilities in City	0.127	0.242	0.246	0.259	0.345	0.290	0.301	0.379	0.357	0.301	0.206	0.178	0.208	0.200	0.110	0.099	0.298	0.198	0.231	0.214	0.193	0.240	0.334	0.198	0.218	0.197	0.184
The general standard of the local schools in City is good	0.181	0.312	0.220	0.252	0.293	0.289	0.308	0.378	0.379	0.238	0.196	0.209	0.235	0.247	0.148	0.175	0.309	0.254	0.311	0.299	0.264	0.349	0.385	0.205	0.209	0.178	0.164
There are prestigious tertiary institutions in City	0.114	0.283	0.200	0.311	0.323	0.270	0.178	0.281	0.315	0.267	0.192	0.171	0.249	0.280	0.196	0.244	0.262	0.207	0.251	0.157	0.205	0.277	0.302	0.219	0.250	0.226	0.183
There is a lot of different cultures and ethnical groups in City	-0.022	0.092	0.249	0.139	0.095	0.066	0.180	0.196	0.220	0.096	-0.040	-0.022	0.122	0.001	-0.023	-0.048	0.175	0.135	0.200	0.177	0.139	0.171	0.133	-0.027	0.008	0.041	0.057
There is sufficient cultural centres in City	0.161	0.104	0.106	0.362	0.259	0.320	0.240	0.158	0.163	0.222	0.217	0.211	0.235	0.109	0.063	0.145	0.164	0.166	0.167	0.169	0.169	0.147	0.203	0.215	0.182	0.226	0.192
City has made an important contribution to South Africa's culture	0.196	0.210	0.092	0.351	0.267	0.364	0.280	0.224	0.233	0.329	0.296	0.253	0.258	0.225	0.104	0.122	0.278	0.210	0.296	0.247	0.193	0.295	0.347	0.269	0.237	0.186	0.203
City has a good cultural diversity	0.195	0.168	0.126	0.269	0.244	0.307	0.266	0.253	0.281	0.270	0.202	0.178	0.219	0.212	0.098	0.076	0.227	0.233	0.259	0.229	0.152	0.227	0.239	0.158	0.159	0.148	0.136
There is sufficient housing available in City	0.150	0.150	0.111	0.192	0.197	0.206	0.187	0.205	0.230	0.317	0.216	0.219	0.225	0.184	0.115	0.145	0.201	0.198	0.219	0.256	0.278	0.215	0.244	0.224	0.195	0.171	0.167
It is easy to find affordable housing in City	0.326	0.174	0.027	0.265	0.270	0.342	0.209	0.213	0.232	0.325	0.358	0.291	0.276	0.250	0.119	0.215	0.237	0.237	0.260	0.281	0.208	0.213	0.257	0.355	0.288	0.264	0.252
The housing market in City is favourable	0.224	0.201	0.091	0.177	0.248	0.287	0.193	0.164	0.190	0.265	0.267	0.233	0.237	0.224	0.144	0.190	0.196	0.225	0.278	0.192	0.201	0.227	0.227	0.291	0.265	0.303	0.289
City has a very attractive image	0.323	0.323	0.218	0.290	0.298	0.379	0.271	0.282	0.298	0.262	0.293	0.277	0.249	0.349	0.227	0.223	0.371	0.289	0.315	0.361	0.296	0.431	0.415	0.303	0.298	0.310	0.313
City has a good national status	0.311	0.310	0.210	0.342	0.373	0.490	0.296	0.297	0.311	0.279	0.254	0.245	0.263	0.338	0.247	0.226	0.388	0.373	0.370	0.336	0.297	0.423	0.445	0.358	0.355	0.354	0.379
There is a good energy in City	0.325	0.338	0.194	0.281	0.332	0.373	0.232	0.309	0.312	0.290	0.311	0.225	0.300	0.379	0.284	0.276	0.389	0.402	0.425	0.395	0.374	0.447	0.443	0.324	0.360	0.338	0.333
The image of City is appealing	0.328	0.318	0.249	0.272	0.353	0.355	0.228	0.230	0.227	0.233	0.235	0.261	0.219	0.354	0.265	0.290	0.337	0.383	0.356	0.370	0.318	0.441	0.450	0.345	0.357	0.336	0.323
City is easy to reach from most other cities	0.221	0.233	0.248	0.190	0.209	0.195	0.189	0.247	0.311	0.203	0.188	0.178	0.212	0.222	0.129	0.166	0.229	0.268	0.290	0.268	0.223	0.218	0.299	0.147	0.161	0.167	0.149
The traffic in City is well organised	0.440	0.349	0.163	0.238	0.227	0.287	0.225	0.197	0.225	0.217	0.207	0.088	0.081	0.321	0.240	0.253	0.276	0.326	0.353	0.341	0.297	0.352	0.378	0.336	0.341	0.287	0.306
The roads in City are well maintained	0.513	0.300	0.151	0.305	0.315	0.400	0.217	0.220	0.214	0.279	0.323	0.259	0.251	0.324	0.276	0.324	0.274	0.283	0.232	0.255	0.211	0.280	0.323	0.462	0.454	0.360	0.406
The public transport in City is adequate	1.000	0.385	0.161	0.303	0.339	0.364	0.286	0.233	0.235	0.209	0.249	0.199	0.217	0.256	0.171	0.267	0.252	0.303	0.215	0.346	0.275	0.294	0.325	0.401	0.373	0.365	0.397
City has easy access to water	0.385	1.000	0.311	0.293	0.309	0.291	0.229	0.278	0.256	0.177	0.215	0.156	0.217	0.325	0.300	0.247	0.290	0.293	0.324	0.302	0.299	0.329	0.341	0.274	0.347	0.235	0.310
City has a diverse range of restaurants	0.161	0.311	1.000	0.296	0.269	0.194	0.361	0.358	0.326	0.169	0.072	0.118	0.226	0.137	0.146	0.095	0.216	0.267	0.226	0.247	0.208	0.232	0.257	0.114	0.158	0.186	0.131
There is sufficient amount of cultural events / festivals in City	0.303	0.293	0.296	1.000	0.578	0.495	0.373	0.230	0.246	0.253	0.260	0.233	0.290	0.248	0.196	0.227	0.301	0.244	0.293	0.276	0.256	0.319	0.348	0.342	0.324	0.330	0.287
City has a wide range of outdoor activities	0.339	0.309	0.269	0.578	1.000	0.634	0.341	0.322	0.303	0.284	0.276	0.299	0.315	0.268	0.195	0.212	0.271	0.298	0.273	0.278	0.263	0.286	0.334	0.323	0.338	0.360	0.305
There are interesting things to do in City	0.364	0.291	0.194	0.495	0.634	1.000	0.431	0.271	0.224	0.330	0.380	0.332	0.301	0.274	0.171	0.230	0.323	0.375	0.307	0.314	0.225	0.341	0.403	0.441	0.428	0.405	0.387
City has a wide range of shopping opportunities	0.286	0.229	0.361	0.373	0.341	0.431	1.000	0.429	0.371	0.219	0.152	0.169	0.224	0.072	0.022	0.070	0.192	0.264	0.261	0.227	0.202	0.263	0.295	0.208	0.219	0.210	0.224
City has a high quality of medical care faculties	0.233	0.278	0.358	0.230	0.322	0.271	0.429	1.000	0.803	0.368	0.222	0.204	0.305	0.203	0.112	0.113	0.241	0.256	0.218	0.241	0.209	0.266	0.357	0.232	0.226	0.239	0.194
City has good access to medical care	0.235	0.256	0.326	0.246	0.303	0.224	0.371	0.803	1.000	0.426	0.278	0.242	0.310	0.201	0.134	0.153	0.286	0.223	0.238	0.239	0.182	0.230	0.359	0.222	0.220	0.248	0.195
City has diversified employment opportunities	0.209	0.177	0.169	0.253	0.284	0.330	0.219	0.368	0.426	1.000	0.622	0.465	0.485	0.271	0.173	0.170	0.238	0.169	0.177	0.166	0.174	0.199	0.304	0.304	0.299	0.300	0.277
In City it is easy to find employment	0.249	0.215	0.072	0.260	0.276	0.380	0.152	0.222	0.278	0.622	1.000	0.578	0.430	0.302	0.216	0.250	0.199	0.178	0.173	0.181	0.147	0.220	0.270	0.335	0.338	0.310	0.350
The salaries in City is good	0.199	0.156	0.118	0.233	0.299	0.332	0.169	0.204	0.242	0.465	0.578	1.000	0.516	0.268	0.175	0.237	0.150	0.172	0.143	0.163	0.183	0.189	0.225	0.277	0.274	0.241	0.276
There is a lot of professional / business networks in City	0.217	0.217	0.226	0.290	0.315	0.301	0.224	0.305	0.310	0.485	0.430	0.516	1.000	0.282	0.158	0.175	0.299	0.271	0.274	0.248	0.223	0.232	0.263	0.236	0.274	0.307	0.258
I feel safe in City	0.256	0.325	0.137	0.248	0.268	0.274	0.072	0.203	0.201	0.271	0.302	0.268	0.282	1.000	0.618	0.516	0.450	0.319	0.362	0.317	0.254	0.416	0.391	0.403	0.395	0.319	0.361
The level of crime in City is lower than the average of South Africa	0.171	0.300	0.146	0.196	0.195	0.171	0.022	0.112	0.134	0.173	0.216	0.175	0.158	0.618	1.000	0.627	0.338	0.237	0.250	0.209	0.172	0.325	0.309	0.392	0.390	0.330	0.367
There is a low level of corruption in City	0.267	0.247	0.095	0.227	0.212	0.230	0.070	0.113	0.153	0.170	0.250	0.237	0.175	0.516	0.627	1.000	0.320	0.227	0.234	0.250	0.159	0.292	0.285	0.488	0.446	0.414	0.419
City is a good place for bonding with your family	0.252	0.290	0.216	0.301	0.271	0.323	0.192	0.241	0.286	0.238	0.199	0.150	0.299	0.450	0.338	0.320	1.000	0.481	0.431	0.430	0.296	0.525	0.480	0.375	0.350	0.354	0.324
It is easy to make friends in City	0.303	0.293	0.267	0.244	0.298	0.375	0.264	0.256	0.223	0.169	0.178	0.172	0.271	0.319	0.237	0.227	0.481	1.000	0.654	0.614	0.409	0.493	0.415	0.290	0.275	0.316	0.302
The people in City are friendly	0.215	0.324	0.226	0.293	0.273	0.307	0.261	0.218	0.238	0.177	0.173	0.143	0.274	0.362	0.250	0.234	0.431	0.654	1.000	0.664	0.511	0.550	0.461	0.304	0.287	0.262	0.286
It is easy to fit into the community of City	0.346	0.302	0.247	0.276	0.278	0.314	0.227	0.241	0.239	0.166	0.181	0.163	0.248	0.317	0.209	0.250	0.430	0.614	0.664	1.000	0.545	0.564	0.502	0.295	0.301	0.314	0.288
The residents in City are tolerant against outsiders	0.275	0.299	0.208	0.256	0.263	0.225	0.202	0.209	0.182	0.174	0.147	0.183	0.223	0.254	0.172	0.159	0.296	0.409	0.511	0.545	1.000	0.460	0.381	0.249	0.275	0.252	0.275
I'm proud to stay in City	0.294	0.329	0.232	0.319	0.286	0.341	0.263	0.266	0.230	0.199	0.220	0.189	0.232	0.416	0.325	0.292	0.525	0.493	0.550	0.564	0.460	1.000	0.650	0.389	0.376	0.398	0.375
The overall lifestyle of City is good	0.325	0.341	0.257	0.348	0.334	0.403	0.295	0.357	0.359	0.304	0.270	0.225	0.263	0.391	0.309	0.285	0.480	0.415	0.461	0.502	0.381	0.650	1.000	0.458	0.451	0.384	0.366
I trust the local government of City to make good decisions	0.401	0.274	0.114	0.342	0.323	0.441	0.208	0.232	0.222	0.304	0.335	0.277	0.236	0.403	0.392	0.488	0.375	0.290	0.304	0.295	0.249	0.389	0.458	1.000	0.778	0.628	0.628
The effectiveness of City's governing structure is good	0.373	0.347	0.158	0.324	0.338	0.428	0.219	0.226	0.220	0.299	0.338	0.274	0.274	0.395	0.390	0.446	0.350	0.275	0.287	0.301	0.275	0.376	0.451	0.778	1.000	0.637	0.698
Residents can participate in local decision making	0.365	0.235	0.186	0.330	0.360	0.405	0.210	0.239	0.248	0.300	0.310	0.241	0.307	0.319	0.330	0.414	0.354	0.316	0.262	0.314	0.252	0.398	0.384	0.628	0.637	1.000	0.695
The local government's vision for City is favourable	0.397	0.310	0.131	0.287	0.305	0.387	0.224	0.194	0.195	0.277	0.350	0.276	0.258	0.361	0.367	0.419	0.324	0.302	0.286	0.288	0.275	0.375	0.366	0.628	0.698	0.695	1.000

ANNEXURE D: ASSISTANCE IN STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY ®
YUNIBESITI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT
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To whom it may concern

Dissertation: M. Bothma, student number 25709232

I hereby confirm that the Department of Statistics assisted with the statistical data analysis and interpretation of the results.

Yours sincerely

Dr. H.M. Jansen van Rensburg
Senior Lecturer

ANNEXURE E: ASSISTANCE IN LANGUAGE EDITING

2 Glen Eden Park
520 Town Bush Road
Montrose
Pietermaritzburg
27 October 2015

Mrs Mia Bothma
School of Business Management
Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences
Potchefstroom Campus
North-West University

Dear Mrs Bothma

<u>EDITING OF YOUR DISSERTATION</u>

This letter is to record that I have edited your dissertation for the MCom in Marketing titled "A city branding framework for selected cities in the North West province".

My editing was done electronically in MS Word, using change-tracking mode, and included the following:

- checking spelling and punctuation
- adhering to conventions of diction, grammar and syntax used in written English
- checking consistency of capitalisation and abbreviation
- checking numbering of chapters, subsections, tables and figures
- modifying language to enhance the expression of intended meaning where possible
- making notes in comment boxes with queries or suggestions
- checking consistency of formatting, including of bibliographic entries
- checking in-text citations against details in the bibliography

I did not alter the substantive content of your dissertation in any way.

Yours sincerely

Keith Richmond
BA Hons in Applied Linguistics (Unisa)
MA in English Literature (UNP)
MPhil in Adult Education (UCT)
Full Member of the Professional Editors' Group

ANNEXURE F: ASSISTANCE IN TECHNICAL EDITING

BJB

Tegniese Versorging / Technical Editing

PO Box 2272
Potchefstroom
2520

Mrs Mia Bothma
North-West University
School of Business Management
Building E3
Potchefstroom Campus

Dear Mrs Bothma

TECHNICAL EDITING OF YOUR DISSERTATION

This letter serves to confirm that we edited your dissertation for the MCom in Marketing titled

"A city branding framework for selected cities in the North West province".

This editing included the following:

- figures,
- tables,
- graphs and
- the layout of the text as well as
- the aspects of the contents.

Sincerely

EP Beukes
E Oosthuizen

November 2015