NATION BRANDING: CASE STUDY OF ZIMBABWE

S. SENA

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NATION BRANDING: CASE STUDY OF ZIMBABWE

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DECLARATION

I, Steven Sena, hereby declare that this thesis entitled: Nation branding: Case study of Zimbabwe is my own research work, which has not been previously submitted for a degree at any university. I also declare that all authors whose studies have been cited and reported here, have been acknowledged by means of complete references.

Signature:

Date: 07 December 2012

Language editing declaration

I hereby, declare that I have performed the language editing of the thesis titled: Nation branding: Case study of Zimbabwe.

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# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION 1

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT 1

1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVE 2

1.3.1 Primary objective 3

1.3.2 Secondary objectives 3

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS 3

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY 4

1.6 THE FOUNDATION OF THE NATION BRANDING MODEL 5

1.7 THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES 7

1.8 SCOPE OF THE STUDY 7

1.9 LITERATURE REVIEW 7

1.9.1 Nation branding as a concept 7

1.9.2 The entertainment industry 8
1.9.3 Cultural elements 14
1.9.4 Stakeholders 17
1.9.5 Nation hope 19
1.9.6 Nation building 19
1.9.7 Nation competitive advantage 20

1.10 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY 20
1.10.1 Quantitative and qualitative paradigm 21
1.10.2 The survey design 21
1.10.3 Population of study and sampling 22
1.10.4 Sampling and sampling methods 22
1.10.5 Probability and non-probability sampling 22
1.10.6 Random sampling 23
1.10.7 Purposive sampling 23
1.10.8 Questionnaire 23
1.10.9 Data presentation, analysis, and interpretation 23

1.11 PRIOR RESEARCH 24
1.12 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY 24
1.13 STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY 25

CHAPTER TWO
THE ZIMBABWEAN BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT

2.1 INTRODUCTION 27

2.2 A GENERAL OVERVIEW OF THE BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT 27
2.2.1 Political factors 28
2.2.2 Economic factors 29
2.2.3 Socio-cultural

2.2.4 Technological environment

2.2.5 Legal environment

2.3 A BRIEF OVERVIEW OF INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS

2.3.1 International versus domestic business

2.3.2 The impact of globalisation on international trade

2.4 REGIONAL INTEGRATION

2.4.1 Zimbabwe’s benefits from regional integration

2.4.2 Bilateral Trade Agreements

2.5 INTERNATIONAL TRADE THEORIES AND THEIR INFLUENCES

   ON THE INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT

2.5.1 The competitive environment

2.5.2 Absolute advantage theory

2.5.3 The comparative advantage theory

2.5.4 The factor endowment theory

2.5.5 The nation competitive advantage theory

2.5.6 Porter’s diamond of nation competitive advantage theory

2.6 ZIMBABWE BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT DURING

   THE 2000-2008 PERIOD (THE CRISIS PERIOD)

2.7 BUSINESS CLIMATE IN THE COUNTRY

2.7.1 Governance situation

2.7.2 The education system
2.7.3 The health delivery system

2.8 THE BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT IN ZIMBABWE DURING THE 2009-2012 PERIOD

2.9 THE CURRENT INVESTMENT CLIMATE IN THE COUNTRY

2.9.1 Sector investment opportunities

2.9.2 Investment incentives

2.10 SUMMARY

CHAPTER THREE
THE NATURE OF NATION BRANDING

3.1 INTRODUCTION

3.2 CONCEPTUALISATION OF BRANDING

3.3 MODELS OF BRAND EQUITY

3.3.1 Aaker’s brand equity model

3.3.2 Keller’s customer based brand equity model (CBBE)

3.4 BUILDING STRONG BRANDS

3.4.1 Nation brand equity (NBEQ)

3.5 NATION BRANDING AS A CONCEPT

3.5.1 Corporate branding versus nation branding

3.6 THE NATION BRANDING MODELS

3.6.1 The Anholt-GfK Roper nation brand index (NBI) hexagon
3.6.2 The Hanna and Rowley’s nation, country, place, or location branding model

3.7 MEASURING OF NATION, COUNTRY, PLACE, OR LOCATION BRAND EQUITY

3.8 NATION BRANDING VERSUS NATION BUILDING

3.9 SUMMARY

CHAPTER FOUR
NATION BRANDING OF SELECTED COUNTRIES

4.1 INTRODUCTION

4.2 NATION BRANDING OF FORMER YUGOSLAV STATES: SLOVENIA

4.2.1 The core of Slovenia’s brand

4.2.2 Nation branding challenges faced by Slovenia

4.3 BRAND KENYA INITIATIVE

4.3.1 Observations from the Kenya nation branding initiative

4.4 BRAND SINGAPORE: THE HUB OF NEW ASIA

4.4.1 Challenges faced by nation branding of Singapore initiative

4.5 CHALLENGES OF NATION BRANDING FOR ZIMBABWE

4.5.1 Addressing the challenges of nation branding

4.6 SUMMARY
CHAPTER FIVE
THE THEORETICAL MODEL FOR PERCEPTIONS OF NATION BRANDING
FOR ZIMBABWE

5.1 INTRODUCTION 106

5.2 THE MODELLED INFLUENCES OF NATION BRANDING PERCEPTIONS 106

5.2.1 The entertainment industry 107

5.2.2 Cultural elements 122

5.2.3 Stakeholders 127

5.2.4 Nation branding elements 134

5.3 THE MODELLED OUTCOMES OF NATION BRANDING 136

5.3.1 Nation hope 136

5.3.2 Nation building 138

5.3.3 Nation’s competitive advantage 139

5.4 SUMMARY 141

CHAPTER SIX
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

6.1 INTRODUCTION 142

6.2 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY 142

6.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY 143
6.3.1 Primary Objective 143
6.3.2 Secondary Objectives 143
6.3.3 Research questions 144

6.4 RESEARCH DESIGN 144
6.4.1 The survey design 144

6.5 SAMPLING 145
6.5.1 Sampling procedures and sample size 146

6.6 QUESTIONNAIRE 153
6.6.1 Questionnaire design 153
6.6.2 The questionnaire development process 155
6.6.3 Questionnaire structure 155
6.6.4 Advantages of a questionnaire as a data collection tool 156

6.7 AN OVERVIEW OF THE MEASUREMENT PROCESS 158
6.7.1 Levels of measurement 158
6.7.2 The measurement process 159
6.7.3 Principal Factor Analysis and Principal Component Analysis 167

6.8 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS 171
- The entertainment industry 171
- Cultural tourism 171
- Stakeholders 172
- Brand attributes 172
- Nation hope 172
- Nation building 172
- Nation competitiveness 172
6.9 INSTRUMENTS USED FOR THE DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

- Employment title
- Gender
- Age group
- Educational level
- Period at current employment
- Type of industry
- Size of organisation in terms of employees

6.10 THE LIKERT SCALE

6.11 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

6.12 DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS, AND INTERPRETATION

6.12.1 Data presentation
6.12.2 Interpretation

6.13 SUMMARY

CHAPTER SEVEN

EMPIRICAL EVALUATION OF THE STUDY

7.1 INTRODUCTION

7.2 SUMMARY OF THE EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION OBJECTIVES

7.3 THE HYPOTHESIS CONCERNING NATION BRANDING FOR ZIMBABWE

7.4 DATA ANALYSIS RESULTS

7.4.1 Internal reliability of instruments
7.4.2 Descriptive statistics
7.4.3 Validity of measurement instrument
7.4.4 Perceptions of respondents towards tourists attractions, entertainment
    events, stakeholders, hospitality and cultural elements
7.4.5 Regression analysis
7.4.6 Correlation analysis of the hypotheses
7.5 SUMMARY

CHAPTER EIGHT
MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS, SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY
8.2 CONCLUSIONS ON RESEARCH PROBLEM OF THE STUDY
8.3 THE EMPIRICAL FINDINGS OF THE STUDY
8.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR NATION BRANDING FOR ZIMBABWE
8.5 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY
8.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND FUTURE RESEARCH

REFERENCES
APPENDIX A: ETHICS CLEARANCE FORM
APPENDIX B: COVERING LETTERS
APPENDIX C: QUESTIONNAIRE
LIST OF TABLES

2.1 Inflation rates for Zimbabwe (2000-2008) 45
2.2 Sector incentives 53
3.1 Distinction between corporate and nation branding 74
6.1 Composition of respondents in demographic terms 150
7.1 Abbreviations of variables 180
7.2 Cronbach alpha values for measuring instruments 181
7.3 Descriptive statistics for each variable: General response category 183
7.4 Factor loading: Perceptions of management of influences of nation branding 188
7.5 Empirical factor structure: influences 189
7.6 Factor loadings: Perception of management for nation branding 190
7.7 Factor loadings: Outcomes of nation branding 191
7.8 Empirical factor structure: Nation branding and outcomes 192
7.9 Empirical factor structure: Influences and outcomes of nation branding 193
7.10 Regression analysis: The influences of independent variables on nation branding 197
7.11 Regression analysis for the influences of nation branding towards nation building 198
7.12 Regression summary for the influence of nation branding towards good governance 199
7.13 Regression summary for the influence of nation branding towards
7.14 Analysis of the correlations
# LIST OF FIGURES

1.1 The modelled relationships among variables measuring the influences and outcomes of nation branding  
2.1 Porter’s diamond of national competitive advantage framework  
3.1 Aaker’s brand equity model  
3.2 Keller’s customer-based brand equity building model  
3.3 The Anholt-GfK Roper nation brand hexagon  
3.4 Nation, country, place or location brand model  
5.1 The theoretical model of the study  
6.1 A six-step procedure for drawing a sample  
6.2 Steps in questionnaire Construction  
7.1 Theoretical nation branding model for Zimbabwe  
7.2 The adapted model of the relationships among variable based on perceptions of management with regard to nation branding  
7.3 The summary of the regression analysis results  
7.4 The hypothesised model of management’s perceptions regarding nation branding for Zimbabwe  
8.1 Empirical evaluation of the proposed influences and outcomes of nation branding of Zimbabwe
ABSTRACT

Every nation exists as a brand with either positive or negative attributes and any other nation and individual that interact with it either will positively or negatively contribute to its nation image. A nation’s brand image may have evolved over many years, shaped by wars, religion, diplomacy or the lack of it, international sporting triumph or disasters, and by the brand itself. Zimbabwe as a nation is suffering from a negative image gained during 2000-2008 that has been characterised by *inter alia* the fast track land reform programme, political instability, corruption, hyperinflation, and so forth. The country has experienced a major transformation in its political environment that has had a positive effect on all sectors of national development. The new inclusive government, thriving on national unity has seen the people of Zimbabwe combining effort to work together to sustain the development of the country.

The aim of this study was to investigate how nation branding for Zimbabwe can help the country to brand itself as a safe destination for tourists, investors, and visitors. The major question therefore, pertains to how all sectors in the economy of Zimbabwe can combine their efforts to brand Zimbabwe and make it compete more efficiently at all levels.

Empirical findings revealed that tourist attractions have a positive relationship with nation branding. The empirical results also indicated that entertainment events have a positive relationship with nation branding. It can be recommended that Zimbabwe needs to identify tourist attractions and entertainment events to increase its nation branding.

The empirical results of the study also indicated that nation branding has a positive relationship with nation building in Zimbabwe. It was also shown that nation branding has a positive relationship with good governance in Zimbabwe. These results indicate that it would be easier to build the Zimbabwean nation when its brand is strong. Good governance, on the other hand, will increase if the nation’s branding improves.
KEY WORDS:
Nation branding, country branding, destination branding, product branding, sports tourism, nation building, nation’s competitive advantage
CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION
Nation branding is relatively a new discipline that has not received as much research as product branding and as a result there are no nation branding theories as there are product branding theories. According to Kotler and Gertner (2002:250) every nation exists as a brand with either positive or negative attributes and any other nations and individuals that interact with it will either positively or negatively contribute to its image as a nation. Kotler and Gertner (2002) further argued that, a nation’s political, economy, legal and cultural environments all contribute to its identity. This automatically raises some questions for nations like Zimbabwe that suffer from a negative image and identity but wish to raise their profiles and build hope among their stakeholders in the global market. The major question therefore, pertains to how all sectors can brand Zimbabwe and make it compete more efficiently at all levels, given the bad brand image and identity that the country has suffered in the (2000-2008) decade. Kotler and Gertner (2002) maintain that the main concern for all those countries that might have gone through major transformations in political and economical environments is nation-branding, nation image building and hope management. This is also applicable to Zimbabwe, hence the need for a study in that regard.

Tourism and hospitality for example is one sector that has been championing destination and major event branding and marketing. However, tourism and hospitality alone cannot be used as a nation branding tool, as a country with best tourist attractions such as fine beaches, safaris and great wonders like the Victoria Falls, in the case of Zimbabwe, might not be a suitable place to invest in if other factors do not positively contribute towards the process.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT
Zimbabwe as a nation is suffering from a negative image gained during the (2000-2008) decade that has been characterised by the fast track land reform
programme, political instability, corruption, hyper-inflation, disease outbreaks, food shortages and starvation of its people, government policy on private properties without proper compensation strategies and sanctions. The country has experienced a major transformation in its political environment that has had a positive effect on all sectors of national development. A new government of national unity came into being following the signing of the Memorandum of Understanding among the main warring political parties, ZANU-PF, MDC-T and MDC-M. The new inclusive government, thriving on national unity has seen the people of Zimbabwe combining effort to work together to sustain the development of the country. Machakanja (2010:8) argues that the national reconciliation and national healing commission was set up to reconcile former feuding political parties and people. The final desired transformations and nation image and hope cannot be achieved through politics alone, but through nation branding by all the stakeholders. The nation branding will subsequently lead to a nation building process, as a way of informing the outside world about the potential to achieve the sustenance and competitiveness of Zimbabwe as a nation. Hence, the requirement for a comprehensive framework on how this can be achieved.

The questions that need to be addressed in this study are:

- who are the main players in or contributors towards the nation branding process for Zimbabwe?
- does influence of independent factors bring nation hope and improvement on nation branding?
- can nation branding creat competitive advantage of the country?
- can nation branding create opportunities for investment partnerships to the country?

1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

In order to achieve the purpose of this study, the objectives are divided into two main groups, which are, primary and secondary objectives.
1.3.1 Primary Objective
The primary objective of this study is to develop a workable conceptual framework for nation branding that is suitable for the case of Zimbabwe and empirically test the impact of the identified variables in the framework.

1.3.2 Secondary Objectives
This study will be guided by the following secondary objectives:

- to carry out an in-depth analysis of secondary sources dealing with nation, place destination or country branding and country of origin and apply them to nation branding particularly to suit the Zimbabwean situation;
- to ascertain all the key contributors in the nation branding process of Zimbabwe;
- to investigate the most appropriate research paradigms, research methodologies, data collection methods and data analysis methods to be used in this study;
- to develop appropriate research instruments for data collection from the empirical study;
- to analyse primary data and test the hypotheses provided in the study; and
- to investigate the success of nation branding in the attainment of nation hope, nation building and creation of nation competitive advantage in the case of Zimbabwe.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS
In order for the research objectives to be met the following research questions will be addressed:

- who are the major contributors in the nation branding process of Zimbabwe?
- do tourist attractions have an influence on nation branding?
- do entertainment events have influence on nation branding?
- do stakeholders have an influence on nation branding?
- does hospitality influence nation branding?
• do cultural elements have an influence on nation branding?
• does nation branding have an influence on nation building?; and
• does nation branding have an influence on nation competitive?

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY
The significance of this study can be unveiled in a three point form such as:
• firstly it is to identify the most appropriate actors or players in the nation branding process for Zimbabwe;
• secondly it is to develop a conceptual framework suitable for nation branding particularly to the situation of Zimbabwe; and
• thirdly it is to investigate through empirical research the contributions by each stakeholder to the nation branding process of Zimbabwe; and

The following sectors (for the purpose of this study) were identified as the most appropriate actors in the nation branding process for Zimbabwe:
• the entertainment industry, through its sub-sectors such as sports tourism, cultural tourism and hospitality;
• cultural elements such as the material culture of the country, social interactions and religion;
• education and training systems from primary, secondary to tertiary education systems and the science and technology transfer system in the country; and
• stakeholders thereby considering the role of government, individuals and their enterprises and investors in the process.

Gilmore (2002:286) argues that nation branding can also shape how a nation is perceived, locally and internationally. It will help a nation to develop internally and successfully integrate into regional and international communities. Nationals, as part of stakeholders, will develop shared a vision, cultural values and feel that they are important entities in the day to day shaping of their national image. Furthermore, citizens will develop confidence and hope for their nation and feel the power and drive to work towards the building and development of their nation. Thus, nation branding becomes a
necessity for countries like Zimbabwe that have been branded as unsafe destinations for visitors, tourists and foreign investors and has gone through political and economical transformations that have resulted in the formation of a new inclusive government of national unity. The purpose of this study is to formulate a framework for nation branding for Zimbabwe.

1.6 THE FOUNDATION OF THE NATION BRANDING MODEL

In order to gain an in-depth understanding of the problem statement of this study, it is helpful to explore models that support the theme of this study. Two theoretical models about nation, place, location and destination branding were analysed, and these models gave rise to a modified hypothetical model that were adopted as a framework for the purpose of nation branding for Zimbabwe. The first theoretical model that was evaluated in this study is The Anholt-GFK-Roper nation brand hexagon model adapted from Anholt (2005:1). This model focuses on how countries can understand how they are seen or viewed by publics around the world, how their achievements and failures, their assets and liabilities, their people and their products are reflected in their brand image. This powerful tool helps a nation to understand, measure, and ultimately build a strong nation image and identity for the government, organisations, and regions. Allen (2003:6) argues that the effects of globalisation and technology transfer have caused countries to compete with each other for the attention, respect and trust of investors, tourists, consumers, donors, immigrants the media and the governments of other nations, as such, a powerful and positive nation brand provides a crucial nation competitive advantage. In this study, this model, the works of Anholt (2005) acted as the baseline upon which nations are branded as it shows the most important actors or contributors in branding a nation. The model measures the power and quality of each country’s nation brand image by combining the following dimensions: exports, culture and heritage, people, tourism, investment and immigration.

The second conceptual model that the study was drawn from is the nation, country, place or location branding model by Hanna and Rowley (2008:65). This model supports the argument that a destination brand denotes the
tourism dimension of a place. According to Hanna and Rowley (2008) the nation is comparatively equated to a place or location and a location is further equated to cities, towns, and rural regions all of which may produce their own outputs. The model illustrates the hierarchical relationship between place and its associated vocabulary encompassing a range of brand dimensions including destination brands (leisure tourism).

Figure 1.1: The modelled relationships among variables measuring the influences and outcomes of nation branding for Zimbabwe

Source: Summary by researcher from overview of nation branding literature
1.7 THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES
In the light of the conceptual model above, there are eight null hypotheses to be addressed.

H01 There is no relationship between entertainment industry and nation branding for Zimbabwe.

H02 There is no relationship between cultural elements and nation branding for Zimbabwe.

H03 There is no relationship between stakeholders and nation branding for Zimbabwe.

H04 There is no relationship between nation branding attributes and nation branding for Zimbabwe.

H05 There is no relationship between nation branding and attainment of nation hope for Zimbabwe.

H06 There is no relationship between nation branding and nation building.

H07 There is no relationship between nation branding and nation competitive advantage for Zimbabwe.

1.8 SCOPE OF THE STUDY
Basing on the hypothetical model of the study Figure 1.1 this study will focus on the influence of the entertainment industry, cultural elements, and stakeholders nation on nation branding. the aim of the study is cover a scope of participants in the nation branding of Zimbabwe.

1.9 LITERATURE REVIEW

1.9.1 Nation Branding as a Concept
Anholt (2002a:229) argues that country branding is a synonym for nation branding. However, nation branding is a better term because it shows a clear understanding that it is the people who brand their country, who benefit from an improved national reputation and who truly own that national brand. Kotler, Hamlin, Rein and Haider (2002:232) argue that country branding is a synonym of place branding, destination marketing and public diplomacy. They further postulate that a country refers to the physical and geopolitical location
of a nation or state, a region or a location with cultural or historical links, a city with a larger population, a market of various given attributes. According to Fan (2006:14) nation branding does not only stand for creating a new logo, slogan or brand but rather for a comprehensive process including positioning and various communication methods. The objectives of nation branding are primarily of economic nature. Selling the country basically covers such aspects as, fostering nation building, attracting tourists and visitors into the country, fostering foreign and local investment, improving exports, fostering hope about the country: its people, products and services and all that its people are good at, attracting talent into the country and creating the nation competitive advantage of a country.

Allen (2007:66) argues that country or place branding activities may also be interpreted as a complex strategic and tactical merger with cooperation from stakeholder groups and the management of communication channels capable of stimulating prospective customers’ willingness and intention to purchase. Avraham and Ketter (2008:69) proposed that the strategic approach to place branding is connected to public relations, asserting that altering an image is a conscious, comprehensive, holistic and interactive process which requires far more than a quick and simple change of slogans and logos.

In this study, the researcher will adapt the concepts of country branding, place branding and destination branding that have been discussed. Nation branding as a study is a new field that, in most cases uses, models from product or brand models. That is why there is a need to use theoretical models on brand equity for the development of nation branding models particularly for Zimbabwe.

1.9.2 The Entertainment Industry
The entertainment industry refers to people or organisations that provide, operate or engage in amusement, attractions and entertainment exhibitions. The entertainment industry is a very important sector of the economy because it creates employment, giving hope to people at the grassroots level as it has an outreach capability more than any other sector in the economy of any
nation. It is a serious contributor to nation branding. In this study the entertainment industry is going to cover sports tourism, leisure tourism and hospitality.

- **Sports Tourism**
  Sports tourism includes travel to and participation in or attendance at a determined sport activity. The sport activity can include competition and travel for recreation, entertainment, business, education or socialising, the sport can be competitive or recreational (Turco, Riley and Swart 2002:3). The authors further argued that sports tourists are those people who visit a destination with the primary objective or purpose of direct participation in or for just viewing a sport event, for instance, sport tours that could include a package of world cup games with accommodation, transportation, food and other types of entertainment. Sports tourism can also include fantasy camps where adults spend a week or more in camping sites for purpose of watching sports. Types of environments where sports tourism can occur include human settings such as stadiums, museums and cruise boats; social settings such as bars, restaurants and hotels, economic settings such as trade shows and conventions; natural settings such as mountains, lakes, beaches and rivers and cultural settings such as Rodeos in Texas and bullfights in Spain.

Tourism is a recreational activity carried out in leisure time away from home over a limited period. According to George (2008:20), tourism is the activity that takes place when tourists visit. It involves every aspect of the journey from planning, the journey to the destination, the period of stay, the return journey, memoirs, and recollections of the journey. Also included are activities undertaken by the tourists, purchases made, communications, and exchanges between locals and tourists. Sport refers to physically oriented activity guided by an organised format and rules that are imposed by participants or an organised body that represents the sport. The goals of the sport are usually to beat an
opponent, compete against a standard of performance, or achieve a predetermined goal.

Attractions are the primary lure for tourism destinations that entice visitors, and sport is an important attraction for many people. Sports tourism can also serve as a supplemental, secondary or peripheral attraction within host communities, that is, the primary reason for visiting the place is not sports but other types of attractions. While visiting a destination tourists visit a sports attraction to supplement their activities or to fill time between other planned activities. Sports, as a supplemental or secondary attraction, can be used to further satisfy visitors' needs, extend their length of stay in the host community, and stimulate economic activity. In many cases conference and convention sites are largely selected because of their sporting facilities such as golf courses, tennis courts and recognised sport events (secondary attractions) that will entertain visiting delegates after their business is complete.

The economic impacts of sports tourism are classified into two main categories, and these are primary or direct impact and indirect or secondary impact. Primary or direct impacts occur from transactions closely related to the event. Indirect or secondary impacts occur from the chain of events that result from the direct effects. Direct economic effects are geographically distributed throughout an economy because sport tourists often make purchases during various stages of their trip. Purchases are made at home in advance of the trip, enroute, at or near the sport site, on the return trip and at home upon return. Indirect effects are likely to take place far from the location of direct effects due to inter-regional industry linkages. An economy may import goods and services from many areas thereby scattering portions of the direct sport tourist transactions across the globe.

The sports tourism impacts have a multiplier effect to the economy, in that, a local economy comprises many businesses that buy and sell to
each other. The multiplier coefficient takes into account the interrelationships of businesses within a designated economy. The basic idea of the multiplier is that direct tourist spending in an area does not stop as soon as the income has been spent. A portion of the tourist spending re-circulates through the local economy before leaking out to pay for basic purchases elsewhere. The multiplier coefficient will be higher where a greater portion of spending is in the sectors with strong links to other industries and businesses like lodges, curios and souvenirs shops, and other services supported by visitor spending.

- **Cultural Tourism**
  According to Ivanovic (2008:75) cultural tourism are the tourism trips that satisfy the human need for diversity, tending to raise the cultural level of the individual. The author argued that UNESCO promotes cultural tourism as a means of preserving world heritage whilst nations view cultural tourism as a support for national identity and a vital means of economic support for traditional activities as well as local creativity. Richards (2007:2) also argues that cultural tourism is arguably a ‘good’ form of tourism for the destination, which avoids many of the pitfalls of conventional tourism while offering additional benefits in the form of high-spending tourists who are keen to support culture. Cultural tourism is also available as a development option to all destinations, because all places have culture. There is also growing pressure on the public sector to support more and more cultural facilities as the demand for culture grows in society. While the effects of globalisation create more interest in distant cultures as well as local heritage, rising education levels enable more people to access culture. One of the main reasons for the previous growth of cultural tourism has been increased participation rates by higher education through educational trips.

Cultural tourism, because of its supposed connections with a search for authenticity and meaning, is usually seen as a more serious form of tourism. Richards (2007:4) argues that rather than the simple aimless pleasures of mass tourism, the cultural tourists are those who go about
their leisure in a more serious and constructive frame of mind. They attempt to surpass their idle or inactive leisure time and aim to go back augmented with knowledge of places visited, people met and relationships formed as well as cultural values learnt. According to Richards (2007), the main motivations for cultural tourists are visiting friends, cultural events, experiencing the atmosphere of the place and cultural holidays. The major incentive for cultural tourism is a mixture of ambiance, local culture and history, that is, tourists expect to learn something in the course of their visit, especially the uniqueness of the place and people they are visiting.

- **Hospitality**
  George (2008:21) argues that the term hospitality is being used more in the place of the phrase ‘hotel and catering’ or accommodation and food and beverage services because it can be expanded to cover all offerings to the consumer away from home, including travel, lodging, eating, conferences, entertainment, recreation and gaming. It refers to the sector in the entertainment industry that provides shelter to the tourists. The hospitality sector also promotes a warm and friendly experience that benefits consumers whether it is at a hotel, leisure facility, restaurant, or any other tourism establishment. The hospitality mix is made up of four components, which are attractions, amenities, accessibility, and ambience.

According to George (2008:291) attractions and events play the key role in tourism and hospitality destinations in enticing visitors and tourists to the destination. There are three categories, which are natural, built and cultural attractions.

Natural attractions include climate, scenic beauty, wildlife, and other natural phenomena that are not necessarily created by humankind. There are numerous natural attractions within Zimbabwe, for instance, Victoria Falls, which is one of the great wonders of the world, the Great
Zimbabwe Ruins, the Matopos Hills and the wider stretch of the Eastern Highlands Inyangani mountains.

Built attractions are those that have been artificially created such as resorts, shopping malls, conference facilities like the Harare Conference Center, sports and recreation facilities such as stadiums, golf courses and motor cross racing facilities. There are also a wider choice of built attractions like hotels, lodges, restaurants, and lodges in Zimbabwe.

These are tourist and visitors attractions based on the people’s activities, including archaeological, historical, and cultural sites such as the King Lobengula Kraal (Old Bulawayo city), the Murehwa Cultural Center, the Tonga Cultural Center in Binga, the Kariba dam and the Great Zimbabwe Ruins. Other cultural attractions include theatres, the National Gallery of Zimbabwe and the National Museums of Zimbabwe and international festivals like the Harare International Festive of Arts (HIFA) and the Zimbabwe International Book Fair (ZIBF).

The amenities are the desirable supporting offerings at a destination, which serve the needs of the tourists and visitors while they are away from home. These include accommodation at a destination, restaurants, retail outlets, transport, and communication at the destination and other amenities and services.

Transportation and infrastructure are necessary to help ensure that the visitor has accessibility to the destination. Accessibility means that the place is easy to get to. Transport links to the market are essential for the success of a destination. The elements that affect the accessibility of a destination include infrastructure of airports, road networks and railways, operations including routes operated, frequency of services, prices charged, and comfort of travel, and government regulations that control transport operations.
A country is more than its physical tourist related features, it is also made up of social and cultural features. These give a country its atmosphere or ambience. A country’s ambience is difficult to quantify since it also includes intangible features such as the friendliness of its residents, the way of life of its people, its history and folklores and the way that tourist amenities and services are delivered to its visitors. In some countries where the local people are believed to be hostile to visitors or where people believe it is dangerous may portray a negative ambience. The way in which services are delivered is also particularly important because hospitality offerings are consumed at the point of purchase. Even if all the attractions are first-class, the visitors’ holiday experience can be spoiled by poor service. In essence, tourists will have a much more satisfying holiday if they feel welcomed by the host population and receive good service.

1.9.3 Cultural Elements
Czinkota and Ronkainen (2002:59) view culture as a combined system of learned behaviour patterns that are distinguishing characteristics of the members of any given society. It includes everything that a group thinks, says, does and makes, its language, material artefacts, shared values, attitudes and feelings. Furthermore, culture gives an individual an anchoring point, an identity as well as code of conduct, and separates the humans from the non-humans. Culture is learned, shared and transmitted from one generation to the next. It is primarily passed on by parents to their children, social organisations, special interest groups, the government, schools and the church. Culture is multidimensional, consisting of a number of common elements that are interdependent, changes occurring in one of the dimensions will affect the others as well. The elements of culture are language, aesthetics, education, social institutions, material elements, religion and value systems. For the purpose of these study only material elements, social institutions, and religion are considered the most important cultural elements that play a major role in nation branding and nation building.
They determine the way in which people interact. The family unit which in western industrialised countries consist of parents and children whereas in a number of other cultures it is extended to include grandparents and other relatives. Understanding tribal politics in countries such as Nigeria may help to avoid unnecessary complication in executing business transactions with such nations. Social organisations also determine responsibilities and tasks of managers and subordinates and how they interact. In some cultures, they are clearly and completely separated according to their social classes and office facilities and benefit levels at work.

- **Material elements**
  According Kotabe and Helsen (2004:96) material culture results from technology and is directly associated to the way a society organises its commercial activities. It is manifested in the availability and adequacy of the basic economic, social, financial and marketing infrastructures. Material culture, mainly the degree to which it exists and how much it is esteemed will have an impact on marketing decisions. Many exporters and investors do not understand the degree to which some consumers are package conscious. For instance, some areas like the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University campus is a bottle or glass free area, so cans or plastic containers can be ideal packaging for such products as soft drinks and alcohol.

- **Religion**
  Religion plays a vital role in many societies. It is important to understand different people’s religious customs and awareness levels. Religious taboos often force corporates to adapt their marketing mix programmes. Religion also shapes the holiday calendar in many countries and there is a careful examination of one’s calendar whenever meetings are to be scheduled. Religious norms also influence advertising campaigns. The attitudes and values of a society in many instances stem from religious teachings. For example in a Buddhist or Hindu society ‘wantlessness’ is the ideal, people do not
have the same motivation to produce and consume as in most western societies. In Asia, people are not individualistic. Individualism is suspect and at odds with society. It is far more important to be in harmony with others. As for distinct values of different cultures, negative stereotypes should be avoided in communications and positive values emphasised. Distinct values of different cultures have to be tolerated or accommodated. Negative stereotypes and positive values should be emphasised when communicating or interacting with members of different cultural or religious backgrounds.

- **Education**

  The major function of practical and effective education and training policies in the development process of a nation must be clear. A well-learned and skilled workforce will contribute directly towards raising production, improving economic growth, eliminating poverty and upgrading living standards of a nation. Appropriately projected, targeted and well executed education and training programmes and projects may also be very effective in eradicating challenges for the people to live their lives productively. Education and training, especially higher education link manpower development to national economic development goals by matching or aligning training programmes to the requirements of the industry. Some of the efforts include working with industry to identify specific needs, providing work based learning opportunities for students, offering, and supporting apprenticeship programmes. Once the needs are identified, higher education and industry collaborate to entice students or draw them into these critical programmes. The current Zimbabwean policy on education and training is that, no child should be without a good education, and no worker should be without the skills necessary to find a good job.

  Higher and Tertiary Education, Industry as well as Trade and Commerce through the relevant ministries are mandated to help individuals achieve their potentials by raising educational levels. The purpose is to produce a high calibre workforce, training, mentoring and
attracting the finest workforce possible. It is also the upgrading of education systems from pre-school through to university, educating through mentoring entrepreneurial skills, identifying business and industry requirements involving them, through sponsorship of programmes that are relevant to their requirements, taking strong and visible roles in regional initiatives. Through partnerships with other education and training institutions in the region and disseminating research and promoting technology transfer in the region.

- **Science and technology**
  Science and technology are needed to create a sustainable economic growth. Scientific and technological co-operation among nations also provides backing for the integrated endeavours of nations to obtain their own scientific and technical skills. The government of Zimbabwe has recognised the role of science and technology in resolving local developmental issues and enhancement of the competitiveness of the nation. Progress was made in developing strategies to enhance the effectiveness of government intervention in the field of Science and Technology and Research and Development (R & D). In Zimbabwe, there was an establishment of science and technology universities, colleges, and organisations in and around strategic towns that are linked to the teaching and development of science and technology.

1.9.4 Stakeholders
The government affects almost every other variables of nation branding. According to Kotabe and Helsen (2004:133) the political climate in the country has a direct impact on the business environment. The impact is felt through some changes in government policies and regulations on the operations of businesses. Strict government control not only strips its people of private incentives to work but it is also an inefficient mechanism for allocating scarce resources across the economy. Investors will first want to understand what national policies are being pursued and what policy instruments a government is using to promote its interests. Then they are able to assess the risk involved before making any decisions to invest in that country. Government policies
that will affect operations of foreign companies are expropriation policy, confiscation policy, domestication policy, repatriation policy and nationalisation policy. As noted by Czinkota and Ronkainen (2002) expropriation refers to a government taking over foreign companies’ goods, land or other assets, with compensation that tends to fall short of their market value while confiscation is an outright takeover of assets without any compensation. Domestication (also known as phase-out policy) refers to a foreign company gradually turning over management and operational as well as ownership to local companies over time. Nationalisation refers to the government taking over foreign companies for the purpose of making the industry a government-run industry. In nationalization, companies usually receive some levels of compensation for their losses. It is argued that, when nationalising some assets should always belong to the public. In Zimbabwe, this sentiment applies to the ownership of such assets as foreign companies that are not supportive of government policy on indigenisation and empowerment, natural resources such as land, minerals, water resources, and wild life. These are declared as part of national wealth that must not be sold to foreigners. Nationalisation maybe forced by government through such policies as indigenization black empowerment acts and the affirmative action in the case of Zimbabwe. Other changes in operational regulations that may also make investors and international business fail to invest in foreign countries would include local content requirements, price controls, restrictions on the number of foreign employees and foreign exchange shortages. These policies are considered as a sacrifice to nation building, attainment of nation hope and promotion of nation competitive advantage.

Whittaker (2007:91) argues that individuals and their private enterprises have a pivotal responsibility in nation building. Moreover, this presents a major source of investment, technology transfer, and expertise, which contribute towards poverty alleviation programmes alongside the public sector efforts. They also create new businesses, employment and intensify competition in the industry in which they operate.
1.9.5 Nation Hope
According to Snyder (2002:249), hope refers to a cognitive set that is based on a mutually originated sense of a successful nation (goal-directed determination) and pathways (planning to meet goals). It is a total insight and belief that set aims and objectives that are achievable. It plays a significant role for both the organisation and its employees’ performances. Attributes for a concussive environment for the attainment of nation hope are, peace, political stability and social order, partnerships in development, favourable macro-economic financial environment as well as good governance. In order for nation branding and nation building processes to be successful and able to recapture lost hope, all stakeholders should work out initiatives to indicate that, the nation has no longer such ill practices as scandals, corruption, political violence but are ready to work as a unit to revive nation building efforts and stimulate growth of private sector to promote human resources and industrial development in the country.

1.9.6 Nation Building
Nation building refers to the process of constructing or structuring a national identity. This process aims at the unification of the people within the state so that it remains politically stable and viable in the long-run. Eaton (2002:46) defined nation building as a social process of transforming an underdeveloped, poor and divided society into a community with peace, equal opportunities and economic viability within which individuals enjoy dignity, basic human rights, and the prospect of observing their own religion, tradition, culture and language in harmony with other people who function within other traditions. Eaton (2002) further argued that the whole community should be involved in this process. Bloom (1990:55) also argues that the process of nation building attempts to forge or create a nation after gaining independence, after divisive civil wars or civil conflicts. It seeks to provide distinct understanding of national constructs, redefining them in ways that are more broad and inclusive. Citizens must participate wholly in nation building since they are the custodians of their own problems and government should be the guardian that provides resources and protection to solve these problems. The objectives of nation building are:
a. To establish a fully representative government and set environmental conditions that promote economic growth and individual prosperity
b. To establish security, social order, and rule of law
c. To create hope, confidence and pride in the nation’s capabilities.
d. To establish institutions that would support social and economic development.
e. To promote, reconstruction, local and regional reconciliation and integration.
f. To enhance unity and cooperation and construction of a new broad, united national identity among citizens.

In this study, nation building is a dependent variable or is the result of a successful nation branding process.

1.9.7 Nation Competitive Advantage
Competitive advantage can be created or raised significantly and the improvement of competitiveness within an economy should be a key element of every nation. Competitive advantage initiatives should address competitive issues not only at the level of individual product and services sector but at the national level as well. This is because what makes a nation more competitive on the international market are cross-sectoral factors rather than single industry-specific factors. Exports, direct investment, direct competition, consumer demands and technological base are factors that promote competitive advantage of a nation.

1.10 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY
Methodology is the systematic and logical study of the principles guiding research. It is concerned with how the researcher will establish knowledge about his/her study and how the researcher can convince others that his/her knowledge is correct. In this study research methodology will address issues that pertain to the research design, population study and sample size, sampling design and procedures, instrument design, instrument validity and reliability, data collection procedures, data presentation, analysis and
interpretation. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2003:73) research design is a framework used as a guide in collecting and analyzing data. There are many research designs available for research. The choice depends on the nature of the study, population under study and even expertise of the researcher. All these designs are concerned with systematic collection, presentation and analysis of data. The function of research design is to help the researcher obtain clear and meaningful answers to problems. In this study, the researcher will employ the survey design method.

1.10.1 Quantitative and qualitative paradigm
The distinction between quantitative research and qualitative research is mainly based on the kind of information used to study a phenomenon. According to Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler (2008:191) quantitative studies rely on quantitative information: numbers and figures while qualitative studies base their accounts on qualitative information: words, sentences and narratives. Quality is the what concept whilst quantity is the how much. Qualitative refers to the meaning, the definition or analogy or metaphor characterising something while quantitative assumes the meaning and refers to a measure of it. In this study, the researcher adapted the quantitative method as the data is quantified to infer meaning.

1.10.2 The Survey Design
The design to be employed by the researcher in this study is the descriptive survey design. Neuman (2003:267) defines a survey as an attempt to obtain data (facts and opinions) about the current conditions and state of things. Descriptive survey summaries the status of some phenomena of interest as they currently occur. A descriptive sample survey collects information from a sample of the study population and relates the attributes to the rest of the population. Since the data is collected from a sample with similar attributes to that of the population the results can then be generalized to the total population within calculable margin of error. This study will choose the survey design because surveys have the general capacity to describe the characteristics of a large population. The study will become feasible by carefully choosing a sample, administering standardized questionnaires and
the sample chosen from the population will represent those who were not chosen but had the opportunity to be part of the sample.

1.10.3 Population of Study and Sampling
Leedy and Ormrod (2005:202) defined population as the entire set of objectives and events or group of people, which is the subject of research and about which the researcher wants to determine some characteristics. In this study, the population of study comprises participants from the entertainment industry and its sub divisions, cultural elements such as social institutions, material elements and religion, education and training systems in the country from primary to tertiary levels and stakeholders including the government, individuals and private enterprises and investors.

1.10.4 Sampling and Sampling Methods
Bailey (1999:95) defines a sample as a subset of the population of study and sampling is a process by which the study subjects or objects are chosen from a larger population. Sampling is a process of choosing from a much larger population, a group about which one wishes to make general statements so that the selected part will represent the whole group. Borg, Gall, and Gall (2003:93) define sampling as a way of selecting a given number of subjects from a defined population as a representative of that population. Sampling methods can be classified into two major classes, which are those that yield probability samples and those that yield non-probability samples.

1.10.5 Probability and Non-Probability Sampling
In probability sampling, the probability of selections of each respondent is known. The probabilities are known because the individuals are chosen by chance. The probability sampling methods are random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified random sampling and cluster sampling. In non-probability sampling, the probability of selection is not known. Individuals are selected not by chance but by other means. The researcher has no way of forecasting or guaranteeing that each element of the population will be represented in the sample. The non-probability sampling methods are convenience sampling, quota sampling, snowball sampling and purposive sampling. In this study, the
researcher will apply the random probability sampling and the purposive non-probability sampling methods.

1.10.6 Random Sampling
Random sampling method refers to a situation in which each person in the universe/population of study has an equal opportunity of being chosen for the sample and every collection of persons of the same size has an equal probability of becoming the actual sample. All that is required to conduct a random sample after an adequate sampling frame is constructed is to select persons without showing bias for any personal characteristics.

1.10.7 Purposive Sampling
People or other units are selected for a particular purpose. For instance, the researcher might select who he/she has decided are typical of a group or those who represent diverse perspectives on an issue.

1.10.8 Questionnaire
Leedy and Ormrod (2005:191) define questionnaires as written forms of papers on which questions are asked and information about a research study is gathered. Before the researcher chooses to use close-ended questions, he must differentiate between open-ended and close-ended questions. The respondents do not waste time thinking what to write, as answers are provided. A questionnaire is free from interview bias and guarantees anonymity as no names will be written.

1.10.9 Data Presentation, Analysis, and Interpretation
In this study, data will be presented with the aid of tables, graphs and pie charts. These techniques will allow the researcher to summarize and to express quantitatively the strengths of relationships. There will be a careful classification, organization, and combination of field notes (questionnaires). Interpretation simply means that after the data has been accumulated and processed, arranged into categories, converted to graphical presentation, analyzed statistically or by any other means of manipulation there must be finally a discovery of the meaning of the data items. In this study data will be
interpreted manually with the help of tables, graphs and pie charts generated through the help of computer programmes such as Microsoft Office Excel 2010 and statistical computer packages such as SPSS and STATISTICA (Version 10). Some guidance from specialist statisticians from the department of statistics will also be sort for proper data interpretation and presentation.

1.11 PRIOR RESEARCH
A thorough review of literature was carried out to investigate previous researches carried out on the subject of study in order to avoid duplication or to find basis for improvement on this area of study. A computer search through the faculty librarian of all online databases such as SABINET, EBSCO host and Google was carried out to obtain any dissertation abstracts similar to the area of study. No searches could find such a study that was done previously. The same search at national level was done, nothing was found, and some extensive research has been undertaken on destination branding and marketing. All the studies indicated tourism as the sole branding or marketing agent. There has never been a holistic approach where every stakeholder is concerned, hence the approach of this study is to include all those strategic entities to be involved in nation branding.

1.12 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY
The findings of this study will contribute immensely to the dimensions of nation branding and nation building. The research is important in a theoretical context too, as it applies validated theories of branding of products, services, and destination marketing to nation branding. The study will develop a comprehensive, value-laden and market linked framework for nation branding and brand management for use by any nation for a competitive edge, in the global market. The study is also important as it identifies the components of nation branding, confidence and hope building and management, which are very important attributes in nation building and positioning in the global market. Based upon the Anholt hexagon of nation branding attributes, the study will help the nation of Zimbabwe to identify its stakeholders and at least involve every citizen in re-branding the country. The various stakeholders will directly benefit from the findings of this study in their singular capacities to
communicate the image of the country to the international world. The main objective of the study is to establish a nation-branding framework that could reposition Zimbabwe in the global market.

1.13 STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY
The study will be structured in the format as shown below.

Chapter 1: The scope and background of the study
This Chapter will provide the background information to the area of study where such aspects as product branding, country branding and destination branding are analysed in detail and adapted to suit nation branding concepts. The chapter will also generate the statement of the problem, research objectives, hypotheses and methodology of the study.

Chapter 2: Overview of Zimbabwean business environment
In this chapter the focus will be on the brief overview of the Zimbabwe economy, the role and impact of the external business environment dimensions and variables as well as their impact in improving the country’s image.

Chapter 3: The Nature of Nation Branding
In this chapter, the focus will be on the conceptual theory of branding, country branding, nation building, the impact of elements and strategies of nation branding in a country.

Chapter 4: Nation branding of selected countries
This chapter will focus on the nation branding of selected countries where attention is going to be given to challenges they faced and solutions.

Chapter 5: The conceptual model for perceptions of nation branding for Zimbabwe
In this chapter, the modelled (variables) influences and benefits of nation branding were discussed as outlined in the theoretical model of this study.
Chapter 6: Research Methodology of the study
This chapter will focus on the research design and methodology of the study. It will review the sample and the statistical techniques and various measuring instruments used in this study to evaluate the model empirically and analyse data collected from the questionnaire.

Chapter 7: An empirical evaluation of perceptions of nation branding
This chapter will report the results of the reliability and the validity assessment of the measuring instruments. It will report the results of the empirical evaluation of perceptions of nation branding and the outcomes of nation branding.

Chapter 8: Managerial implications and recommendations
Chapter eight the empirical results are summarised and concluding remarks are provided. The research findings of the relevant studies are compared with the empirical results.
CHAPTER 2

THE ZIMBABWEAN BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT

2.1 INTRODUCTION
This chapter offers an overview of business environment in general and factors that affect or influence all business environments regardless of geographical locations. The Zimbabwean business environment will be examined in two perspective periods, that is, the 2000-2008 and the 2009 to-date periods. The 2000-2008 period regarded as the crisis period witnessed an economical crisis that was characterised by hyperinflation, corruption, brain drain, political instability, and total collapse of a nation’s economy. The second period that will be considered is the 2010 to date period, the current business environment that was ushered in after the Inclusive Government was formed. This chapter highlights the efforts of the inclusive government through looking at strategic programmes like the short-term economic recovery programme (STERP). The period is referred to as ‘getting Zimbabwe moving again’. The chapter will end by looking at general and specific sectoral investment opportunities and incentives that are available for both local and foreign investors wishing to do business in Zimbabwe

2.2 A GENERAL OVERVIEW OF THE BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT
An environment in general refers to the sum total of all physical and social conditions that influence individuals or communities. Gopal (2009:5) defined the environment as the surrounding objects, influences or circumstances that encompass someone or something within which a person exists. Gopal (2009) maintains that, the environment of any business is the sum total of all the aggregate conditions, events and influences that affect it. Pushparaj (2009:3) suggests that the environment within which a business operates is called the business environment and the environment maybe both economic and non-economic. Pushparaj (2009) further argues that, business environment is dynamic, it keeps changing, and it is composed of many factors. The changes in the environment maybe good or bad for a particular business. They can affect business in a positive or negative way. According to Sloman, (2005)
business environment is the overall climate created by internal and external forces within which an enterprise or business operates; it encompasses all those factors that affect a business’ operations. Sloman, (2005) further argues that internal forces of an organisation will make up the internal environment of the organisation while the external forces will make up the business’ external environment.

Veena (2008:4) argues that an internal business environment is composed of the conditions, entities, events, and factors within an organisation that influence its activities and choices, particularly the behaviour of the employees. Veena (2008) adds that factors that are frequently considered part of the internal environment include the organisation’s vision and mission statements, leadership styles, organisational culture, brand quality, accounting systems, strategic plans, choice of prime functions, organisational structure and chain of command as well as the span of control.

Veena (2008) further explains that an external business environment is composed of factors that happen outside the business and office walls. These will affect the main functions of the business and its strategies. Gopal (2009:11) identifies the external environment as the larger, uncontrollable environment consisting of societal forces that affects all other environments. They offer opportunities and threats that can make businesses grow or hinder their operations. This environment is crucially important for any business to study and understand for the purpose of strategic planning and decision-making. Both Veena (2008) and Gopal (2009) emphasise that the external environment is actually the real environment that influences the growth and structure of any business and the main factors in the external business environment are political, economical, social, technological and legal.

2.2.1 Political factors
The political environment refers to the political situation that is prevailing in a country at any given time. According to Gopal (2009:12), the factors consist of the management of public affairs and their impact on the business of any organisation. The political system has a close relationship with the economic
policies of a place. Some of the aspects of the political environment are the
general state of political development in a country and the degree of
politicisation of business and economic issues that would look at business
ownership laws. The level of political morality in a country addresses issues of
political ideology and practices of the ruling party and how political leaders
behave towards business operations (both foreign and locally owned), how
they maintain the law, order and political tolerance in the country.

2.2.2 Economic factors
Marijs and Hulleman (2008:150) argue that, the economic factors consist of
macro-level parameters related to the areas of production and distribution of
wealth that have an impact on the operations of a business. Marijs and
Hulleman (2008) maintain that specific factors in this category include the
stage of development of the economy, that is, underdeveloped, developing, or
highly developed economy. The central planning mechanism, for instance, the
five-year planning programmes in the case of Zimbabwe. The economic
indices, that is, national income, GDP, GNP, disposable income of people,
inflation and balance of payment, type of economic structure prevailing in the
country and economic policies of the government, the demand dynamics of
the products of the organisation, conditions in the related industries, and the
general economic conditions in the region.

2.2.3 Socio-cultural
Marijs and Hulleman (2008) pointed out that the socio-cultural environment
consists of the society and culture of a place where the organisation intends to
do business. It is a general entity and influences almost all firms in a similar
manner. It is a complex of related factors concerning population dynamics.
These factors are very important on the products and service the company
offers, packaging, pricing and other specific features of the marketing mix.
According to Marijs and Hulleman (2008) some of the specific factors are,
social attitudes of the people, educational and literacy levels in the country,
gender roles in the society, the consumption habits of people, customs and
traditions of a place, language and communication levels in the country, local
festivals and events that take place and their specific timing.
2.2.4 Technological environment
According to Marijs and Hulleman (2008), the environment consists of those factors that involve any type of technology advancement or lack of it. Some of the specific factors include, the rate of change of technology, especially in technology-dependent companies, internal sources of technology, capability and focus towards research and development, technology adopted by the competitors and the industry in general, as well as innovations in products and processes.

2.2.5 Legal environment
The environment consists of factors related to the planning, promotion, and regulation of business activities in a country or region. Various acts are enacted and amended, which specifically relate to specific industries (Marijs and Hulleman (2008). Some of the legal factors include specific legal enactments such as laws and Acts that influence or affect business. Special legal provision relating to infrastructure, procedures, licences, permits, patents, trademarks and policies relating to imports and exports, the constitutional framework, fundamental rights, and distribution of legislative power between central and state governments, policies relating to licensing, monopolies, foreign investment and financing of industries, and policies relating to small-scale industries, sick companies, consumer protection, and environmental pollution.

2.3 A BRIEF OVERVIEW OF INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS
Shenkar and Luo (2008:9) define international business as all commercial transactions, private and governmental between two or more countries. Shenkar and Luo (2008) further elaborate that international business activities involve the transfer of resources, goods, services knowledge, skills, or information across national boundaries and the resources that make up this flow are raw materials, capital, and people. Goods may be semi-finished assemblies and products. Services include accounting, legal counsel, banking and insurance, management consulting, trade unions, trade service, education healthcare, and tourism. Knowledge and skills including technology and innovation, organisational and managerial skills, and intellectual property
rights such as copyrights, trademarks, and brand names also fall under international business. Information flows include databases and networks. The parties involved in international business include individual business people, tourists, investors, companies, both private and public, company clusters (alliances or joint ventures), government bodies (central banks) and international institutions (World Bank and International Monetary Fund).

2.3.1 International versus domestic business
Rugman and Collinson (2009:7) posit that, international business is the outgrowth of domestic business. Most major corporations that are active in today’s international business environment started their operations in the domestic market. Rugman & Collinson, (2009) further explained that leading Japanese automobile makers such as Toyota, Honda, Mitsubishi, and Mazda started their operations in their domestic market in Japan before expanding to other countries. According to Marijs and Hulleman (2008), although international business is often an extension of domestic business, it is significantly different from the later mainly due to differences in environmental dynamics and operational nature. Environmentally, the diversity that exists between countries with regard to their currency, inflation, and interest rates, accounting practices, cultures, social customs (values and norms) business practices, law, government regulations and political stability are among the many reasons for the complexity of international business. Thus, international businesses face more different industrial environments than domestic companies do.

Morrison (2009:43) says that, the motivations for conducting international business include market motives, economic motives and strategic motives. Market motives can be offensive or defensive. An offensive motive is to seize market opportunities in foreign countries through trade or investment. A defensive motive is to protect and hold a firm’s market power or competitive position in the face of threats from domestic rivalry or changes in government policies. In economic motives, firms go internationally to increase their return through higher revenues or lower costs. International trade or investment is a vehicle enabling the company to benefit from the differences in cost of labour,
natural resources, and capital. International trade also refers to the differences in regulatory treatment, such as taxation between domestic and foreign countries. Morrison (2009) further elaborates that as for strategic, firms often participate in international business for strategic reasons. They may intend to capitalize on their distinctive reasons or capabilities already developed at home, (i.e. technology and economy of scale) by deploying these resources and capabilities abroad or increasing production through international trade. Firms may also go international in order to be the first mover in the target foreign market before a major competitor moves in. This may create some strategic benefits for the company such as, technological leadership, brand image, customer loyalty, and competitive position. Firms may benefit from vertical integration involving different countries and the company may need to follow its major customers abroad.

Morrison (2009) states that the example of vertical integration would include, a company in the oil drilling business that might need to integrate downward by acquiring or building an oil refinery in a foreign company that has a market for its refined products. Conversely, a company that has a strong distribution channel (e.g. gas stations) in a country that needs a steady source of supply of gasoline may integrate upwards and acquire an oil producer and refiner in another country.

Morrison (2009) further explains that, a typical example of following the company’s major customers abroad (piggy backing strategy) is the Japanese tyre maker, Bridgestone. The company found itself in the United States of America market when its customers (Japanese Car Makers) exported their cars with Bridgestone tyres on them. Other suppliers of Honda, Nissan and Toyota followed suit, many eventually established manufacturing operations in the USA. Bridgestone took over USA tyre manufacturer Firestone to become one of the leading global tyre makers.

2.3.2 The impact of Globalisation on international trade

Daniels, Radebaugh, and Sullivan (2004:412) defined economic globalisation as a process of rapid economic integration between countries. It embraces the
increased integration of product and factor markets, as well as the speed with which this integration takes place. Hough (2007:3) argues that globalisation describes a world that is increasingly becoming a single and seamless market place. This is because of not only a growing convergence between nations on economic and development policies but also a product of relatively recent revolutions in technology and large capital flows. Globalisation plays an influential role in the formulation of political, social, and technological policies in every country. Globalisation has caused the harmonisation of various international trade, rules and procedures in order to help to streamline the business of trade for importers and exporters. Venter and Neuland, (2007:41) argue that globalisation influences a shift towards a more integrated and inter-dependent world economy that has two main components, the globalisation of markets and the globalisation of production.

- The globalisation of markets

The demand side relates to the merging of historically distinct and separate national markets into one huge global market. Hough and Neuland (2008:19) elaborate that globalisation of markets has to do with companies that expand their sales and marketing activities into one or more overseas countries in order to take advantage of either commonalities or differences in the needs of customers across various foreign markets. This expansion may be as single as a local firm exporting to a foreign market from its home base or it may be as complicated as a truly global firm that views the entire globe as its home base and market.

- The Globalisation of production

According to Venter and Neuland (2007:19) the globalisation of production (the supply side) also known as the globalisation of industries relates to the tendency of firms to source goods and services from locations around the world as well as to take advantage of national differences in the cost and quality of factors of production. This is where global companies choose to configure and coordinate their
productive and value adding activities and facilities across various foreign markets. Global companies may choose to do so to take advantage of incentives on offer from the host government, or due to low-cost available labour, or because they are closer to the markets that they wish to service

2.4 REGIONAL INTEGRATION
Naidu and Roberts (2004:39) noted that regional integration is aimed at promoting the transformation of African economies. The resultant effect of integrating countries would be the achievement of comparative advantage, which would lead to efficiency in production and ultimately an increase in the quality and quantity of factors of production. Regional integration brings about convergence in addressing common political and social problems, consolidating peace, and in achieving economic and social development through joint initiatives.

2.4.1 Zimbabwe’s benefits from regional integration
According to Hartzenburg (2012:8-24) Zimbabwe is a member of the two largest regional economic integration bodies in Eastern and Southern Africa, namely the Common Market of Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA), and the Southern African Development Community (SADC). It is strategically located geographically and the most important trade routes go through its territory, making it well-placed to supply goods and services to both COMESA and SADC. Zimbabwe is also a beneficiary of the EU-ACP preferential market access schemes, and as a developing country, it is eligible to benefit from these schemes. Zimbabwe is currently excluded from benefiting under the US government’s Africa Growth and Opportunity Act.

2.4.2 Bilateral Trade Agreements
Dube (2012:1-36) mentions that, Zimbabwe is signatory to five preferential bilateral trade agreements aimed to benefit exporters. These agreements are:
According to Dube (2012) the Zimbabwe-Botswana Trade Agreement was enacted in 1988. The agreement allows for a reciprocal duty free trade on all products grown, wholly produced, or manufactured wholly or partly from imported inputs subject to a 25 percent local content requirement. The Zimbabwe - Namibia agreement has been in effect since 1992, subject to rules of origin, which require at least 25 percent local content for manufactured goods and that Zimbabwe and Namibia should as exporters, be the last place of substantial manufacturing. Other eligible products include mineral and vegetable products, live animals and their products. The Zimbabwe - Malawi agreement was implemented in 1995. This is a reciprocal trade agreement, with 25 percent domestic value added requirement. In the Zimbabwe - South Africa agreement, a duty free regime, or preferential tariff quota applies to items including dairy products, potatoes, birds, and eggs. Specified types of woven fabrics, for example cotton, are subject to concessional tariff rates when they meet the specified levels of Zimbabwean content (75%) in most cases. The current agreement was signed in August 1996 at which time the tariffs and quotas on textile imports into South Africa were lowered. The Zimbabwe – Mozambique agreement was signed in 2004 and became operational in 2005. Its objective is to eliminate tariff and non-tariff barriers and to cooperate in customs and trade promotion. The agreement provides for duty free trade between the two members with the rules of origin specifying a 25 percent domestic value added. Excluded from the arrangement are refined and unrefined sugar, Coca-Cola/Schweppes soft drinks, firearms, ammunition and explosives, motor vehicles and cigarettes.

All these Agreements have the same purpose and offer the same benefits under the same qualifying criteria. They aim to encourage and stimulate trade between Zimbabwe and the cooperating partner through the elimination of
tariffs and other non-tariff barriers to trade. The agreement allows the Zimbabwean buyer/importer to purchase goods from the signatory country without paying import duty (or paying a small agreed duty rate) as long as the goods in question qualify under the terms of the agreement and are registered as such with the relevant authorities the Zimbabwe immigration and Migration Revenue Authority (ZIMRA).

2.5 INTERNATIONAL TRADE THEORIES AND THEIR INFLUENCES TO THE INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT

de Lange (2007:20) argues that a company should not form its strategies or the means to implement them without examining its external environment. The external environment includes physical factors, such as, a country’s geography and societal factors including a country’s politics, cultural elements and its economy. Politics helps shape business worldwide because political leaders control the manner in which international business takes place. Political disputes, especially those that result military conflicts, can disrupt trade and investment. Dube (2012) reiterated that domestic and international laws determine largely what managers operating internationally can do. Domestic laws include regulations in both the home and host countries on such matters as taxation, employment, foreign exchange transactions. International law in the form of legal agreements between two or more countries govern how the earnings should be taxed in both the home and foreign country where a firm operates.

2.5.1 The competitive environment
As de Lange (2007) puts it, in addition to its physical and societal environments each company operates within its competitive environment. The competitive environment varies by industry, company, and country, so do international strategies. For example, companies in industries with homogeneous products such as copper tubing, compete more on price than do companies in industries that compete more on differentiated and innovative products such as branded toothpaste, or state-of-the-art computer chips. Strategies for homogeneous products are usually more influenced by cost
savings than the branded products. Companies within the same industry also differ in their competitive strategies. One of the competitive factors that international companies utilize is the size of the company and the resources it has compared to its competitors.

De Lange (2007) posits that the competitive environments also vary in other ways among nations. For example, the domestic market in the USA is much larger than the one in Sweden. Swedish producers have had to become more dependent than USA producers are on foreign sales to spread fixed costs of product development and production. For instance, Electrolux (Sweden) had to promote exports and depends much more on foreign sales of household appliances than do its main USA competitors GE, and Whirlpool. Another competitive factor is whether companies face international or local competitors at home and in foreign markets. For instance, Boeing and Airbus compete with each other everywhere they try to sell commercial aircraft. Therefore, what they learn about each other in one country is useful in predicting the other’s strategies and actions in other countries.

2.5.2 Absolute advantage theory
According to de Lange (2007), the absolute advantage theory holds that because different countries produce some goods more efficiently than other countries, global efficient can increase through free trade. Based on this theory, Smith questioned why the citizens of any country should have to buy domestically produced goods when they could buy those goods more cheaply from abroad. Smith reasoned that if trade were unrestricted, each country would specialise in those products that gave it a competitive advantage. Each country’s resources would shift to the efficient industries because the country would not compete in the inefficient ones. According to Daniels et al (2004:145), countries could increase their efficiency through specialisation because labour could become more skilled by repeating the same tasks, labour could not lose time in switching from the production of one kind of to another. Long production runs would provide incentives for the development of more effective working conditions. In support of arguments put forward by Smith’s theory, Shenkar and Luo (2004:17) also commented that the absolute
advantage theory introduced the doctrine of laissez-faire to international trade. According to Shenkar and Luo (2004), laissez-faire means literally ‘let-make-freely’ or more generally ‘freedom of enterprise and freedom of commerce’. Shenkar and Luo (2004) added that all nations would benefit from unregulated free trade that would permit individual countries to specialize in goods they were best suited to produce because of natural and acquired advantages and the market would reach an efficient end by itself.

According to the absolute advantage theory, government intervention in the economic life of a nation and in trade relations among nations, (that is, in the form of tariffs) is deemed as counter productive. A nation would benefit from free trade simply because imports would cost less than domestic products. World production would increase if all countries (in trade) specialise in the production of the goods in which they have an absolute advantage and then trade for those they do not have advantage over them.

Zimbabwe is a member of SADC and her responsibilities are food security in the SADC region. This meant that Zimbabwe was to make sure that all member states in the region were secured as far as food security was concerned. Zimbabwe had an absolute advantage in agriculture because it was producing more food to feed its own population and leaving some for export to SADC countries, and other regions. However, Tekere, (2001:9) pointed out that the main reason Zimbabwe lost her advantage was due to lack of agricultural exports. The other factors that contributed to Zimbabwe losing her advantage include weak world commodity prices on Zimbabwe’s primary exports such as gold, asbestos, and nickel. Government’s land policy that led to farm and property invasions during the period of study and diminishing business confidence in the wake of infringements on rule of law and corruption were other reason for losing her advantage. Zimbabwe’s military involvement in the DRC war, increased the deficit and damaged prospects of the IMF disbursements, and dried inflows of donor aid into the country. Continued depreciation of the Zimbabwean dollar and high real interest rates and hyperinflation leading to very high input costs led to the collapse of its production industry.
2.5.3 The Comparative advantage theory

The absolute theory could not explain a situation where for example one country is more efficient than another in producing all goods. Would it still pay for both countries to trade if one country were more efficient than the other in the production of all goods (de Lange 2007). A country has a comparative advantage in producing goods if the opportunity cost for producing them is lower at home than in other countries. Comparative advantage must be explained by reference to differences in comparative production cost, which further depends on the commodity’s production process, (especially the state of technology) and on the prices of production factors such as labour, land, capital and natural resources. The availability of production factors in an economy is referred to as factor endowment. As explained by Shenkar and Luo (2004:19), quality levels of production factors become even more important for improving a country’s exports or attracting foreign investments.

There is no doubt agriculture is no longer the backbone of the economy, the country industry can not produce, worse still, the country cannot compete with regional products especially from South Africa in its domestic market. Tekere, (2001:12) claims that Zimbabwe has become “the tenth province of South Africa.” However, for Zimbabwe to regain its lost comparative advantage, it needs to come up with a vibrant agricultural policy, which among other things should seek to raise agricultural productivity and viability of the farmer. The country needs to produce competitively, feed the domestic market, and create surplus for export. Zimbabwe should create partnerships and alliances that include farmers, agri-business as well as civil society communities. It also needs a vibrant industrial policy to help the industry retool and raise its production capacity to optimal levels. Development of sustainable infrastructure is critical if Zimbabwe is to produce competitive products. A reliable transport system both road and railway network is necessary and urgent. A good road network must link the urban and rural areas as well as neighbouring countries. (Dube, 2012; Tekere, 2001)

The absolute and comparative advantage theories are based on specialisation. They hold that, output will increase through specialisation and
that countries will be best off by trading the output from their own specialisation for the output from other countries’ specialisation. However, Rugman (1991) disagrees with these ideas and said that, these theories make some assumptions that are not always valid. They both assume that resources are fully employed, yet, when countries have many unemployed or used resources, they may seek to restrict imports inorder to employ or use idle resources. Countries often pursue objectives other than output efficiency. They may avoid overspecialisation because of the vulnerability created by changes in technology and by price fluctuations, or may have non-economic objectives such as cultural values.

Although specialisation brings potential benefits to all countries that trade, the theories do not discuss how countries will really devide increased output. Rugman (1991) further argue that many people including government policy makers are concerned with relative as well as absolute economic growth. If they perceive that a trading partner is gaining too large a share of benefits, they may forego absolute gains for themselves so as to prevent relative loses. If it costs more to transport the goods than is saved through specialisation, then the advantages of trade are negated, for instance, geographically isolated countries trade less than would be expected because transportation costs increase the price of traded goods substantially.

2.5.4 The factor endowment theory
This theory holds that, the inequality of relative prices is a function of regional factor endowments and that comparative advantage is determined by the relevant abundance of factor endowments (Onkvisit and Shaw 2004:32). Shenkar and Luo, (2008:23) point out that, there is a mutual interdependence among production factors, factor movements, income, prices and trade. A change in one affects the rest. Prices of factors and subsequent production prices in each region depend on supply and demand, which are in turn affected by the desires of consumers, income levels, quantity of various factors and physical conditions of production. Shenkar and Luo, (2008) maintain that, since countries have different factor endowments, a country would have relative advantage in a commodity that embodies in some degree
that country's comparatively abundant factors. A country should thus export that commodity which is relatively plentiful within the relatively abundant factor (in comparison with other countries). This exported item would then be exchanged for goods that would use large quantities of the country's scarce factors if domestically produced. A country that is relatively abundant in labour but relatively scarce in capital is likely to have a comparative advantage in the production labour-intensive goods and to have deficiencies in the production of capital-intensive goods. According to Onkvisit and Shaw (2004:32), factors of production maybe grouped into categories such as human resources, physical resources, knowledge resources, capital resources and infrastructure.

2.5.5 The nation competitive advantage theory
Onkvisit and Shaw (2004:32) argue that, a nation is competitive when it has specialised assets and skills necessary for competitive advantage in an industry. Firms gain competitive advantage in industries when their home base offers better ongoing information into product and process needs. They gain competitive advantage when owners, managers, and employees support intense commitment and sustained investment. In the end, nations succeed in particular industries because their dynamic home environment stimulates firms to upgrade and widen their advantages over time. The effect of one determinant is determined by the state of the others, the advantages in one determinant can enhance the advantages in others.

2.5.6 Porter's diamond of nation competitive advantage theory
Shenkar and Luo, (2008:141) say that Porter's framework has identified four major determinants of international competitiveness: factor conditions, demand conditions, related and supporting industries and firm strategy, structure and rivalry. These four determinants interact and form the diamond which provides the context in which a nation's firms are born and compete. Shenkar and Luo, (2008:23) maintain that, the theory also includes two additional variables: chance and government. Chance events are developments outside the control of firms, and they include pure inventions, break throughs in basic technologies, wars, external political developments
and major shifts in market demands. Government at all levels can improve or detract from a country’s national advantage. Regulations and investment policies can affect domestic rivalry and home demand conditions.

**Figure 2.1: Porter's diamond of nation competitive advantage framework**

Rugman (1991:61-64) emphasises that the diamond promotes the clustering of a nation’s competitive industries. The country’s successful industries are usually linked through vertical (buyer/supplier) or horizontal (common customers, technology) relationships. This clustering of industries is mutually supporting and the derived benefits flow forward, backward and horizontally. A country’s competitive advantage in a particular industry may be eroded when conditions in the national diamond no longer support investment and innovation to match the industry’s evolving structure. Some important reasons for the loss of advantage are; deterioration of factor conditions, local needs not compatible with global demand, loss of home buyers (lack of hope and confidence on local goods), technological change, firms adjustment inflexibility, and reduction in domestic rivalry.
The theory assumes that, resources can move domestically from the production of one good to another, and at no cost. According to Shenkar and Luo (2008) this assumption is not completely valid, for example one gold miner in Zimbabwe might not move easily into a software development job in the same country. The worker would have difficulty working in such a different industry and might have trouble moving to a new area. The theory also assume that, resources cannot move internationally, but in actual fact they do. Thousands of Zimbabweans go to United Kingdom, Australia, South Africa, and the Middle East to work.

Rugman (1991:61-64) emphasises that the diamond promotes the clustering of a nation’s competitive industries. The country's successful industries are usually linked through vertical (buyer/supplier) or horizontal (common customers, technology) relationships. This clustering of industries is mutually supporting and the derived benefits flow forward, backward and horizontally. A country’s competitive advantage in a particular industry may be eroded when conditions in the national diamond no longer support investment and innovation to match the industry’s evolving structure. Some important reasons for the loss of advantage are; deterioration of factor conditions, local needs not compatible with global demand, loss of home buyers (lack of hope and confidence on local goods), technological change, firms adjustment inflexibility, and reduction in domestic rivalry. Kotabe and Helsen (2008:38) assert that, the movement of resources such as labour and capital is clearly an alternative to trade. Porter clearly stated in his diamond theory that his theory is dynamic, yet by advocating clustering, the theory also looks static in the sense that new comers (nations) will have difficulties in gaining competitive advantage in a new area (Kotabe and Helsen, 2008).

2.6 ZIMBABWE BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT DURING THE 2000-2008 PERIOD (THE CRISIS PERIOD)

Hanke and Kwok, (2009:355) reported that during the (2000-2008) period, Zimbabwe experienced its worst socio-economic and political crisis since it achieved independence in 1980 and the nature, causes and effects of the
crisis are complex and varied. The bank further argued that the socio-political crisis has its origins in the colonial legacy of land ownership and distribution, disputed elections and the weakening socio-political governance. A steady decline in living standards coupled with the unresolved land issue and rising unemployment rates triggered violent riots, the invasion of commercial farms by landless peasants and wide spread of political unrests. The report also indicated that the fast-track land redistribution process transformed the land ownership structure and socio-economic dynamics in the country

Masaka (2011:342) argues that the (2000-2008) period, economic crisis also emanated largely from the inherited system of colonial economy and failures of the post-independence reform programmes. There were massive retrenchments in the civil service of both skilled and unskilled labour, massive closure of manufacturing industries, and general price increases that also triggered the emergency of a large informal sector. These in turn resulted in macro-economic instability, deterioration in the standards of living and decline in the formal sector economy. The impact of HIV/AIDS and cholera pandemics and recurrent drought further exacerbated the crisis. The country faced acute shortage of foreign exchange, unsustainable budget deficit, and domestic debt, worsening poverty levels and corruption, widening income inequality, growing parallel market activities and accumulation of repayment arrears on foreign debt.

Hanke and Kwok (2009:355) maintain that the (2000-2008) period witnessed a sharp deterioration in productivity in the real sector attributed largely to the sharp fall in agricultural productivity, triggered by the implementation of the fast track- land reform programme, recurrent drought, and weak macro-economic environment. According to the Bank’s report, the gross domestic product (GDP) growth shrunk tremendously, it recorded a cumulative contraction of over 35% by 2006, the agricultural sector which used to contribute over 19% of GDP registered a cumulative decline of 20% and its contribution to GDP declined to 16.1%.
The manufacturing sector, whose contribution to the GDP averaged 18.6% before 2000 also registered a cumulative decline of over 50%, on account of low capacity utilization driven by increased production costs, acute shortage of foreign currency, persistent fuel shortages and increased competition on the local market particularly from products from the Asian market. Public expenditure management became a challenge for the country during the decade largely due to inadequate expenditure controls, and because of this public expenditure out-paced revenue. Hanke and Kwok (2009:355) argue that events in the fiscal environment also contributed to the growth of money supply, thus fuelling inflation. According to Makina (2010:106), private sector performance was constrained by an overvalued exchange rate, severe shortage of foreign exchange, a shrinking domestic market, and a variety of supply-side bottlenecks that included fuel, electric power, imported inputs, and skills. Makina (2010) further argued that the steep decline of commercial agriculture after 2000 robbed the economy of its traditional source of supply of domestic inputs. It is also argue that inflation was on the upward trend throughout the decade.

**Table 2.1 Inflation rates for Zimbabwe (2000-2008)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>INFLATION RATE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>55.22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>112.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>198.93%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>598.75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>132.75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>585.84%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>1,281.11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>231,150,888.87%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Hanke and Kwok (2009:355)
The government of Zimbabwe continued to run large budget deficits, financed mainly through printing money (Makina, 2010:108). The country got into a serious debt trap. According to Makina (2010), explained that a debt trap occurs when a country is forced to borrow in order to pay interests on existing debt. According to Hanke and Kwok (2009:336) the increase in domestic debt and money printing for instance to offset the IMF arrears heavily contributed to the sharp rise in money supply to 1430% in 2006 up from 520% in 2005. Table 2.2 below shows the Zimbabwe dollar (Z$) denominations that were printed and introduced into the economy by the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe in thee selected years.

Munoz (2006:13) argues that, the printing of money by the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe led to hyperinflation, with inflation rising from an average of 598% in 2003 to 231,150,888.87% by mid of 2008. Munoz (2006) maintains that, the domestic currency was rendered worthless and was redenominated three times in a space of two years. First, in August 2006 in order to make ever-rising denominations manageable for the public and business three zeros were removed, secondly, two zeros were slashed on 1st August 2008 when annual inflation was officially estimated to be just above 231 000 000% , thirdly twelve zeros were removed in February 2009 when inflation could no longer be officially measured. Hanke and Kwok (2009:355) argue that the last private inflation figures computed by the Cato Institute was 87.7 sextillion% (million-million-million percent) by the end of November 2009.

Consistent with the inflation trends, interest rates were also adjusted upwards in line with the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe (RBZ) interest rate policy, for instance, in 2006 the RBZ raised accommodation rates from 300% to 500%. To ease some of the burden of hyper-inflation on consumers, the RBZ rebased the currency in 2006 by dropping three zeros in the old bank notes and introduced new currency denominations as part of currency reforms. This meant that the price of Z$1000 under the old currency would then cost Z$1 of the new currency.
2.7 BUSINESS CLIMATE IN THE COUNTRY

As reported in The African Development Bank report of 2007 the investment climate in the country remained depressed during the 2000-2008 decade. The bank also reported that concerns related to uncertainties over property rights and the rule of law continued to undermine the investors’ confidence throughout the decade. The country faced difficulties in getting overseas investments and lines of credit due to weak business environment and poor credit worthy ratings, as a result, private gross capital formation, critical for economic growth and job creation was on a downward trend. There were massive job losses, especially with the closure of private companies and deterioration in infrastructure and inefficiencies in public utilities (Masaka, 2011).

2.7.1 Governance situation

According to Masaka (2011:342), a series of political and economic events that occurred during the 2000-2008 decade contributed largely to the heightened political tensions in the country. The issue of land redistribution and election disputes have been at the centre of political instability. Corruption in the country largely fuelled by economic hardships and absence of a tight legislative framework, resulted in loss of public funds. There was massive deterioration in the quality of public service delivery due to inadequate funding and loss of qualified staff. Service delivery was affected by delays in payment to local authorities. It is also argued that, fiscal challenges, the brain drain, the impact of HIV/AIDS and the economic and political instability continued to affect the country’s capacity to effectively deliver public services (Masaka, 2011).

2.7.2 The education system

Masaka (2011:342) also commented the the worsening of the economic environment during the decade had negative impact on the education sector. This has resulted in almost all schools failing to open up especially in 2008 and 2008. Challenges faced in the education sector were because of the following factors:
• conditions of service. As the economic conditions worsened, a number of qualified teachers left the country in search of better working conditions, for those who remained behind the conditions of service would not allow them to report for duty regularly owing to unaffordable transport costs and other basic necessities,

• examinations. The administration of public examinations was faced with challenges ranging from delivery of examination to schools, their invigilation, as well as their marking. This was compounded by inadequate resources being availed to the Zimbabwe Schools Examination Council (ZIMSEC) because of controlled tariffs. ZIMSEC had a huge backlog on unmarked examinations,

• learning material and equipment- other notable challenges in the education sector included shortages of teaching and learning materials, equipment and chemicals and other accessories necessary for conducting laboratories and other tests. The impact left the state of the country’s education sector, one of the best in Africa at very low deplorable conditions.

2.7.3 The health delivery system
The economic crisis resulted in a sharp decrease in funding for health in real terms and this directly contributed towards an unprecedented deterioration of health infrastructure, loss of experienced health professionals, drug shortages and in drastic decline in the quality of public health services. Masaka (2011:345) reported that low income low income coupled with poor working environments forced many highly experienced health professionals to leave the health sector as evidenced by the high vacancy levels in the ministry. Masaka (2011:346) maintain that 68% of the health posts for qualified doctors in the country were vacant by end of 2009. The critical shortage of essential drugs, vaccines and medical supplies compromised access to basic health services by the poor and vulnerable groups. During 2008 average national drug stocks were at 36% levels. There was serious shortage of functioning essential medical equipment which was not only compromising patient care but also leading to staff frustrations and de-motivation. Furthermore most fixed
plants such as laundry machines, kitchen equipment, laboratory equipment and boilers were non-functional and hospitals were failing to meet basic standards for patient care.

2.8 THE BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT IN ZIMBABWE DURING THE 2009-2012 PERIOD

On the 15th of September 2008, the three political parties represented in the House of Assembly executed a global political agreement (GPA). (Gopal 2009) argues that the new inclusive government took office in the context of an economy that had many challenges. At the epicentre of the economic crisis have been unprecedented levels of hyperinflation, sustained period of negative GDP growth rates, massive devaluations of the currency, low productive capacity, loss of jobs, food shortages, poverty, massive de-industrialisation, and general despondency of the nation. It was therefore the fundamental task of the new government to address these issues and to resuscitate and rehabilitate the economy and attend to nation building and healing processes. It is argued that in order to address the economic crisis, the government came up with a strategic Short Term Emergency Recovery Programme (STERP).

STERP was an emergency short-term stabilisation programme whose key goals were to establish the macro and micro-economies recover the levels of savings, investment, and growth and lay the basis for a more transformative mid-term to long-term economic programme that will finally turn Zimbabwe into a progressive developmental state. According to Mangoma (2009:4), STERP is a capacity based rehabilitation programme that seeks to stabilise all the macro and micro-economic fundamentals in Zimbabwe. The stabilisation component of STERP will target inflation and will increase the saving stock of the country. The programme articulates Zimbabwe’s collective vision as the country progresses economically.
The key priority areas for STERP were to address political and governance issues and to deal with social protection issues. It was mandated to work on stabilization of the economy, increasing capacity utilization in all sectors of the economy, restoring the value of the local currency, and guaranteeing its stability. The programme was to ensure availability of adequate essential commodities such as food, fuel, and electricity and rehabilitation of collapsed social, health and education systems, and ensuring adequate clean water supply to the nation.

According to Mangoma (2009:20) in crafting STERP the government made some intensive consultations with various sectors in labour and business, this was done in order to nurture the basis of a people driven development agenda for the country. Mangoma (2009) maintains that in crafting STERP there has been the conscious need to adopt an alternative people centred, people driven and inward looking rehabilitation strategy and the need to promote production and increase capacity in key areas of the economy, in particular, agriculture, mining, manufacturing and tourism.

Mangoma (2009) emphasised that, at the end of the programme, it should have delivered more than just the basic rehabilitation of the economy. The programme was expected to lay the foundation of a basic African State that would be able to play its role in such groupings as the SADC and the AFRICAN Union, and should enable the people of Zimbabwe to have decent jobs and incomes and should ensure that hospitals, schools, churches, and community centres are once again functioning. STERP was given as a priority the mandate to resuscitate all sectors and improve conditions of service for civil services like education and health including providing incentives to attract those skilled locals who had left the country for better working conditions in the Diaspora. Mangoma (2009:21) reiterates that STERP aimed at creating an economy that is able to sustain itself through food self-sufficient, that creates jobs and employment opportunities, and with functional infrastructure, that guarantees freedom of expression and property rights, that generates hope and confidence and inter-sectoral synergies, and is totally integrated in the region and continent.
2.9 THE CURRENT INVESTMENT CLIMATE IN THE COUNTRY

The government recognised the need to stimulate investment into the country. One of STERP’s main objectives were to increase investment drive through luring into the country foreign as well as local investors who left the country for during the crisis period Mangoma (2009). Priority for new investment was focused to areas of technology to ensure that not only production capacity is enhanced but also fast track the country into a technological and industrial giant. The inclusive government instituted measures to guarantee the consistence and predictability of the country’s business environment targeted at both domestic and foreign investors. The government has enacted laws that provide investors with a conducive business environment. The collective wisdom of the inclusive government now in place is witnessed in the introduction of the multi-currency system that is credited with reducing Zimbabwean inflation from the estimated 231 million percent in 2008 to 3,5% per annum in 2010. This happened since the liberalisation of exchange control regime and the use of multi-currencies in 2009. The use of these hard currencies has renewed the focus of business on producing value and getting due reward for it. Some progressive trading concerns have started offering twenty-four hour services to take advantage of the improved and ever improving business environment. Makina (2010) explains that exchange control regulations have been relaxed to allow for repatriation of foreign funds invested and profits earned in Zimbabwe without any restrictions. Immigration laws ensure that qualifying investors get to stay in the country and contact their businesses freely. A highly sophisticated urban life provides a home away from home for foreign investors with social amenities, which now meets international standards. The opportunities of coming up with a highly trained human resource base is well supported by a 97% literacy rate in the country, a very diversified and high density tertiary education sector and a host of other ancillary technical training and research institutions. The country boasts of highly proficient human resources at all levels. Years of working in a sophisticated economy has created an experienced, educated, and highly adaptable labour force. Above all investors will find Zimbabweans generally a friendly and welcoming people (Makina, 2010:106).
The country has extensive road and railway links to all major cities and neighbouring countries and there are three international airports, in Harare, Bulawayo and Victoria Falls. The country has put in place investment and trade facilitation institutions that exist to provide comprehensive direction to foreign investors choosing to locate to Zimbabwe (Masaka, 2011:11). The Zimbabwe Investment Authority (ZIA), The Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA), and Zimtrade are all one stop shops designed to make any businessperson feel at home. These institutions are the interface between government and the investing public.

2.9.1 Sector investment opportunities
Mangoma (2009) reports that the Zimbabwean economy is agricultural-based, with highly developed forward integration links with the manufacturing sector. Mining, tourism, and services sectors are also important components of the country’s economy.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Sub-sector</th>
<th>Investment opportunities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>Agro-processing</td>
<td>Value addition to meat processing, fish processing, food processing, fruit juice manufacturing, horticulture and floriculture, cotton lint processing, cigarette manufacturing, sugar processing, milk processing, and timber processing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textiles</td>
<td></td>
<td>Cotton ginning, spinning and weaving and finishing textiles and knitting products.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clothing and footwear</td>
<td></td>
<td>Making wearing apparels and footwear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemicals</td>
<td></td>
<td>Fertilizers, insecticides, pesticides, paints, vanishes, soaps, detergents, inks, glues, polishes, pharmaceutical, industrial chemicals, petroleum products, rubber and plastic products.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wood and furniture</td>
<td></td>
<td>Sawmilling, wooden products, furniture, and fixtures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metal and metal</td>
<td></td>
<td>Machinery and equipment, radio and communication equipment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology</td>
<td></td>
<td>Information processing, computer assembly, solar technology and consumer electronics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining</td>
<td></td>
<td>Prospecting and mining of various minerals including gold, coal, diamonds, granite and platinum. Beneficiation of the minerals, for instance, cutting and polishing of diamonds, jewellery manufacturing, and tile manufacturing from black granite and quarrying and mineral exploration.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism</td>
<td>Infrastructure and</td>
<td>Construction of hotels and lodges in designated tourism zones and running and operating tourist facilities in the eastern part of the country.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>development tourism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>services</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environment</td>
<td></td>
<td>Waste management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>Primary agriculture</td>
<td>Primary production of food and other cash crops, primary horticulture, game, wildlife ranching and livestock, and poultry farming, fishing and fish farming.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructure development</td>
<td>Construction of buildings</td>
<td>Medium priced residential accommodation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public infrastructure</td>
<td></td>
<td>Commercial and industrial buildings including parks, factory shells, and office accommodation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport</td>
<td></td>
<td>Development of toll roads, building and upgrading of airports, construction of dams and bridges. Private sector public sector joint partnerships (PPPs). Build Operate and Transfer (BOT), and Build Own Operate and Transfer (BOOT) investment structures. Road haulage, tourist transport, car hire and taxis ventures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information communication technology</td>
<td></td>
<td>Construction and upgrading of telecommunication facilities, PPPs, BOT and BOOT are also welcome.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy</td>
<td></td>
<td>Building of power generation and transmission facilities, PPPs, BOT, and BOOT are welcome</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Mangoma (2009:19-20)
2.9.2 Investment incentives

The general attitude towards foreign investment is very positive in the country. All holders of investment certificates are eligible for the general incentives as well as extra special incentives in selected key sectors. Mangoma (2009) pointed out that the following general incentives apply to all foreign investors who wish to do business in Zimbabwe:

- in rural enterprises and farming general capital and investment allowances on capital expenditure a concessional tax rate of 15% and exemption from tax for the first five years on dividends received from farming,

- Self-employment or resident permit plus work permits for up to five expatriates if an investor invests at least two hundred and fifty thousand American dollars (US $250 000) and employ at least ten people,

- Repatriation of dividends and profit, principal and interest of any foreign loan, management fees, royalties and net proceeds of sale or liquidation of the business,

- Exemption from customs duty, sales duty, and VAT on all machinery and equipment imports.

2.10 SUMMARY

There is no doubt there are great investment opportunities that exist in Zimbabwe, in spite of the economic decline witnessed over the past decade. As argued by Muradzikwa (2009:25) the economic challenges faced by the Zimbabwean economy are now well known, the issue at hand as of now is how does Zimbabwe prepare itself, how does it engage with the international community and how much the country is prepared to do in order to catalyse the economic recovery. The inclusive government has been faced with the unenviable task of reversing over a decade of social and economical deterioration. It is further argued that in spite of what has been called the Zimbabwe’s lost decade the country has strong foundations on which to base
a recovery plan including excellent although neglected infrastructure and agricultural land. Some commercially viable investment opportunities in both the public and private sectors are waiting to be seized. The critical factor the Zimbabwe needs to demonstrate to the international and local community is that the country is ready to do business, so that all those investors who have adopted a wait-and-see strategy can come and seize the opportunities in time. It is the objective of this study to come up with a model that will include all players or stakeholders in the country in branding the nation of Zimbabwe so that all sectoral opportunities can be made aware to the international community.
CHAPTER 3

THE NATURE OF NATION BRANDING

3.1 INTRODUCTION
This chapter focuses on product branding in general where literature on elements and strategies of product branding is going to be reviewed. Attention will also be given to models of brand equity that were adopted for the purpose of this study. Attention will also be given on the characteristics of strong brands where literature on why people should create strong brands is reviewed.

The second part of the chapter will focus on literature on nation brand equity with the aim of linking the nation branding concept to the product branding concept. The chapter is going to cover two nation branding models, the Anholt and GfK Roper nation brand index hexagon and Hanna and Rowley’s Nation, country, place or location brand model. The chapter will also focus on reasons for a continuous measurement of nation brand equity. The third part of the chapter will focus on the relationship between nation branding and nation building.

3.2 CONCEPTUALISATION OF BRANDING
Kotler and Armstrong, (2004:234) define a brand as a name, term, sign, symbol, or design, or a combination of these that identifies the maker or seller of a product or service. Branding has become so strong that hardly anything goes unbranded. Grimaldi, (2003:1) maintains that branding is the foundation of marketing and is inseparable from business strategy, it is more than putting a label on a fancy product. It is further argued that, a corporation, law firm, country, university, museum, hospital and individual celebrity can be considered as a brand. As such a brand is a combination of attributes communicated through a name, or a symbol that influences a thought process in the mind of an audience and creates value. As branding is deeply emborded in psycho-sociology, it takes into account both tangible and intangible attributes, that is, functional and motional benefits. Those attributes
compose the benefits that the brand’s audience recalls when they think about the brand in its context. The value of the brand resides for the audience in the promise that the product or service will deliver, and from the perspective of the brand’s owner the value of the brand often lies in the security of higher future earnings, but may also be assessed in terms of votes for a politician, career for an executive and foreign direct investment for a country. According to Grimaldi (2003) branding is the blend of art and science that manages associations between a brand and memories in the mind of the brand’s audiences. It involves focusing resources on selected tangible and intangible attributes to differentiate the brand in an attractive, meaningful and compelling way for the targeted audience.

Grimaldi (2003:3) further argues that branding is important to be left to marketers only it is everybody’s business to be cost conscious as well as customer driven. In a customer-centric organisation management can be defined as a discipline of action that integrates holistically all the corporate functions to deliver systematically value to customers beyond their expectations. In branding, the successful implementation of a strategy is everybody’s responsibility. A major source of failure in the attempt to build a great brand is the lack of consistency and management among all the contact-points with the customer, in such a case, the brand message makes a promise on which the organisation does not fully deliver.

### 3.3 MODELS OF BRAND EQUITY

#### 3.3.1 Aaker’s brand equity model

Figure 3.1 shows the brand equity model by David Aaker. The model focuses on categories of assets and liabilities that make a brand, like the brand name and symbols that add to or subtract from the value provided by a product. This model acts as the baseline upon which brands are built as it shows the important common features that every brand should posses. Aaker (2008:670) defines brand equity as a set of five categories of brand assets and liabilities linked to a brand, its name and symbol that add to nor subtract from the value provided by a product or service to a firm or that firm’s customers or both.
Figure 3.1 Aaker’s brand equity model

Source: Adapted from Keller (2008:67)
The categories of brand assets are, brand loyalty, brand awareness, perceived quality, brand associations and patents, trademark and channel relationships and they form core variables for brand equity

a. Brand awareness

According to Keller (2008:67) brand awareness consists of brand recognition, which is the consumer’s ability to confirm prior exposure to the brand when given a brand as a cue and brand re-call which is the consumer’s ability to retrieve the brand from memory when given the product category, the needs fulfilled by the category. Aaker (2008:280) reports that brand awareness refers to the extent to which the brand is known among the public, which can be measured using the following parameters anchor to which associations can be attached, familiarity and liking, signal of substance/commitment to a brand and brand to be considered during the purchasing process. In relation to nation branding, brand awareness is measured by asking questions such as, how do you rate Zimbabwean brands in terms of global market positioning? How is your attitude towards Zimbabwean products?

b. Brand loyalty

Keller (2008) refers to brand loyalty as the extent to which people are loyal to a brand and it is expressed in the following factors:

- Reduced marketing costs. Hanging onto loyal customers is much cheaper than charming potential new customers.
- Trade leverage. Loyal customers represent a stable source of revenue for the distributive trade.
- Attracting new customers. Current customers can help boost name awareness and hence bring in new customers.
- Time to respond to competitive threats. Loyal customers who are not quick to switch brands give a company more time to respond to competitive threats.
In terms of nation branding for Zimbabwe brand loyalty is going to be measured through responding to questions such as, do you regularly buy Zimbabwean products? Do you have confidence in Zimbabwean products?

c. Perceived quality
Refers to the extent to which a brand is considered to provide good quality products (country of origin, made in) strategies (Keller, 2008). Product perceived quality can be measured on the basis of the following five criteria:

- the quality offered by the product/brand is the reason to buy it,
- level of differential/position in relation to competing brands,
- price, as the product become more complex to assess, and status is at play, consumers tend to take price as a quality indicator,
- availability in different sales channels. Consumers have a higher quality perception of brands that are readily available, and
- the number of line/brand extensions. This can tell the consumer the brand stands for a certain quality guarantee that is applicable on a wide scale.

d. Brand Associations
According to Keller (2008) brand associations refer to associations triggered by a brand and can be assessed on the basis of the five following indicators:

- The extent to which a brand name is able to retrieve associations from the consumer’s brain. It is gained through marketing communication programmes and advertising programmes.
- The extent to which association contribute to brand differentiation in relation to the competition. These can be abstract associations, such as vitality or associations with concrete product benefits.
- The extent to which brand associations play a role in the buying process. The greater this extent, the higher the brand equity.
- The number of brand extensions in the market. The greater this number, the greater the opportunity to add brand associations.
• Other proprietary assets. Patents, trademarks and intellectual property rights, relations with trade partners. The more proprietary rights the brand has accumulated, the greater the brand’s competitive edge in the market.

The model can be used to get to grips with a brand’s equity and get insight into relations between the different brand equity components and future performance of the brand. The customer-based brand equity model (CBBE) by Keller (2008) focuses on major ingredients for building brand equity. This model goes beyond the first model by David Aaker by looking at how a brand can be customer-based rather than producer based. The model further posits that it produces very strong brands that are able to stand any competition in the market place.

3.3.2. Keller’s customer-based brand equity (CBBE)
In the customer-based brand equity (CBBE) framework Keller (2008:638) argues that, tactically brand equity is built in three major ways. The first was through the initial choice of the brand elements making up the brand. The second way is through marketing activities and the design of the marketing programmes, and the third way is through the leverage of secondary associations that link the brand to other entities like a company, geographic region, other brand, person or event.

Brand elements are trademarkable devices that serve to identify and differentiate the brand, and they are sometimes referred to as brand identities (Keller, 2008:140). The main brand elements are brand names, logos, symbols, characters, spokespersons, slogans, jingles, packages, and signage. The CBBE model suggests that marketers should choose those brand elements that enhances brand awareness, facilitates the formation of strong, favourable, and unique brand associations, or elicit positive brand judgements and feelings. A brand element that provides a positive contribution to brand equity conveys or implies certain valued associations or responses. The criteria for choosing brand elements are memorability, meaningfulness, likeability, transferability, adaptability, and protectability. The
first three criteria, memorability, meaningfulness, and likeability form the marketer’s offensive strategy and build brand equity whilst the later three play a defensive role for leveraging and maintaining brand equity in the face of different opportunities and constraints.

a. Memorability
A necessary condition for building brand equity is achieving a high level of brand awareness. As Keller (2008) noted, brand elements that promote this goal are inherently memorable and attention getting and therefore facilitate recall, or recognition in purchase or consumption settings. In nation branding memorability measures how the Zimbabwean products bring memories back to consumers, judging their attitudes towards the products. It is measured through answering to such questions as, does Zimbabwean products bring pleasant memories to your mind? Are you familiar with products produced by Zimbabwean companies? Can you readily recall the symbols and logos attached to Zimbabwean brands?

b. Meaningfulness
Brand elements may take on all kinds of meaning, with either descriptive or persuasive content. Particularly important are the questions that, does the brand element have descriptive meaning and does it suggest something about the product category and does the brand element have persuasive meaning and does it suggest something about the particular kind of product or its key attributes or benefits, does it say something about a product ingredient or the type of a person who can use the brand.

c. Likeability
Keller, (2008) explains that, independent of its measurability and meaningfulness, do customers find the brand element aesthetically appealing, is it likable visually, verbally and in other ways. A memorable, meaningful and likable set of brand elements offer many advantages because consumers often do not examine much information in making product decisions. Descriptive and persuasive elements reduce the burden on marketing communications to build
awareness and link brand associations and equity, especially when few other brand-related associations exist. In relation to nation branding, likeability is measured through asking questions such as, would you like to own Zimbabwean products more than you would do foreign products? Do you have a liking of Zimbabwean products where ever you go?

d. Transferability
Transferability measures the extent to which the brand element adds to the brand equity of new products for the brand, in other words how useful is the brand element for line or category extensions and to what extent does the brand element add to brand equity across geographic boundaries and market segments. Largely this depends on the cultural content and linguistic qualities of the brand element (Keller 2008).

e. Adaptability
According to Keller (2008), the fifth consideration for brand elements is their adaptability over time. Due to changes in consumer values and opinions or because of the need to remain contemporary, most brand elements must be regularly updated. The more adaptable and flexible the brand element, the easier it is to update it.

f. Protectability
Refers to the extent, to which the brand element is protectable, in both a legal and a competitive sense. Marketers should therefore choose brand elements that can be legally protected internationally, formally register them with the appropriate legal bodies and vigorously defend trademarks from unauthorised competitive infringements.
Figure 3.2: Keller’s customer-based brand equity building model

**BRAND BUILDING TOOLS AND OBJECTIVES**

**CHOOSING BRAND ELEMENTS**

- Brand name
- Logo
- Symbol
- Character
- Packaging
- Slogan

- Memorability
- Meaningfulness
- Appeal
- Transferability
- Adaptability
- Protectability

**DEVELOPING MARKETING PROGRAMMES**

- Product
- Price
- Distribution
- Communications

- Tangible and intangible
- Value perceptions
- Integrate “push” and “pull”
- Mix and match options

**LEVERAGE OF SECONDARY ASSOCIATIONS**

- Company
- Country of origin
- Channel of distribution
- Other brands
- Endorser
- Event

- Awareness
- Meaningfulness
- Transferability

**CONSUMER KNOWLEDGE**

**BRAND AWARENESS**

- Recall
- Depth
- Recognition
- Breath
- Purchase
- Consumption

**BRAND ASSOCIATIONS**

- Strong
- Favourable
- Unique

- Relevant
- Desirable
- Point of difference

- Consistent
- Deliverable
- Point of parity

**POSSIBLE OUTCOMES**

- Greater loyalty
- Less vulnerability to competitive marketing actions and crises
- Larger margins
- More elastic response to price decreases
- More inelastic response to price increases
- Greater trade cooperation and support
- Increased marketing communication efficiency and effectiveness
- Possible licensing opportunities
- More favourable brand extension evaluations

Source: Adapted from Keller (2008:638)
g. Developing marketing programmes

Deals with how marketing activities in general, that is, product, pricing and distribution strategies in particular build brand equity, how can marketers integrate these activities to enhance brand awareness, improve the brand image, elicit positive responses and increase brand resonance. The focus is on designing marketing activities from a branding perspective, how the brand can be effectively integrated into the marketing programme to create brand equity. Keller (2008:186) argues that in today’s market place, there are many different means by which products and services and their corresponding marketing programmes can build brand equity. Channel strategies, communication strategies, pricing strategies and other marketing activities can all enhance or detract from brand equity. The CBBE model provides some useful guidance to interpret these effects. One implication of the conceptualisation of the customer-based-brand-equity is that, the manner in which brand associations are formed does not matter but only the resulting brand awareness and strengths, favourability and uniqueness of brand associations.

Marketers should evaluate all possible means to create knowledge, considering not just efficiency and cost but also effectiveness. At the centre of all brand building efforts is the actual product or service, however, marketing activities surrounding that product or service can be critical as is the way marketers integrate the brand into them. Schultz, Tanzenbaum, and Lauterborn (1993) in Keller (2008:187) argue that a person can encounter a brand in many ways such as, a friend, neighbour’s comments, packaging, television information, print media, and retail stores.

h. Product strategy

The product itself is the primary influence on what consumers experience with a brand, what they hear about the brand from others, and what the firm can tell customers about the brand. As argued by Keller (2008), designing and delivering a product or service that fully satisfies consumer needs and wants is a pre-requisite for successful marketing regardless of whether the product is a tangible good, service, organisation or country. For loyalty to exist,
consumers’ experiences with the product must at least meet if not actually surpass their expectations.

i. Perceived quality and value
Perceived quality is customers’ perceptions of the overall quality or superiority of a product or service compared to alternatives and with respect to its intended purpose. Sherman (1992) in Keller (2008:195) argues that achieving a satisfactory level of perceived quality has become more difficult as continual product improvement over the years have led to heightened consumer expectations.

j. Brand intangibles
Product quality does not only depend on functional product performance but also on broader performance considerations as well, like speed, accuracy and care of product delivery and installation, the promptness, courtesy and helpfulness of customer service and training and the quality of repair services. Brand attitudes may also depend on more abstract product imagery, such as the symbolism or personality reflected in the brand. Keller (2008) argues that marketers must take a broad holistic approach to building brand equity.

k. Pricing strategy
The pricing strategy can dictate how consumers categorise the price of the brand, (as low, medium or high) and how firm or flexible they think the price is. Consumers may have price perceptions that have more inherent product meaning, in particular in many categories they may infer the quality of a product based on its price and use perceived quality and price to arrive at an assessment of perceived value. Consumer associations of perceived value are often an important factor in purchase decisions. Marketers world over have adopted value-based pricing strategies thereby attempting to sell the right product at the right price in order to meet customer wishes. Choosing a pricing strategy to build brand equity means, determining a method for setting current prices, and determining a policy for choosing the depth and duration of promotions and discounts. Factors related to the cost of making and selling
products and the relative prices of competitive products are important determinants in pricing strategy but firms should place greater importance on consumer perceptions and preferences. The objective of the value-pricing is to uncover the right blend of product quality, product costs and product prices that fully satisfies the needs and wants of consumers and profit targets of the firm.

I. Channel strategy
Channel strategy refers to the manner by which a product is sold or distributed. The channel can have a profound impact on the resulting equity and ultimate success of a brand. Marketing channels are sets of interdependent organisations involved in the process of making a product or service available for use or consumption. In the CBBE model, Keller (2008:197) points out that the channel strategy includes the design and management of intermediaries such as wholesalers, distributors, brokers and retailers.

m. Conceptualizing the leveraging process
This will involve linking the brand to some other entities, some source factor or related person, place or creating a set of associations from the brand to the entity as well as affecting existing brand associations. Through making a connection between the brand and another entity, consumers may form a mental association from the brand to this other entity and consequently to any or all associations, judgements and feelings linked to that entity.

n. Effects of existing brand knowledge
According to Keller (2008:197), linking the brand to some other entity may not only create new brand associations to the entity but also affect existing brand associations. Factors to consider in predicting the extent of leverage from linking the brand to another entity are awareness and knowledge of the entity, meaningfulness of the knowledge of the entity and transferability of the knowledge of the entity. The main ways to link secondary brand knowledge to the brand are a company, country of origin, channels of distribution, co-branding, celebrity endorsement and important events.
3.4 BUILDING STRONG BRANDS

Branding means much more than just giving a brand name and signalling to the outside world that such a product or service has been stamped with a mark and imprint of an organisation, it requires a corporate long-term involvement, a high level of resources and skills. According to Kotler and Armstrong (2004) brands are more than just names and symbols, they represent consumers’ perceptions and feelings about a product and its performance (everything that the product or service means to the consumer). Furthermore, the real value of a strong brand is its power to capture consumer preference and loyalty and the power of a brand is in its brand equity. On the other hand Miller and Muir (2004:2) suggest that brand equity is the positive differential effect that knowing the brand name has on consumer response to the product or service, and a measure of the brand’s equity is the extend to which consumers are willing to pay more for the brand. A brand with strong equity is a very valuable asset to the organisation. High brand equity provides a company with many competitive advantages. A brand with high equity enjoys a high level of consumer brand awareness and loyalty and offers the company some defence against fierce competition. A brand with high equity forms the basis for building strong and profitable customer relationships. Brands can create value for the business in a variety of ways from growing and retaining market share, to attracting and retaining talented employees.

3.4.1 Nation brand equity (NBEQ)

Nation brand equity is the tangible and intangible, internal and external assets and liabilities of a nation (Belloso, 2010:6). According to Dinnie (2008:95) the internal and external nation brand equity sources are the internal assets (liabilities) and external assets (liabilities) of a country. Internal assets (liabilities) of a nation brand include factors which are durable items of national identity such as iconography, landscape and culture which are driven from specific efforts to create a health environment encouraging nation brand equity development and creation (internal commitment, support to arts and degree of loyalty). On the other hand external assets (liabilities) of a nation brand include indirect factors which are experienced through references rather that direct experience (perceptions of a country image, external representation in folk culture) and tangible projections of the country brand abroad (brand ambassadors, expatriates, brand exports).
Dinnie (2008) postulates that inborn assets are the durable items of national identity, which makes a powerful and true means of differentiation for a country brand. These items are unique and cannot be copied, they represent the sort of distinctive attributes based on what sort of brand is created. Generated assets do not occur automatically, they need to be created consciously. de Chernatony (2005:230) says that, securing internal commitment to a country brand by public authorities, the private industry and the population is a key aspect to project its image that has been often set aside. Also support to arts can stimulate cultural life of a nation and improve its reputation. The degree of loyalty by the different audiences like citizens, trade partners, international consumers of the nation’s products and services, international organisations, political parties, tourists, and foreign investors is the other key component/element of the nation brand equity. It is argued that, it is necessary to develop specific programmes to strengthen this loyalty. Indirect assets like the perceptions of a country image may not coincide with its actual image.

As suggested by Papadopoulos (2004:295) a negative image may be an exact reflection of real problems. Positive or negative stereotypes may be reproduced in books, films, music, or other cultural forms of expression. Hence, it is crucial to monitor and assess the image and perceptions of a country and manage them effectively. Bloom (1990:86) highlights that, as far as disseminated assets are concerned, countries can nominate certain individuals and celebrities as brand ambassadors. A key factor in doing so is making sure that they represent the personality of the country and the positive attributes the nation shall project. Papadopoulos (2004) counter argues that brand ambassadors are also a very effective strategy in terms of cost for countries having limited resources for marketing and promoting their brand. Furthermore, expatriates can be regarded as an already existing network of potential brand ambassadors waiting to be activated. Brand exports can play an important role in building the reputation of a country abroad, examples can be cited of Italian fashion, Scottish whisky, and Japanese electronics.

Basing upon the arguments by Dinnie (2008) it can be summed up that brand value concept can be applied to the context of country brands and that there are different sources and metrics of this brand value including internal and external assets.
3.5 NATION BRANDING AS A CONCEPT

According to Kotler; Haider, and Rein, (1993:193) place branding also known as destination branding, place marketing or place promotion is a relatively new umbrella term encompassing nation branding, region branding and city branding. The term was first developed by Kotler (2002) and could refer to a city, country or a tourist destination and to their competition for tourists, visitors, investors, residents and other resources. Avraham and Ketter (2008:43) argue that place branding is based upon a strategic approach to public relations, stating that, a change of image is an ongoing, holistic, interactive and wide-scale process, requiring more than a quick change of logo or slogan. In other words brand management for a city, country, or tourist destination does not merely consist of attaching new labels but consolidates the essential characteristics of the individual identity into a brand core. Avraham and Ketter (2008) further argued that, brand development is not a logo or a tagline, but instead a commitment to a community-wide strategy on what distinguished the community from others as well as a community-wide effort to effectively communicate and create that unique destination experience to the customer. Spieker, (2007:40) argues that as part of this holistic process, the creation of a brand sets social, economical and cultural processes in motion which can nuance, strengthen or correct others’ perceptions.

The consideration of a place as a brand has become common in many definitions of a brand, for instance, in their definition of a brand de Chernatony and McDonald (2003:65) alluded that, a brand is an identifiable product, service, person or place augmented in such a way that the buyer or user perceives relevant unique added values which match their needs closely. Caldwell and Freire (2004:50-61) argue that a place like any other product is evaluated not only by its functional aspects but also by its symbolic features, which implies a place embedded with symbolic meaning. Having a clear, differentiated positioning gives a country and advantage in attracting investment, business and tourism and in building markets for its exports. A clear positioning strategy sets out for each stakeholder group (tourists, overseas consumers, foreign direct investors) a superiority claim (how the nation is better) and the reason why the superiority claimed should be believed. Quelch (2005:229-237) argues that, as a rule of thumb, a clear positioning can be articulated in twenty words or less, for example, Singapore traditionally positioned itself as the best entry point to
Asia for Western multinationals, a position backed up by the reality that its laws, institutions and educated English speaking workforce made doing business there easy.

Moilanen and Rainisto (2009:10) argue that place branding is the management of place image through strategic innovation and coordinated economic, commercial, social, cultural and government policy. Competitive identity is the term to describe the synthesis of brand management with public diplomacy and with trade, investment, tourism and export promotion.

Country branding can be viewed as a synonym of nation branding, but however nation branding is a better term because it shows a clear understanding that it is the people who brand their country, who benefit from an improved national reputation and who truly own that national brand (Anholt (2002:229-239). Country as a brand, product, and beyond: a place marketing and brand management perspective. Kotler and Gertner (2002:249-239) reiterate, that country branding is a synonym of place branding, destination marketing and public diplomacy. They further argue that a country refers to the physical and geopolitical location of a nation or state, a region or a location with cultural or historical links, a city with a larger population, a market of various given attributes. According to Fan (2006:5-14) nation branding does not only stand for creating a new logo, slogan or brand but rather for a comprehensive process including positioning and various communication methods. The objectives of nation branding are primarily of economic nature. Selling the country basically covers such aspects as, fostering nation building, attracting tourists and visitors into the country, fostering foreign and local investment, improving exports, fostering hope about the country, its people, products and services and all that its people are good at, attracting talent into the country and creating nation competitive advantage of a country.

As Allen (2007:60-68) puts it, country or place branding activities may also be interpreted as a complex strategic and tactical merger with cooperation from stakeholder groups and the management of communication channels capable of stimulating prospective customers’ willingness and intention to purchase. Avraham and Ketter (2008:62) proposed that the strategic approach to place branding is...
connected to public relations, asserting that altering an image is a conscious, comprehensive, holistic and interactive process which requires far more than a quick and simple change of slogans and logos.

3.5.1 Corporate branding versus nation branding

Allen (2003) maintains that, corporate is defined as applied to products and services within a corporate organisational framework, differently, a place brand is defined as applied to products and services within political or geographical framework. Allen (2003) further reasons that, the concept of place branding is the need to provide clear product differentiation in an increasing competitive, globalizing market place that rests on memorability and emotional connection with consumers, delivered throughout all points of contact in the product or service value chain. Every destination has fantastic hotels, attractions and a huge number of differentiated services, thus, every country claims a unique culture and heritage, each place describes itself as having the friendliest people and the most customer-focused tourism and services and facilities. Allen (2007) however further argues that this lack of differentiation makes one appreciate even more the strategic role that place branding could have in tourism industry development. The table below shows the difference between the two entities. Hanna and Rowley (2008:65) suggest that a nation is comparatively equated to a place or location and a location is further equated to cities, towns, and rural regions all of which may produce their own outputs.
Table 3.1: Distinction between corporate and nation branding

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Corporate brand</th>
<th>Nation, country, place or location brand</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single component product/service</td>
<td>Multiple component product/service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cohesive stakeholder relationships</td>
<td>Fragmented stakeholder relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower organisational complexity</td>
<td>Higher organisational complexity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functional</td>
<td>Experiential/hedonic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual orientation</td>
<td>Collective orientation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-brand coherence</td>
<td>Sub-brand inequality and rivalry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private enterprise</td>
<td>Public-private partnerships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of overt government role</td>
<td>Overt government role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product attributes consistent</td>
<td>Product attributes subject to seasonality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibility of product offering</td>
<td>Inflexibility of product offering</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Allen (2003:60-68)

3.6 THE NATION BRANDING MODELS

3.6.1 The Anholt-GfK Roper nation brand index (NBI) hexagon

The model was developed in as a system to assess the image and reputation of countries throughout the world, as well as a tool to follow up their profiles as they develop, rise and drop in this index Anholt (2005:118). The Anholt-GfK Roper Nation Brand Index measures the strength and quality of each country’s brand image combining the six items as shown in Figure 3.3.
a. Exports

Exports determine the public’s image of products and services from each country and the extent to which consumers proactively seek or avoid products from each country-of-origin. According to Anholt (2005:1), the questions to be asked to consumers are about their levels of satisfaction with products or services produced in the country and their loyalty, usage, likeability, knowledge and memorability of products from the country. These questions measure any difference between the appeals of each country’s ‘made-in’ label and the reality of the products produced there. It is also asked what kind of products people would expect to be produced in the country. Commercial brands perform the role of transmitting national culture, they have become one of the primary vectors of national image and are more and more often the means by which people form their views about national identity. Governments which succeed in creating an environment which focuses and estimates innovation, creativity and the constant development of technology are likely to achieve a highly profitable export sector which in turn adds value to the national brand. A powerful, distinctive, broad-based and appealing national brand is the most valuable gift a government can give to its exporters, for
instance what the ‘made-in Japan’ does for electronics, or ‘made-in Italy’ does for fashion.

b. Governance

Places are judged by the part their leaders play in foreign and local activities. Governance measures public opinion regarding level of national government competency and fairness and describes individuals’ beliefs about the country’s government, as well as its perceived commitment to global issues such as democracy, justice, poverty and the environment (Anholt, 2005:118). This will help to measure how the level of corruption, political stability and public diplomacy as practised in Zimbabwe in order to ascertain the country’s nation competitiveness and comparativeness in the world market and capability to attract foreign investment into the country. Good governance can be used in the nation branding initiative for Zimbabwe to measure nation hope, nation building, and nation competitiveness. Questions asked in this regard could include, is Zimbabwe consistent in implementing rule of law? Does Zimbabwe promote a favourable environment for peace, equal opportunity, and economic viability for all the inhabitants of the country?

c. Culture and heritage

The country’s capital of a nation’s heritage, history, culture, and geography is often well known but inefficiently or inadequately channelled into added value or sellable assets (Anholt, 2005). Culture, heritage, and sport give a place richness, dignity, trust, respect abroad, and quality of life at home. Culture and heritage reveals global perceptions of the country’s heritage and appreciation for its contemporary culture, including film, music, art, sport, and literature.

d. People

Anholt (2005) maintains that, one channel of communication that is equal to the huge task of communicating the complexities and contradictions of a place to the global market place is its people. This concept measures the population’s reputation for competence, education, openness, and friendliness and other qualities as well as perceived levels of potential hostility and
discrimination. When each ordinary citizen, not just diplomates, the media and politicians, becomes a passionate ambassador for his/her home country, positive change can happen. The human factor of the nation is really the country’s main source of intangible value. The skills, abilities, values, and behaviour of the people are its primary resource. If they are not part and parcel of the nation branding initiative especially from the onset the people will not accept the campaign, and this will lead to failure of the effort. People as stakeholders should have a stake in the nation branding process.

e. Tourism

It is the most visibly promoted aspect of the nation brand, since most tourist boards spend lots of money on ‘selling’ the country around the world. Tourism is the biggest spender and most competent marketing force. The touristy idea of the nation creates a visual image of the country which may impact many other areas of the nation’s performance, for instance foreign investors may well be influenced in their choice of country by tourism images. Tourism has been the most active sector in Zimbabwe, it concentrated on branding tourist destinations and events such as the Victoria Falls and Great Zimbabwe Ruins and the Miss Zimbabwe pungent. Tourism should combine efforts with other sectors identified in this study as key contributors to the initiative so that there can be a holistic approach to the nation branding initiative.

f. Investment and immigration

Determines the power to attract people to live, work or study in the country and reveals how people perceive a country’s economic and social situation. Anholt (2005:2) argues that many of the best examples of rapid growth have happened because certain places became magnets for talent, investment, and business ventures. A reputation for plentiful intellectual capital invariably attracts more of the same, creating a virtuous circle of accelerating quality and innovation. A powerful and consistent place brand can help create positive preferences and get places on the right short list. To benefit the nation branding initiative the country must do enough to attract investors into the
country, and attract talent especially its own people who left the country during the 2000-2008 decade due to hardships the country went through.

As reported by Bloom (1990), due to inspiring leadership from central government, all of the stakeholders or main actors in the nation branding effort share a common vision of the country's future and its current identity and achieve some degree of harmonisation between their actions and communication there is a far greater chance of the country's image fairly and positively reflecting its present reality. This is because the international audience is only likely to form a coherent and positive opinion of the country if the majority of the images they receive from it are broadly aligned.

3.6.2 The Hanna and Rowley’s nation, country, place or location branding model
The nation, country, place or location branding model by Hanna and Rowley (2008) (Figure 3.4) argues that a destination brand denotes the tourism dimension of a place. According to Hanna and Rowley (2008:65), a nation is comparatively equated to a place or location and a location is further equated to cities, towns, and rural regions all of which may produce their own outputs. The model illustrates the hierarchical relationship between place and its associated vocabulary encompassing a range of brand dimensions including destination brands (leisure tourism).

Hanna and Rowley (2008:64) argue that the general supposition that a destination brand denotes tourism dimension of a place is widely accepted, but however, the complexity of identifying a single destination is complicated by the fact that a destination may include several towns, cities, or municipalities, other government provinces or even an island. Surely, the form of geographical entity does not limit the scope of destination branding, provided a direct association with tourism is established, although it has been noted that, destination branding has been fused with nation branding. Anholt (2005:116) argues that, it is perceived that, the components of nations, defined as, a country, especially when thought of as a large group of people living in one area with their own government, language and tradition, such as tourism, agriculture and entertainment, can be individually promoted and sold, but by definition, nations are unlikely to have a single target market or offering. Papadopoulos and Heslop (2002:296) further suggest that companies such as
General Motors and Procter and Gamble offer various distinct products to the market, so do countries produce outputs that consists of products, services and actions of their governments, exporters and industry associations.

**Figure 3.4 Nation, country, place, or location brand model**

Source: Hanna and Rowley (2008:65)

Lodge (2004:33) states that when referring to the importance of nation brands in relation to countries, the reference is in the context of country outputs, which in the context of tourism is a destination brand. Lodge (2004) further suggests that, if destination branding (tourism only) is well established, the same can not yet be said of what might be termed location branding, which may include any or all of investment, exports, tourism, education, culture, sports, events and attracting back experts and skilled manpower and imports. Morgan (2006:12) also asserts that a location brand implies the branding of a composite construct, a place therefore, comparatively and by implication a nation can equate to a place on a smaller scale,
while a location is a place in as far as places are defined as cities, towns, and rural regions, all of which may produce their own outputs.

3.7 MEASURING OF NATION, COUNTRY, PLACE OR LOCATION BRAND EQUITY

Competition between nations is global, competition for skillful workforce, direct foreign investment and business (DFI), tourism income and opportunities influences the field’s public diplomacy and forces places to develop their attractiveness and marketing, to promote their uniqueness (Moilanen and Rainisto, 2009:10). Moilanen and Rainisto (2009) maintain that the most important factors to consider in measuring nation attractiveness are culture, environment, social development, the place’s atmosphere, and the images related to its brands. As stated by Moilanen and Rainisto (2009) these factors will measure how a country is perceived regarding the quality of its products and services, how interesting the destination or residence is considered to be, what kind of business opportunities are available and what kind of factors exists in the fields of politics, economics, or diplomacy. These factors may all be linked to one brand as they will help in creating and maintaining a strong countrybrand that will in turn bring benefits to each of them. It is further argued that a professionally run nation brand campaign attracts business, investment, a skillful workforce, inhabitants and visitors to the target areas.

As determined by Moilanen and Rainisto (2009) a strong country brand must attract business and investment, promote the goal of the tourism industry, promote public diplomacy, support the interests of the exporting industries, and must strengthen national identity and increase self-respect. In line with Moilanen and Rainisto (2009), Morgan (2006:14) suggested that creating a nation branding programme needs integration, cooperation and coordination. It is necessary to create a comprehensive analysis and a picture of the country’s products, ‘spirit’ and the strengths of its identity, and to use them to stand out in the world in a motivating way. Other critical challenges in the process are, for example, securing comprehensive long-term financial resources, political will, making the interest groups committed, solutions of identity, paying attention to the experts and cooperation on a public/private level (public-private sectors partnerships). The brand equity model by Aaker (2008)
includes five main categories which increase the value of branded products. Places can also benefit from this model, since it focuses on the most central strategic issues in marketing planning, which can also be applied by place marketers in their work. The model’s factors of brand equity are, brand awareness, brand loyalty, brand image, perceived quality brand associations and proprietary rights. Each of these factors brings more brand equity and has to be tied to the brand name and symbol.

Perceived quality is one key issue for decision making for place customers. An innovative reputation of a place provides credibility. Perceived quality is a major driver of customer satisfaction, and is the key positioning dimension for a corporate brand, when functional benefits can not play a decisive role. Place brands resemble corporate umbrella brands and can benefit the value of a place’s image. Favourable perceived quality of a place’s offerings differentiates the place from its competitors and improves the customers’ perceptions. Moilanen and Rainisto (2009:12) argue that the creation of perception of quality for a place is impossible unless the quality claim has substance in the major attraction factors. The perceived quality may differ though from the actual quality, when the the customers’ perceptions and motivations are changing rapidly.

Brand equity is influenced by brand images that are connected with brand awareness and brand loyalty. Images can be based on a product, user, operational situation, quality and price. Basing on a communication point of view brand images, brand loyalty, and brand awareness are essential in creating brand equity. Moilanen and Rainisto (2009) put it, a good place image needs good communications, good operations and substance, since image is the reality it needs to be supported by good operations. Communications give promises, and operations fulfill these promises. Promises of good communications are, reliable, desirable and unique. They are the factors that are important to the target groups, and they differentiate a place from its competitors. The main idea is to emphasize the place’s recognisable face, and this can happen in several ways including the name, logotype, printed material, business gifts, as well as image advertisements, sponsorship, media publicity and public relations events. Ashworth (2010:49) argues that brand identity is the active element in a place’s marketing process, which makes use of integrated marketing communication, and
brand image is its passive counterpart. The image of a place is a result of complex long-term activities, which can build the unique character of the place. Image is not easy to copy like any activities of the operative marketing mix. The image is the real experience of the target customers.

3.8 NATION BRANDING VERSUS NATION BUILDING

Nation building is a generic term that refers to the process of constructing or structuring a national identity. This process aims at the unification of the people within the state so that it remains politically stable and viable in the end. Eaton (2002:46) defined nation building as a social process of transforming an underdeveloped, poor and divided society into a community with peace, equal opportunities and economic viability within which individuals enjoy dignity, basic human rights, and the prospect to observe their own religion, tradition, culture and language in harmony with other people who function within other traditions. Eaton (2002) further argued that the whole community should be involved in this process. Bloom (1990:55) also argues that the process of nation building attempts to forge or create a nation after gaining independence, after divisive civil wars or civil conflicts, it seeks to provide distinct understandings of national constructs, redefining them in ways that are more broad and inclusive. Like in nation branding citizens must participate wholly in nation building since they are the custodians of their own problems and government should be guardian that provides resources and protection to solve these problems. According to Eaton (2002:47) The objectives of nation building and nation branding are similar in that they try:

- g. To establish a fully representative government and set environmental conditions that promote economic growth and individual prosperity
- h. To establish security, social order, and rule of law
- i. To create hope, confidence and pride in the nation’s capabilities.
- j. To establish institutions that would support social and economic development.
- k. To promote reconstruction of local and regional reconciliation and integration.
1. To enhance unity and cooperation and construction of a new broad, united national identity among citizens and the international world.

Basing on the arguments above it can be summarised that nation branding is a process that leads to nation building and both processes share some common features in how they are executed and what they try to achieve.

3.9 SUMMARY
A nation can increase its profile on the target markets through a strong nation brand, which is based on identity of the nation. Professionally managed country brands attract companies, investment, investments, talented people both residents and foreigners into the country. Various dimensions of nation brand are exports, governance, culture, people, tourism, and investment, whose effects are, good public diplomacy, the interests of the export industry, enterprises and investors, destination marketing and the identity and self confidence of the citizens of the country (Anholt, 2005). Success factors of nation branding include commitment of the various players, wide level of participants, focusing on own resources, good formulation of the core-idea, different and unique positioning and identity, long-term financing, clear organisational structures and coordination, strong public-private partnerships, united and consistent message and avoiding political elements to be dominant (Rainisto, 2009:29).
CHAPTER 4

NATION BRANDING OF SELECTED COUNTRIES

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In an increasingly complex and tightly linked world, not only companies but also countries are engaged in competition at every level. Anholt (2002b:59-60) states that globalisation is turning the world into a gigantic supermarket where countries compete to stimulate exports, attract tourism, foreign direct investment (FDIs), and immigration. Governments are turning to branding techniques to differentiate their countries on the global stage in order to establish a competitive edge over each other. Yan (2008:170-9) argues that, nation branding also restores flawed international credibility, increase international political influence and stimulate stronger international partnerships. As many countries have gained awareness of the importance of their brand, they have adopted country-branding projects. A few have enacted laws to promote their brand and established special organisations charged with coordinating private-public partnerships. Some outstanding countries have carried out nation branding initiatives. In this study, cases are going to be drawn from European Union, the former Yugoslav countries, Asia and Africa regions.

4.2 NATION BRANDING OF THE FORMER YUGOSLAV STATES: SLOVENIA

This part of the case study is dedicated to nation branding for former Yugoslav states, which include Slovenia, Croatia, Serbia, and Montenegro. However, for the purpose of this study, the focus is going to be given to Slovenia. Hall (2002:323) argues that pre-1989; Yugoslavia had developed a successful tourism industry, which projected a particularly welcoming and positive image of the country to the world. The subsequent political fragmentation of Yugoslavia and the conflict between some of its former component parts both destroyed a positive unitary image and reversed the important development of tourism. The emergent independent states had to put their Yugoslav and communist past behind them, establish a new national identity based on historical elements and inspire confidence for investment in economic reconstruction. According to Hall (2002) during the first half of the 1990s
as conflict traumatised various parts of the Yugoslavia, economic development and, especially, tourism were put on hold. With relative stability having been restored, at least to Slovenia and Croatia by the mid 1990s, these nations were confronted with questions of image re-construction for the purpose of securing investment, gaining acceptability into the European Union and encouraging tourism development.

Hall (2002:328) argues that Slovenia is a unique country, which occupies a small surface, with a pure nature, diverse culture, and remarkable life quality. Slovenia offers a great array of landscapes, cultural influences and possibilities for spending holidays on a relatively small land surface. It is easily accessible due to its central position in Europe, a relatively cheap destination, a country with welcoming people (a very low rate of complaints) and ideal for tourists in search of relaxation, adventure and successful reunions.

According to Hall (2002), the first country branding campaign for Slovenia was launched in 1986 whilst it was still part of the former Yugoslavia. “SLOVENIA–MY COUNTRY” was a campaign that was immediately accepted by local inhabitants. One of its goals was to raise national awareness and self-esteem of locals. The slogan “Tourism are people” encouraged inhabitants to market Slovenia to foreigners, and this fostered their involvement in the branding process of their country. Faced with the need to establish both an individual national identity and suitable vehicle for attracting both established and new western markets Slovenia adopted ‘The Sunny Side of the Alps’ as a national tourism promotion strapeline embodying positive attractions of climate, topography and contiguity with Western Europe.

Martinovic (2002:315-22) maintains that ‘The Sunny Side of the Alps’ strapeline was replaced by ‘The Green Piece of Europe’ following Italian objections in the mid 1990s. According to Martinovic (2002) in both cases Slovenia tried to reinforce its national image as a member of the Western Civilised Europe family by emphasising a fashionable, politically stable and, ecologically friendly ethos, its Central European character, Habsburg Heritage, Alpine association and contiguity with Austria and Italy and total disengagement from any Balkan connotations. The Slovenia Tourism Board was established in 1996, its stated mission firmly intertwined with national
political and tourism aspirations to promote Slovenia as a country with a clear and distinctive identity, clearly defined comparative and competitive advantages thereby assisted the Slovene economy by marketing its tourism in a concrete manner. Hall (2002:329) says that in its 1997 marketing its plan, the Tourism Board began to promote the country’s tourism resources in terms of five-sector cluster; coast and karsts, mountains and lakes, health resorts, cities and towns and the countryside. A new logo was developed which incorporated four flower heads (green, yellow, red, and white) breaking out of a blue square base adjacent to the name Slovenija

The campaign (including slogans and logo) was in use for a period of ten years. It was well perceived by locals and foreigners. In 1996, the logo and slogan were changed. A bundle of flowers replaced the linden leaf, which was in use until 2006. The bundle of flowers logo was not well accepted by locals, but it was positively adopted by tourist workers, since they used it in promotional activities for a decade (Ruzzier and Petek (2012:465).

According to Ruzzier and Petek (2012) during the ten-year period, slogans were frequently changed. In not more than an 8-year period, there were attempts to use at least five slogans, among which the slogan “The green piece of Europe” was used most commonly. In 2004, with the accession to the European Union, a new campaign and slogan “Slovenia invigorates” was introduced. This campaign represented the first attempt to establish a brand and slogan not only in the field of tourism, but also in other areas. The campaign was discontinued in 2006, since people, both locals and foreigners, had difficulty in understanding both the campaign and the slogan. All marketing activities during this period were primarily focused on and oriented towards foreign markets and not to local inhabitants. According to Hall (2002:328), Slovenian promotion emphasised on niche segmentation within an environmentally friendly framework, such as the integration of gastronomy and tourism in promotions for ‘wine journeys’.

Szondi (2006:15) argues that, in 2007, a large-scale project for building the country brand of Slovenia was implemented. The new project differed from past country
marketing activities primarily in the following two aspects: brand development was carried out from an identity perspective and aimed at the brand's long-term survival. All relevant stakeholders of the country participated in brand development and implementation, thus paving the way for its long-term survival and success. The government approved the "I feel Slovenia" brand logo. The brand emphasis was on the key elements of national identity, expressing a view of the country. Popescu (2009:155) reports that, the mission of the 'I Feel Slovenia' brand logo was based on protecting nature, promoting a niche economy, accepting diversity, attracting the best technological and human potential. This was present on all promotional materials, including brochures, artifacts, souvenirs, curios clothing, sports and recreational ware.

Many studies (Konecnik & Go, 2007; Ruzzier & de Chernatony, 2009; Ruzzier & Petek, 2012) agree that the new Slovenia brand was not built merely for tourism purposes, as it had been the case in the past, but instead strove to embrace all important parts of Slovenia. The following key areas were included, the economy, tourism, culture, science and technology, sports, government and the civic sphere. In order to gain important feedback on the topic, all crucial stakeholders were invited to take part in building Slovenia’s brand identity. Target groups such as opinion leaders from key areas, representatives of key areas, and the largest target group - the residents of Slovenia were invited to participate actively in the brand development.

4.2.1 The Core of Slovenia’s Brand

Hall (2002) explains that, the Slovenia green is more than just a colour; it is “Slovenian green,” expressing the balance between the calm of nature and the tenacity of Slovenians. It speaks of unspoilt nature and their focus on maintaining it that way. It symbolises a balance of lifestyle that joins the pleasant excitement with which they pursue personal desires with the common vision of moving forward with nature. Slovenian green also describes the nation’s focus on the elemental, on what they feel under their hands and talks about the balance of all senses with which they experience Slovenia. Slovenians do not remember their country through images only, but combines the smell of a forest, a babbling brook, a surprising taste of water, and the softness of wood. Slovenians are tenacious of the things they enjoy doing. They focus all their energy on those activities and achieve what could not be
achieved by individuals who perform their work routinely and without style. They are active, always in motion, and always focused on things that are dear to them. Their activities are often manifested as diligence and orientation towards productivity, they would like to go back to work on things that are dear to them or achieve a set goal as soon as possible. Slovenians do not hide their desire for recognition and praise for their work. However, in their desire to receive praise they will not forget their principles.

In addition to family and health, responsibility is one of their main values. Responsibility manifests itself in their attitude towards themselves, others, and the environment. They are attached to their local environment despite individualistic approach to life. They speak foreign languages but they regard their own language ‘Slovene’ as a value that connects and differentiate them from the rest of the world, it makes them Slovenians. Slovenians are individualists and are supportive of individuals pursuing their personal desires. They do things that are dear to them in a way that encourages even an accidental visitor to be actively involved. They gather in associations and like the company of foreigners. They desire to show that they care, are proud of their country and they want foreigners to feel at home and praise it too. Slovenia encourages diversity and sings about cohabitation of individuals and nations. The care for development of individuals’ interests enables a balance of inhabitants and a coordinated development of society, which is reflected in the Slovenian quality of life. They accept individuals with their interests; they are a safe and citizen-friendly country. They consider the quality of living more importantly than material wealth. They have a shared vision. They move forward with nature, each in their own way but in the same direction.

Slovenians perceive culture and arts in an elemental way. Culture is a part of the Slovenia people and is a choice of each individual. They are a nation of artists, as arts and culture is not only a domain of institutions but also of people and their daily life. Slovenians are one of the few nations worldwide whose statehood and national affiliations were based on culture and arts. Culture is a part of their organic development and they respect it. It connects them and fills us with pride. Everybody is an artist. Every one of us feels that the Slovenian character is closely linked to culture. Every Slovenian is some type of artisan or artist (a poet, painter, cook,
dancer, winemaker, musician, actor, director, blogger, and wood-carver) or something else entirely. They make art from things that are dear to them. Consequently, cultural involvement has many faces but they all reflect pride towards what is created. With art, Slovenians fulfil desires. Art is where respect for everything they make with their hands, for the elemental, originates from.

In the Area of Science and technology, Slovenian science is niche-oriented, which is understandable because Slovenians achieve the biggest breakthroughs in the areas that are dear to them and to which they consequently dedicate their lives. Slovenian science is therefore a diverse palette of achievements in areas that Slovenians enjoy. Slovenian development of science contributes to maintaining what they value most – Slovenian green, a clean environment, and a balanced lifestyle.

Slovenians excel in sports, as they connect it with the quality of life of any individual. They discover natural limits, by skiing where nobody has skied before, climbing where nobody has climbed before, swimming where nobody has swum before and cycling for distances that others have never done before.

The unified use of the Slovenia’s logo contributes to establishing a uniform image of Slovenia and increasing the recognition of its nation brand in general. Its logo is a global identification symbol of the nation of Slovenia. Slovenians do not present the country’s brand only with billboards, advertisements, and brochures, but primarily through personal contact, with experiences that they offer to everybody who meets them.

As Hall (2002) puts it, the experience of these former Yugoslav nations provides an intriguing and diverse exemplification of attempts at nation branding to respond to new political and economic circumstances and the close interrelationship between national identity and tourism branding. It also provides economic and political re-imaging requirements, especially in relation to foreign investment including the tourism industry and related services, and the country’s role in the global market. Bralic (2005:635) proposes that part of the escape strategy from the past and its images employed by Slovenia has been to diversify away from mass coastal tourism and emphasise the uniqueness of cultural and natural resources. This entailed an
implicit shift in geographical emphasis to promote the country’s interiors. Rural and nature tourism were in the forefront of this thrust, with professional marketing undertaken by local and central governments, non-governmental organisations and private sectors. Many rural areas were branded in the promotion of traditional, ‘idyllic’ portrayals of timeless sustainability.

4.2.2 Nation branding challenges faced by Slovenia

Ruzzier and Petek (2012:465-484) emphasises that, the most powerful country brands in the world have at least three characteristics in common. They have a long history, their economy and standard of living is very high, and all of them have a stable political environment. Ruzzier and Petek (2012) further argue that contrary to countries that have strong brands with high equity, a number of countries have yet to find the appropriate ways to present themselves on the world map and build strong nation brands. These include transition and developing countries from Central and Eastern Europe, African continent, and Asian countries that were marked by the changes from the communist regime, colonialism to the formation of their own democratic states. Many studies, (Hall, 2002; Hughes & Allen, 2009; Konecnick, 2004; Szondi, 2007) maintain that, these countries have been faced with comparable challenges when branding and marketing their country abroad.

According Ruzzier & Petek (2012:471) country brand development in the region of Central and Eastern Europe is mainly focused on visualisation and symbolism. National tourist boards, which generally become guardians of country brands, are therefore concerned about developing logos, slogans and other design elements. Logos either contain country names in English or in their own language, the sun, sea, sky, flowers, mountains, and hearts are the most commonly used country symbols. Logos, on the other hand, mainly reflect the colours of their national flags.

According to Hall (2002) nation branding in this former Yugoslav nation confronted at least two major constraints, which were the lack of adequate finance to support appropriate marketing campaigns (a common trait) was exacerbated by limited experience of global markets and a lack of appropriate expertise on part of the locals. In a post-conflict context where rapid recommendation and re-imaging was sought, tourism destination marketers were pressured into return short-term results
where long-term investments was required to build consistent nation brands. Szondi (2006:8-20) argues that since countries from this region tend to employ highly similar country images, their campaigns have not been as successful as they expected.

In the light of previous findings, Szondi (2006) defined the most common challenges and mistakes in nation branding in Central and Eastern Europe as, late beginning of country branding. He also pointed out that, country promotion depends on political interests and is taken as a short-term thinking. There is lack of coordination among organisations responsible for country branding and lack of both financial and human resources. Lack of strategy and continuous development, no differentiation among diverse countries, slogans, and messages are too general and old-fashioned, too much advertising and lack of public relations messages and country images are not credible and transparent and local people do not identify with the brand and do not support it.

An analysis of the short Slovenian history and its brand development, leads to the conclusion that, the majority of mistakes in country branding in Central and Eastern Europe, as stressed by Szondi (2006), also affected Slovenia. Pointing out only the most important challenges Szondi (2006) states that lack of strategy and the absence of continuous development evident in short-term thinking; too frequent slogan changes, which were, at least in the recent period, were too general and did not differentiate Slovenia from its competitors very much. The emphasis based on advertising, while other marketing tools were not used enough. Lack of knowledge about effective nation branding; in the period of the last ten years, local people did not identify with the brand, nor did they support it, which was one of the reasons for the frequent changes in separate marketing activities and campaigns. Excessive and too frequent changes (mostly in slogans) were met with opposition and negativity, as Slovenian residents felt that future attempts of brand development would fail.

However, these challenges were an eye-opener for the Slovenia government as it recognised that the country did not only need a new slogan and logo, but also a real and systematic branding strategy to be followed in future management and marketing activities for Slovenia. The government also realized that the role of local
inhabitants or residents in the nation branding process is extremely significant. Many studies (Morgan, Pritchard and Piggot, 2002 and 2003; Szondi, 2006) stress that, the success of the country brand highly depends upon the active participation and identification with the brand of local people, who could be treated primarily as an internal, but also as an external interest group.

4.3 BRAND KENYA INITIATIVE

Kenya is a beautiful and wonderful country with many prospects and assets to attract visitors, investors and the living conditions of citizens are better. Kenya nation branding initiative is a national project that is run by the Brand Kenya Board. The government of Kenya established The Brand Kenya Board in 2008 with the mandate to ensure that an integrated nation brand is formed, harnessed and sustained for a long term. Gaya (2009:5) emphasises that, emanating from this mandate, the board established a two-prolonged approach to nation branding for Kenya. Firstly they built a national identity that fosters pride and patriotism in every Kenyan. Secondly, they improved Kenya’s international image and restored confidence in Kenya among foreigners be they visitors, tourists, investors and development partners. This is in recognition of Kenya’s competition with other countries in the world for investment, tourism, bilateral relations and attraction of all other factors of production.

According to Gaya (2009:5) nation branding for Kenya began with a national diagnostic which was done in September 2009. That led to the development of a nation branding master plan for Kenya. Some of the programmes undertaken to date include, citizen education and attitude change programme. This programme focused on internal branding and the main guiding principle was that, the attitude and disposition of the citizens are crucial to the effective nation branding initiative. A range of programmes were rolled up through the mass media and stakeholder dialogue forums to foster positive attitude among the Kenyans, and sense of nationhood, patriotism and social cohesion amongst citizens. Some of the campaigns include ‘wakati ni sasa’ which means ‘the time is now’ focused on the youths who form a critical mass in Kenya. There were some campaign programmes in the rural areas that targeted primarily those in the rural areas of Kenya. There
were two thematic campaigns with two rallying calls, ‘let us shape our identity’ and ‘what does Kenya mean to you’

Kenya Diaspora programmes whose key stakeholders were Kenyans living abroad were also held. According to Gaya (2009:10) among the key stakeholders of the Kenya brand in the Diaspora are Kenyans in themselves. The Brand Kenya Board is working with the many Kenyans living and working abroad on initiatives to improve Kenya’s image. The Board recognised the the resourcefulness of the Diaspora and planned to tape their skills, knowledge and experience to enhance the country’s socio-economic development. Forums for various Kenyans living abroad were held on a continual basis. The Brand Kenya Board also involved foreigners living in Kenya in the brand process. The branding initiative was under the tagline ‘Kenya my second home’. This focused on expatriates working in Kenya. Gaya (2009:30) reiterates that, Nairobi houses the headquarters of many international organisations and corporations which employ people from all over the world. The expatriates have developed love for Kenya such that some of them settle in Kenya as permanent residents. These expatriates are considered as key Brand Kenya ambassadors through their referrals. Thu, Kenya, as a nation benefits from the resourcefulness of these expatriates, especially in information dissemination in investments climate and business opportunities in the country as well as through employment-creation for the local workforce. Kenyan industries and the economy in general benefit through technology, skills, and expertise transfers from these foreign businesses. Kimutai (2009:1) suggests that, Kenya should thank President Barack Obama for free publicity. During his inauguration in 2009 and before the world, Obama saluted the ‘small village’ where his (Kenyan) father was born. According to Kimutai (2009:1), Obama has three things that one wants in a brand. He is new, different, and attractive. Kenya should take advantage of this new, different, and attractive brand.

Kenya is known for its athletes, coffee, art, music, spectacular wildlife, and therein lies an opportunity to share with the world goods and services from the home of the first United States of America African-American president. Kimutai (2009) further argues that Obama has broken the ground and creating a buzz about Kenya should not be difficult. It is now easier to sell anything Kenyan in any part of the world. All exports should be clearly branded Kenyan. Foreign investors and local people in the Diaspora should not waste time but consider options and opportunities for them to
come and settle and do what they can do best in this lovely country. It is against this background that the Brand Kenya Board decided to use the welcome to Kenya: the birthplace of Barack Obama tagline in their promotion of the country to the Diaspora.

The Brand Kenya Board also works with other institutions in the country in order to create a believable and unified nation brand. Companies join hands in developing national campaign programmes that are inclusive in nature and speak with one voice to the international world to ensure that the brand Kenya was coordinated with all its stakeholders.

4.3.1 Observations from the Kenya nation branding initiative
One major strategy by the Brand Kenya Board was the involvement of all stakeholders who mattered most when it comes to nation branding. The involvement of locals and foreigners is fundamental to the nation branding process. Key stakeholders in nation branding exemplify the brand and thus need to be involved from the outset in the development of the brand identity and communication of the brand values. A unified strategy across the sectors will bring about a single-minded vision and goals among all the stakeholders. A unified nation brand gives citizens a rallying point around which to develop their talents, express their hopes and aspirations, and marshal their strengths to exploit national, regional, and global opportunities. This will drive the nation towards nationalism and patriotism. Nation brands should be holistic in their approach. Most countries focus on destination marketing, in which they focus on attractions of tourists only. However, for nation branding to gain the required brand equity, the Brand Kenya model can be useful as nations are encouraged to rope in culture and heritage, people, tourism, government, trade, and immigration. These are the factors that make the Kenya model a success and could be applied to any other country especially Zimbabwe.

4.4 BRAND SINGAPORE: THE HUB OF NEW ASIA
Singapore is a tropical island city-state in South-East Asia. It has no natural resources, and a physical size of only about 680 km². Its population is made-up of three official ethnic groups, Chinese, Malay and Indians (Ooi, 2004:242-260). According to Ooi (2004), Singapore is also the most economically developed country in South-East Asia. As a former British colony, English is one of its four official
languages, and is frequently used as the country’s Lingua Franca. Yeoh and Chang (1998:101-115) states that tourism is one of its largest foreign exchange earners. However, the tourism industry growth is uneven and faces frequent threats. Many of these threats stem from the fierce competition in South-East Asia. Bangkok, Kuala Lumpur, Jakarta, and Manila are all lively neighbouring cities that are also vying for tourists. The 11 September 2001 attacks in the United States of America, the 12 October 2002 Bali bombing, the war on Iraq and the outbreak of severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) in the early 2003 played a great role in bringing the tourism industry in the South-East Asian market to its knees. It was the duty of the Singapore Tourism to see the nation through these crises. The Singapore Tourism Board (STB) was formed as part of the national master plan to meet competition, restructure local tourism business and creates new products for the Singapore tourism industry (Yeoh & Chang, 1998).

The “New Asia-Singapore” brand was formed in 1996. The brand provided a vision for the Singapore tourism industry that extended beyond the city-state. The STB did not limit its tourism promotion activities to the island city-state only; it realized Singapore as the tourism hub of the Far East and Australia, a region running from China to New Zealand. The STB also visualized Singapore as the tourism capital of South-East Asia, and as the capital, all tourists should visit or pass through Singapore whenever they are in the region. The ‘New Asia-Singapore’ brand embraces this regional vision and strategy. The brand also provides a focused market direction for the country as a stand-alone destination. The board wants the world to perceive Singapore in a particular way, experience Singapore as New Asia and make Singapore New-Asia. Many parties and agencies were involved in realizing the ‘New Asia-Singapore' brand and the brand was re-launched constantly, through supplementary campaigns to create constant global awareness of Singapore as the economic hub of Asia (Ooi, 2004; Yeoh & Chang, 1998).

According to Henderson (1999:525-534), nation branding for Singapore is an evolving one as the strategies and taglines change under new circumstances. The ‘New Asia- Singapore’ provides a clear vision on how to repackage and reinvent the country. It aims to generate new interests, new products and new possibilities for the country and the region at large. ‘New Asia-Singapore’ is promoted regularly, through
special campaigns. For instance, when it was first launched, it was promoted with the tagline ‘So-easy-to-enjoy, so-hard-to-forget’. At the turn of the millennium, the promotion campaign was ‘Millennium Mania’ as the country celebrated and welcomed the new era. Soon after the 11 September 2001 attack in the United States of America, which led to the slowdown in the global tourism market, STB initiated the ‘Live-it-up’ campaign and immediately after the World Health Organisation removed Singapore from its SARS black list in May 2003, STB launched the ‘Singapore roars’ tagline. Such campaigns were tactical, during which specific markets were targeted, special events organised and certain attractions were highlighted. In these campaigns, colourful images of ‘New Asia-Singapore’ were promoted aggressively throughout the world. Advertisements were found in international news magazines, on global television networks and on the internet. Today the ‘New Asia-Singapore’ brand presents Singapore as a melting pot of Eastern and Western cultures. The brand is a response to the overwhelming presence of modernity and development in the city-state. The new Asia can be found in the Singaporean lifestyle, food, music, and various attractions. It is the sum total of the way they live, work and think, and their products are an expression of all this. The brand expresses the essence of today’s Singapore; a vibrant, multicultural, sophisticated nation where tradition and modernity (East and West) met in harmony, a place where they could see and feel the energy that marked ‘New Asia-Singapore’ the exemplary of the dynamism of the South-East Asia region. The New Asia-Singapore brand is also a vision; it generates new tourism products forms perceptions and images for visitors by focusing the attention of tourists on selected delightful things in Singapore.

The STB also works with other state agencies and stakeholders to enhance Singaporean street and cultural life. Henderson (1999) argues that, the Board is working with Chinatown, Urban Redevelopment Authority, Land Transport Authority, National Heritage Board and National Parks Board. They reintroduced street markets, put up Chinese road signs, set up a heritage centre, sprucing, and linking up pockets of green in the area. At the height of the SARS crisis, the Board launched a campaign with the tagline ‘step out’ with the aim of asking residence to step out of their homes and have fun in a socially responsible way. The step-out programme was aimed at stimulating the tourism industry and the belief was that the return to
normalcy and vibrancy in the local scene was a precondition for the return of leisure travellers to Singapore. There were also establishments of Singapore Arts Museum, the Asian Civilisation, and the Singapore History Museum. These are now central cultural institutions and are prominent tourist attractions of Singapore. These are part of the STB’s plans to make Singapore New Asia, a regional cultural centre and a global city for the arts.

Ooi (2004:251) point out that, the ‘New Asia-Singapore’ brand was not only promoted globally, but it was also subsequently introduced to the local population. While the nation branding process aimed to make Singapore into a unique and attractive destination the process was also understood within the country’s broader regionalization plans. Instead of trying to draw tourists away from neighbouring destinations, the STB wants tourist to visit these destinations and Singapore. STB (2000) reported that the ‘New Asia-Singapore’ brand images compliment the exotic images of neighbouring countries. The brand informs on Singapore’s modern infrastructure and shows the future face of Asia. Brand Singapore asserted itself as the center and capital of the region, particularly South-East Asian nations (ASEAN). The aim was to combine its unique big city appeal with the complimentary natural historical and cultural attractiveness of neighbouring destinations in order to create a stronger, collective tourism product that benefits all parties.

According to Ooi (2004), Singapore has been relatively successful in seeking regional cooperation from the ASEAN. ASEAN consists of Brunei, Burma (Myanmar), Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam. Besides offering accessibility to the region, Singapore acts as the tourism capital and representative of the region, especially in the field of art and culture. Singapore cultivates the art business by inviting famous artists to perform, holding crowd pulling exhibitions and providing good infrastructure for artistic expression. The country promotes business in auctioneering, museum ownership, and management, professional and support services. The country aimed to demonstrate a new Asian confidence and build an Asian renaissance city. It wanted to be an Eastern counterpart to Western art cities such as London and New York.
The other strategy employed in order to make Singapore into the tourism capital of the region was to extend Singapore's help to other nations in the region. Singaporean tourism-related companies developed tourism infrastructure and helped to manage tourism attractions around the region within the ASEAN framework. In 2001, the STB and Tourism Authority of Thailand organised an investment seminar to boost tourism investment in Thailand (STB, 2000). Through promoting outward tourism investments, Singapore tourism-related companies like hotels, attraction operators, and transport services tapped into the region's tourism resources and drew attractive investment returns back into the country. These investments developed and improved regional tourism attractions and infrastructure and established close links between these destinations and Singapore.

4.4.1 Challenges faced by the nation branding of Singapore initiative
The nation branding process involves more than producing a slogan or a visual, it is neither even nor plain sailing. Ooi (2004:252) argues that for the STB to meet its branding objectives it had to face and overcome some challenges. The first challenge was in the use of the brand to shape the world’s image of Singapore. To focus the mind of the world towards imagining Singapore in the promoted brand images, and to spread and make the campaign more credible, the STB sought good publicity from the international mass media, travel agents and travel reviewers. However, in the image economy, a good brand communication strategy will face constant challenges from other perception-shaping sources. The branding authorities can neither control all aspects of the destination nor all the messages sent out about the country.

According to Kotler, Armstrong, Wong and Saunders (2008:287) formal messages in the marketing of places is ‘uncontrolled communications’ and can be overwhelmed by other sources of information (for instance, from the mass media and stories from friends). (Ooi, 2004; Yeoh and Chang, 1998) were all in agreement that, as Singapore was branding itself as the New Asia, other nations within the ASEAN were also busy branding themselves. This almost confused the world as they also came up with almost similar taglines. For example, Malaysia claims to be ‘Truly Asia’; South Korea is ‘Sparkling’; India ‘Incredible’; Thailand ‘Amazing’ and ‘Everything is More Fun’ in the Philippines.
The second challenge that the STB faced was convincing local stakeholders to participate in the nation branding initiative. There was divergence away from the brand in the local environment as it was biased towards tourism and destination marketing. The brand and its values were selected after lengthy meetings and discussions with different regional and local tourism authorities, tourism businesses, tourism attraction managers, and the analysis of tourists’ expectations and their experiences in Singapore. Such a seemingly democratic process in selecting the brand did not lead to a unanimous decision for the brand as other key stakeholders were left out (Ooi, 2004; Yeoh & Chang, 1998).

The third challenge was mobilizing non-tourism businesses. The STB did not do enough to encourage non-tourism businesses contribute towards the nation branding process. Non-tourism businesses should have been used to communicate and promote the brand, because the brand is supposed to tell the world about Singapore in its entirety and not just its tourism. The key objectives of nation branding and public diplomacy are usually export promotion, the attraction of inward investment, tourism promotion and an increase in international influence. A strategic approach to nation branding and public diplomacy needs to go beyond facile slogans. Rather, countries should adopt a policy of stakeholder engagement to ensure that the nation brand was founded on an inclusiveness that allows the full richness of the country’s identity to be expressed in diverse ways to multiple audiences (Ooi, 2004; Yeoh & Chang, 1998).

4.5 CHALLENGES OF NATION BRANDING FOR ZIMBABWE

Despite the advantages of destination branding, there are a number of challenges and lessons that can be learnt by nations intending to carry out the initiative. Most of these challenges were related to financial, political, and environmental issues. According to Szondi (2006) the most common factors that affect most nations in their nation branding initiatives, could also affect Zimbabwe are:
a. Lack of financial and human resources

Szondi (2006:12) argues that most tourism destinations have limited budgets and yet they are expected to market globally, competing with other destinations as well as other global brands. It is further argued that, the failure to acquire adequate funding for branding, and promotion activities may render the brand obsolete. These factors can also be said for nation branding, lack of adequate funding for nation branding and country promotion will render the whole exercise obsolete. To overcome this challenge Szondi (2006) argues that nation branding and country promotion should be more innovative, creative and use less expensive and long-term tools such as public relations.

b. Lack of understanding of nation branding

The most obvious challenge that is most likely to affect nation branding in many countries is lack of full understanding of what nation branding is all about among some senior government officials, politicians and and the general public. They might also not understand the expected end result of the nation branding initiative. Nation branding needs to start with a clear understanding about what it should be and how it will deliver sustainable nation competitive advantage.

c. The domestic audience is not behind the brand because they are not explained or they do not support it

The context and relevance of the project should be explained to the citizens as brand ambassadors long before launching any nation branding campaign.

d. Politicising nation branding initiatives

Because nation branding is politicised, it becomes the victim of domestic politics, especially when there is no agreement among the different political parties about how and by whom the country’s reputation should be managed abroad. Szondi (2006:17) argues that the Hungarian Country Image Center was abolished once the new government was formed in 2002. It is also argued that, when the current government in Estonia came into power in 2003, it also decided to stop the funding of the Branding Estonia Project.
because it was deemed too expensive, and also because the wife of the former minister of foreign affairs headed the branding project. In Zimbabwe there is a fight between political parties for key positions such as the provincial governors, the central bank governor, the attorney general and share of control for the key ministry of home affairs. These could lead to a situation where party politics takes precedence of national development initiatives such as nation branding.

e. Lack of continuity and strategic approach
In many countries the newly elected governments erase the efforts of the previous governments, resulting in discontinuity of previous governments’ national programmes like nation branding and other country promotion programmes. Soon after, the new governments also realise that there is an image-problem abroad and tries to set up initiatives and develop new strategies to deal with them. Another barrier to continuity is the high staff-turnover and professionals as many of those who would have developed or worked on the project at the beginning are long gone,

f. Negative branding and negative media coverage
The aim of negative branding is to discredit countries or regimes, to create negative images of other countries or governments or to create crisis situations. This can be a common issue in the current Zimbabwean environment as the political parties in the inclusive government would oppose each other for the purpose of opposition and focus of the main issues. Negative media coverage plays a crucial role in shaping investors or tourists’ attitudes and perceptions about a particular nation. Negative coverage about a country, its government and politicians are not rare phenomena although countries react differently depending on the nature and extent of the negative issues covered. Negative media coverage can influence investors as well and even jeopardise any nation branding initiatives. The coverage of Zimbabwe as a country by international media has never been positive. These media would concentrate on the negative side of events, never reporting of those issues where the country has been getting it right. Negative covered negated negatively influenced tourists and investors perceptions about the country.
g. Lack of transparency and evaluation

Nation branding and country promotion budgets often come from the central governments’ budgets, from the taxpayers’s money. That is why it should be clearly explained how the money is spent and the whole project should be transparent. Project evaluation during and after any campaign is also of crucial importance.

h. Short-term effects and thinking rather than long-term

Some elements of nation branding are more visible and easier to measure (such as the number of tourists visiting the country) but creating strong nation brands can easily take decades and is a slow moving process. Governments, especially before national elections can also use results of nation branding and nation promotion as justification for their own success to impress voters. In this regard the government strives for short-term and visible impacts from nation branding.

4.5.1 Addressing the challenges of nation branding

A nation can be faced with some or even all of these challenges, but that will not mean the end to the nation branding initiative. Simply initiating a nation branding and country promotion campaign do not combat the basic challenges mentioned above that influence the public’s current image of a country. It is important to have a holistic strategy that includes understanding the current state of a nation brand, identifying the many factors that influence it, developing a strategy, implementing that strategy and tracking progress over time. Kotler et al. (2008) pointed out that the steps to be followed in formulating a nation branding strategy include understanding the current state of the nation brand, identifying factors that affect the nation brand, identifying where the nation want to be in a given time, developing a strategic plan on how to get where the nation wants to be in given time and tracking progress through brand evaluation programmes.

Kotler et al. (2008) admits that most country images are in fact stereotypes. It is important to identify the multi-factors that affect people’s perceptions of a nation. It is argued that the one approach for systematically considering the different mechanism is Anholt-GfK Roper hexagon, which includes the six main factors they have
identified as affecting the nation brand. The six factors on the hexagon that affect the nation brand are tourism, export brands, foreign and domestic policy, investment and immigration, culture and heritage and people.

After the SWOT and strategic analysis, it is important to set realistic, objective targets for the nation branding initiative. According to Kotler (2002:65), to be effective, the desired image must be close to reality, believable, simple, appealing and distinctive. In order to be distinctive, a brand must be properly positioned in the market place. Kotler and Keller (2006:85) defined positioning as the act of designing the company’s offering and image to occupy a distinctive place in the mind of the target market. The desired imagery must also be relevant and appealing to target audiences and believable for the country making that image claim.

Tactics for implementing nation branding strategy include the appropriate use of logos, slogans, advertising, public diplomacy and public relations. These alone will not necessarily change a nation brand image but they can create awareness of a claim, but do not always lead to its acceptance. Anholt (2008:22-23) says that brand management should be treated as a component of national policy, such as internal (within-country) communications and policy changes are often required. It is further argued that for governments to properly coordinate these activities, many have set up dedicated ‘brand management offices’ for example in Abu Dhabi the capital city of the United Emirates, created an office for the brand in 2007. India created a partnership between its Ministry of Commerce and Industry, its national government and the confederation of Indian industry to join forces as the Indian Brand Equity Foundation (IBEF).

Studies and indexes, along with export statistics, tourism numbers and changes in FDI or political standing can be used to determine the progress of a nation branding campaign. The Anholt-GfK Roper nation brands index, a quarterly ranking of people’s perceptions of a nation, can also be referenced to measure changes in a country’s image in relation to other countries. In addition, follow-ups to focus groups, research studies and surveys can be conducted by independent research organisations.
After setting the nation branding strategy there is need to implement the strategy. As Anholt (2008) has acknowledged, places are intensely complex and often contradictory so much that the branding strategy might work in one country and not work in another, there is no-one-size-fit-all element in nation branding. According to Augustine (2009:4), the following best practices can help nations in articulating their nation branding strategies and overcome most common nation branding challenges:

The basic idea is not to over promise or try to make a country appear to be something it is not. Anholt (2004:213) argues that marketing teaches us that people cannot be deceived for long, but the higher you raise their expectations, the more completely they reject your offering when they are disappointed. Anholt (2004) argues that no country benefits from being seen as a violent, corrupt, oppressive, dangerous or even a dull nation, but however that is the reality for many country images. Countries are contaminated by their role in the world especially if it involves conflict. Violence, political instability and corruption not only make it difficult to change perceptions, but instead can also interrupt efforts to put forth a new image.

Since countries have existed for centuries, brand managers are not starting from the bottom with the brand. As a result nation branding is extremely challenging. Kotler (2002) also argues that most countries have hired nation branding specialists and consumer research companies to apply their expertise in nation branding in order to overcome bad nation brand image. They have used surveys, focus groups, and case studies to understand the current state of their brands and nation image and those of competing nation brands. Countries have also analysed indicators such as tourism, foreign direct investment (FDI), export promotion, media coverage and talent attraction to determine the adequacy of current state positioning. The most important questions to be addressed in the case of Zimbabwe include, what feelings does a label such as ‘made-in-Zimbabwe’ evokes into the minds of consumers? How would you describe the people of Zimbabwe? If Zimbabwe was a person, what kind of a person would it be? If you were invited into a home in Zimbabwe what would it be like?
4.6 SUMMARY

Nation branding is a long-term exercise and is about the soul of a country’s stakeholders from politicians to citizens, businesses and art organisations, tourism bodies and economic development agencies must be involved from the outset. Without their buy-in and enthusiastic support, the country is unlikely to punch above its weight on the international stage. Everyone must be encouraged to recognise the contribution a unified national brand can make to the country’s competitiveness and comparativeness. Governments who have to pay a lion’s share in developing a nation brand, have little interests in developing nation brands because they are unlikely to be around to reap the rewards of a nation brand. Worse still, their successors (often opposition) will probably claim the glory. Strong and well-respected brand advocates are needed to overcome this limitation and persuade politicians as well as citizens and businesses of the long-term benefit to the country of the national brand. Citizens must be comfortable with the image of their country that their national development agencies such as the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority, Zimbabwe Investment Authority, and Zimtrade convey. One of the effective way of leveraging the value of a national brand is to ensure that products from the country scream to potential purchasers that they come from your country, as long as the values and norms associated with the country are positive and compatible with that particular product.
CHAPTER 5

THE THEORETICAL MODEL OF PERCEPTIONS OF NATION BRANDING FOR ZIMBABWE

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In order for nation branding for Zimbabwe to be successful and effective, it needs to represent all of its key stakeholders. According to van Gelder (2011) in Dinnie (2011:36), engaging and connecting key stakeholders in nation branding strengthen the nation brand beyond what the stakeholders could achieve individually. Such an approach will enable Zimbabwe as a nation to build upon all of its strengths and to align and involve all of the stakeholders in its nation brand development. The importance of a collaborative stakeholder approach has been acknowledged in the context of companies but many studies suggest it has now been recognised as fundamental to the successful branding of places and nations (Hankinson 2009:97; Mitchell, Agle and Wood 1997:853; Parent 2007:1-36; Skinner 2005:299-315).

Governments often consider themselves as the owners of the nation brand and concentrate their efforts on getting their departments aligned first. This, according to van Gelder (2011) leads to situations in which other key stakeholders not consulted, and feel left out of the loop and uncertain about what to do. In other cases, various stakeholders may take it upon themselves to define their particular brand for the nation. However, this is also ineffective as it culminates in various and unaligned sectoral brands like, a tourism brand, an investment brand and a cultural brand in the case of Zimbabwe. In this study, focus is upon who constitutes an inclusive and effective nation branding partnership for Zimbabwe and how they can be organized in such a way that they take joint and harmonized responsibilities for the development and execution of the nation branding strategy. In this chapter, the selected variables and their influence to nation branding will be discussed.

5.2 THE MODELLED INFLUENCES OF NATION BRANDING PERCEPTIONS

The key element for nation branding for Zimbabwe that guided the formulation of the conceptual model in this study is the involvement all stakeholders who can help shape the future of the country. The study argues that, the investments that they
make in the development of the nation, the actions they take and the communications they put out are all vital elements of how the story of the nation would be informed. It in this study the belief that nation branding requires partnership between key stakeholders shape and more importantly, implement a nation brand strategy is considered. As van Gelder (2011) puts it, nation branding is a strategic endeavour that requires the partners to commit their efforts and resources together towards changing people’s minds about their nation. It is advocated in this study that the nation branding partners need to agree on a shared vision for the future of the nation and should agree on taking shared responsibilities for making that future a reality. It should be clear; from the start what is it that each partner expects from the nation branding process. Each partner’s agenda must be tabled and expectations and objectives must not remain hidden, as hidden agendas destroy trust amongst partners and hinder the ability of the partners to work together effectively.

5.2.1 The entertainment industry

Entertainment is a humanistic discipline that draws and engages people in order to invoke emotional response among them and these emotions can be both positive (pleasing) and negative (displeasing). Moss (2010:4) defines entertainment as something that can engage or captivate an audience through sensory stimulation, which invoke an emotional response amongst that audience. Merrian-Webster (2008:65) argues that historically the word entertainment has served a number of definitions going back to five hundred (500) years many of which are now obsolete or rarely used. Current and relevant definitions of entertainment include those that offer interest or amusement.

Entertainment can be found in a plethora of guises, from that which is intentionally provided for an audience such as a stage show, to one of nature’s spectacles such as flocks of migrating birds. The common factor between these two examples is that they are both capable of diverting the attention of an audience, that is, captivating in an amusing or agreeable way. The key difference is that, a stage show is put on with the specific intention of captivating an audience, whereas flocks of birds do not migrate with the intention of captivating an audience. They are just doing what comes naturally to them, but because they do not see this phenomenon regularly, it is novel and has the ability to be captivating. An audience through the degree at
which often measures the quality of entertainment, it invokes an emotional response among the audience.

An industry is a number of firms that produce similar goods and services and are in competition with one another. According to Kotler et al (2008) an industry describes a specific group of companies or businesses that work towards a common purpose. They further argue that internally an industry involves inputs (finance, raw materials and human capital), process (production, packaging and marketing), and outputs (primary, secondary and tertiary products that are both tangible and intangible). The collection of bodies that exists globally, and provides products that have the primary purpose of engaging or captivating an audience is the entertainment industry. The entertainment industry also refers to people or organisations that provide, operate or engage in amusement and attractions and entertainment exhibitions.

Moss (2010) argues that the entertainment industry is vast as it encompasses eighteen (18) unique sectors which are; staged story and variety, music, bars, pubs and clubs, cinema and film, broadcast media, audio-visual media, the internet, gaming, printed media, commercial gambling, spectator sports, thriller-tainment, edutainment, sellertainment, culturtainment, spiritual entertainment, health entertainment and adult entertainment. Within each sector of the entertainment industry, there are a plethora of sub-sectors providing thousands of types of entertainment products. Vogel (2007:281) argues that the accumulated worth of all of the sub sectors of the entertainment industry makes it the largest industry in the world, generating more revenue than any other industry. The entertainment industry continues to grow as the world is becoming more industrialised and recreation-seekers have greater amounts of both time and disposable income to spend on entertainment. (Vogel, 2007) noted that the number of sectors within the entertainment industry will increase in number in the near future as tastes change, technology advances and products diversify, producing new specialism. The entertainment industry is a very important sector of the economy, it creates employment, giving hope to people in the grassroots, for it has an outreach capability more than any sector in the economy of any nation. It is a serious contributor to nation building.
The entertainment industry is the wider location in which audiences interact with entertainment provided by entities within the industry sectors and sub-sectors. Leiper (2000) maintained that there are nine distinctive entertainment environments, which are the contained resort environment, the coastal environment, the cruise ship environment, the home environment, the mobile environment, the online environment, the rural environment, the transport environment and the urban environment. These environments are all unique in their nature, through size, make-up or physical/virtual presence and sometimes a combination of these attributes. Some types of entertainment are more pre-dominant in particular environments than they are in others. The entertainment and tourism industries share common attributes, which make it very difficult to draw the line between them. For the purpose of this study, the entertainment industry is going to cover sports tourism, cultural tourism, and hospitality.

a. Sports tourism

Sports tourism includes travel to and participation in or attendance at a determined sport activity. According to Turco et al (2002:3) the sport activity can include competition and travel for recreation, entertainment, business, education or socialising, the sport can be competitive or recreational. They further argue that sports tourists are those people who visit a destination with the primary objective of direct participation in or for just viewing a sport event, for instance sport tours that could include a package of world cup games with accommodation, transportation, food and other types of entertainment. Sports tourism can also include fantasy camps where adults spend a week or more in camping sites for purpose of watching sports. Types of environments where sports tourism can occur include human settings such as stadiums, museums and cruise boats, social settings such as bars, restaurants and hotels, economic settings such as trade shows and conventions, natural settings such as mountains, lakes, beaches and rivers and cultural settings such as rodeos in Texas and bullfights in Spain.

Tourism is a recreational activity carried out in leisure time away from home over a limited period. According to Mill and Morrison (1992) in George (2008), tourism is the activity that takes place when tourists visit. It involves every
aspect of the journey from planning, the journey to the destination, the period of stay, the return journey, memoirs, and recollections of the journey. Also, include activities undertaken by the tourists, purchases made, communications, and exchanges between locals and tourists. On the other hand sport refers to physically oriented activity guided by an organised format and rules that are imposed by participants or an organised body that represents the sport. Baade (1996:1-16) urges that the goals of sport are usually to beat an opponent, compete against a standard of performance, or achieve a predetermined goal. Sport-tourism is regarded as a route to national development, international cooperation and integration and cultural exchanges.

Figure 5.1: The theoretical model of the study

Gold and Gold (2008:300-318) mention that, sports and tourism have a knock-on effect, once infrastructure for one in an area has improved it attracts the other to the area, for instance when hotels are erected sporting facilities such as golf courses and stadiums move in to the area too. According to Gold and Gold (2008:318) many people find indirect employment such as like ice-cream manufacturers and farmers who produce or grow food crops to sell to
hotels and restaurants, crafts people in the fine arts industry for producing tourist souvenirs, health care and retail shops selling sportswear and equipment also develop in the tourist areas. Sports tourists can help to maintain local cultures by paying to see and enjoy aspects of a region’s cultural diversity, such as its local crafts, arts, dance, music, and history (Mitchell 1995:8-11).

Due to its huge economic impact and great outreach capabilities sport tourism can be a major contributor to nation branding for Zimbabwe. Horne (2007:82) says the economic impacts of sports tourism are classified into two main classes, the primary or direct impact and indirect or secondary impact. The primary or direct impacts occur in transactions closely related to the event. Indirect or secondary impacts occur within the chain of events that result from the direct effects. Direct economic effects are geographically distributed throughout an economy because sport tourists often make purchases during various stages of their trip. Purchases are made at home in advance of the trip, en-route, at or near the sport site, on the return trip and at home upon return. Indirect effects are likely to take place far from the location of direct effects due to inter-regional industry linkages. An economy may import goods and services from many areas thereby scattering portion of the direct sport tourist transaction across the globe.

The sports tourism impacts have a multiplier effect to the economy, in that, a local economy comprises many businesses that buy and sell to each other. The multiplier coefficient takes into account the interrelationships of businesses within a designated economy. The basic idea of the multiplier is that direct tourist spending in an area does not stop as soon as the income has been spent. A portion of the tourist spending re-circulates through the local economy before leaking out to pay for basic purchases elsewhere. The multiplier coefficient will be higher where a greater portion of spending is in the sectors with strong links to other industries and businesses such as lodges, curios, and souvenirs shops, and other services supported by visitor spending. Gold and Gold (2008:320) argue the benefits of sports tourism that the nation branding initiatives can take advantage of the increased access to
sports via increased supply from sports providers and the awareness generated by popular media sources covering the sporting events. There is increased access to sport for segments of the population who were underserved, including women, girls, minorities, individuals with disabilities, there are substantial gains and increases in per capita income thereby increasing access to sport, and there is an increase in employment creation and poverty alleviation.

Sports tourism can also serve as a supplemental, secondary, or peripheral attraction within host communities, that is, the primary reason for visiting the place is not sports but other types of attractions. While visiting a destination tourists visit a sports attraction to supplement their activities or to fill time between other planned activities. Sports, as a supplemental or secondary attraction, can be used to further satisfy visitors’ needs, extend their length of stay in the host community and stimulate economic activity. In many cases conference and convention sites are purposely selected by virtue of their sporting facilities such as golf courses, tennis courts and recognised sport events (secondary attractions) that will entertain visiting delegates after their business is complete. (Black, Essex, and Essex, 2004; Bent, Bruzelius and Rothengatter, 2003)

Baade (1996:15) argues that sports tourism has also been used to heal political wounds and promote ideologies, for instance, the United States of America and China used Ping-Pong diplomacy to thaw the cold war between them, and wrestling was used to promote dialogue between the USA and Iraq. Furthermore, boxing matches in the 1970s such as ‘Rumble in the Jungle’ and the ‘Thriller in Manila’ was used to enhance the international profile of Uganda and the Philippines respectively.

Prior to democratisation, the former Soviet Union prevented its athletes from participating in foreign contests fearing that, they might seek political asylum and thus defect to the host nation. Similarly, Cuba, protective of its national baseball team, determined the international contests the team may play according to the government’s relations with the host nation and the perceived
threat of player defection. On the same background, Zimbabwe pulled out of the Common Wealth organisation owing to her relations with Britain and consequently all Zimbabwe athletes were banned from competing in any Common Wealth managed sports.

Varrel and Kennedy (2011:1) identify mega-events as those events with a global audience. The mega-events include the World’s Fair, the world cups of various sports, regional athletic contests like Asian Games, the Olympic Games, All Africa Games, and the Africa Cup of Nations (AFCON). Kurtzman and Zauhar (2003:234) also define world sport tourism events, as those sport activities that attract tourists of which a large percentage are spectators. They explain that the events offer business opportunities and contribute to local development goals; they are viewed as instruments for local development. Tassiopoulos (2005) emphasises that world events are a strong component of sports tourism that draw people from different places and are becoming an integral and major part of nation branding and marketing strategies by nations to attract investment into the country. In Putnam (1993:89-98) it is argued that mega events bring cooperation which in turn will contribute towards building social capital. Social capital refers to features of social organisation such as networks, norms, ties and trust that are transferred from one social setting to another.

As determined by Eberl (2008:1-4) before the 2006 FIFA Soccer World Cup Germany was a different place. A nation so plagued by self-doubt, unemployment, down-trodden, Germans lost hope for their country and refused to invest in property and automobile. Worst of all, the German national soccer team had crushed out of the first round of the European Championship, the Bundesliga was riddled with match fixing involving players and managers and xenophobia had gripped certain areas of Eastern Germany such that politicians were advising people of colour against entering so called no-go-zones. The big question today is how did Germany manage to make such a dramatic turnaround in branding fortunes? It was also argued that Germany’s world cup promise ‘A time to make friends’ was born out of the heartfelt attempt by Germans to shake off the decade-old image of being
conservative, cold and boring and to prove to the world that Germans can be great hosts too.

The FIFA Soccer World Cup bestowed the Germany national psyche with the long lost emotion of nation hope, pride and self confidence, which spilled over to the image of ‘Brand Germany’ effectively replacing the old image of being dull and dour to a new one of being friendly, open, modern and innovative. This newfound sense of self worth is clearly a main contributor to Germany’s victories in sports and movies. The euphoria created during the world cup has now spilt into other sporting disciplines where Germany teams scoop high honours, the Germany handball team won the world cup, the Germany biathlon team won most gold medals at the biathlon world cup and Germany’s racing ace, Niko Hulkenberg won the A1 Grand Prix. In 2012 Bayern Munichen played in the finals of the European Union Football Association (UEFA) Championship as the hosts of the finals in Germany.

According to Eberl (2007) after the soccer world cup, the Anholt-GMI third quarter 2006 listed Germany as the second most valuable country brand in the world up from the seventh in 2005. Tourism bookings increased, investor confidence increased, exports were up by fourteen percent (14%) year-on-year and all the teams in various sport disciplines improved their game.

b. Cultural tourism

Cultural tourism are the tourism trips that satisfy the human need for diversity, tending to raise the cultural level of the individual. UNESCO promotes cultural tourism as a means of preserving world heritage, the African states see cultural tourism as a support for national identity and a vital means of economic support for traditional activities and local creativity. Richards (2007:2) argues that cultural tourism is arguably the ‘good’ form of tourism for the destination, which avoids many of the pitfalls of conventional tourism while offering additional benefits in the form of high-spending tourists who are keen to support culture. Cultural tourism is also available as a development option to all destinations, because all places have culture.
As the demand for culture grows in society, there is also growing pressure on the government to support more and more cultural facilities. Rising education levels enable more people to access culture, while the effects of globalisation create more interest in distant cultures as well as local heritage. One of the main reasons for the previous growth of cultural tourism has been increased participation rates by higher education through educational trips.

Cultural tourism, because of its supposed connections with a search for authenticity and meaning, is usually seen as a more serious form of tourism. Ibid (2007:4) argues that rather than the simple aimless pleasures of mass tourism, the cultural tourists are those who go about their leisure in a more serious frame of mind. Cultural tourists use their leisure time in more serious and constructive mind. They attempt to surpass their idle or inactive leisure time and aim to go back augmented with knowledge of places visited, people met and relationships formed as well as cultural values learnt. The growth of township tourism in South Africa can be cited as an example. The townships, a cruel manifestation of the policy of apartheid, have now become tourist attractions as tourists visiting new South Africa seek a glimpse of what daily life is like for marginalised by the system. Cultural tourism maybe seen as a form of ‘suspension’ in which the tourist travels within a cultural frame of reference that is an extension of home while seeking an experience of the ‘other’ (Richards 2007:7).

According to Smith (2009:100) any cultural destination has endowed core resources that form the basis for attractions. Places interested in developing or expanding their cultural tourism should consider the question ‘does the destination have adequate cultural resources and assets to create a marketable cultural value, product or destination. Destination managers should evaluate the resources’ strengths and weaknesses as primary inputs to cultural tourism.
According to Richards (2007:170) the most common resources to most cultural Tourism destinations are, archaeological, palaeontological, and historical sites. Archaeological, historical and cultural sites including cultural and national monuments, historical buildings, important religious buildings such as churches, synagogues, temples, mosques and places of historic events such as major battlefields. Museums and galleries house collections of a location’s cultural heritage. Architectural features, buildings and other built features give many places a specific character that attracts tourists. Distinctive cultural patterns, traditions, and life styles that are unusual from the tourist’s perspective and in some cases, unique to one place are very interesting to tourists. These cultural patterns include customs, dress, ceremonies, life styles and religious beliefs and practices. Arts and handcrafts, include performing art forms, such as dance, music and drama and the tangible arts of painting, sculpting, weaving and wood carving. Cuisine and beverages, will include distinctive ingredients and local recipes for food and beers that form part of the intangible heritage of a place. Many tourists enjoy eating food that is characteristic of an area. Areas are reviving traditions of food and drink production and beer brewing as part of developing a strong sense of place for tourists and local residents. Regarding performing arts, some destinations are known for their performances of contemporary culture, which include traditional dance forms and music, plays, operas and concerts. Many tourists are attracted to special cultural festivals such as art festivals, music festivals and music galas and religious festivals.

The role of culture in promoting a country is often thought of as problematic. Governments acknowledge that there is clearly some kind of requirement to represent the cultural attainments of a country, but there is a general concern that they do not sell, or provide return on investment in the same way that inward investment, exports or tourism do. So, culture becomes relegated to the status of a not for profit activity, a kind of charitable or philanthropic obligation (Anholt 2007:97).

Culture plays an essential role in the process of enriching a country’s brand image, from driving the process from the initial shorthand of media
communications towards a fuller and more durable understanding of the country and its values. Anholt (2005:136) points out that, culture is the rich harmonic accompaniment to the simple accessible and easily memorable melody of commercial competitive advantage. Anholt (2005) further posits that one can whistle a country’s commercial brand and not its cultural counterpoint, but the commercial brand is worth very much less without culture. According to Anholt (2005) another of the values of culture in nation branding is that each culture, like geography, is a truly unique feature of its country. Presentation of a country’s culture provides the country’s image with an all-important quality of dignity, which, arguably commercial brands can do without, but countries cannot.

Unless a country can build its culture as a body of understanding and powerful brand in the mind of its worldwide audience, then it faces a daunting and costly process of constantly re-establishing its right to be noticed and remembered (Anholt 2005). In the mind of the consumer, culture also works in many ways as a metaphor or personality and people deduce a great deal about the inner qualities of a nation through its cultural enterprises. According to Anholt (2005), the cultural aspect of a national image is irreplaceable and uncopiable because it is uniquely linked to the country itself. It is reassuring because it links the country’s past with its present, it is enriching because it deals with non-commercial activities and it is dignifying because it shows the spiritual and intellectual qualities of the country’s people and its institutions. Hall (2004) in Morgan and Pritchard, (2004:111) says that, culture is a more eloquent communicator of national image than commercial brands. Brands in any case will always have their own commercial imperatives, and will, only comply with the official country branding strategy as long as it helps their sales. The communication of culture, by contrast, can be agenda-free as it is mess fully not answerable to the tyranny of Return-On-Investments (ROI), and its stakeholders usually ask for nothing more than fair and truthful representation (Kozak and Baloglu, 2011:52).

On the basis of, de Chernatony and MacDonald (2005:133)’s argument, culture is not an invariably unprofitable activity, which always need external
funding in order to exist. Many cultural activities are profitable and marketable products in their own right. National and international cultural events such as concerts, exhibitions, trade shows, competitions and festivals can enrich the perception of a country while paying their own way. de Chernatony and MacDonald (2005) further argue that many businesses view sponsoring cultural events as the ideal means for promoting their own status as cultured, philanthropic, intelligent, and cosmopolitan corporate citizens. As de Chernatony (2010:165) put it, any disciplines where art and business meet have the potential to be effective carriers of cultural messages, for example, the creative industries like graphics, product and packaging design, advertising, music, television and radio production, magazines and book publishing.

As laid down by Anholt (2005:139) promotional messages about certain aspects of the national brand like tourism, or way-of-life are often more readily believed and accepted when the channel of communication itself is a cultural artefact rather than paid-for media. The effectiveness of the channel as Anholt (2005) puts it is because consumers are adept at recognising and discarding paid-for promotional messages. Consumers will naturally give more credence to objective, third-part endorsements through independent editorial or literary comment and also the use of rich cultural channels of expression that carry their own authority and persuasiveness which other channels can rarely achieve.

Moilanen and Rainisto (2009:35) posit that, adding culture and heritage to the nation branding mix is simply one way of ensure that all conversations between nations does not descend into mere advertising and that there is still cultural exchange on a global scale, and sharing of insights and learning. According to Moilanen and Rainisto (2009), all nations have a shared responsibility to engage in cultural exchange.

Zimbabwe as a nation now needs to reassess the manner in which it identifies itself and communicates its identity to the world in the light of their changing populations. It is one of the biggest tasks facing the government today and it
is an acute challenge for the way in which competitive identity can be
developed. Culture can play a critical role in Zimbabwe in moving the current
image of the country towards a more positive one. As Anholt (2007:101)
argues that, culture is the necessary component in order to make the image of
any place properly satisfying, especially in the case of countries that suffer
from an image that is largely based on tourism. Anholt (2007) maintains that
culture is the next-door of tourism and it is the area that can start making a
connection between people’s interests in the place itself and their interests in
the life of the place. A rich cultural life makes a complete place rather than just
a tourist destination, a place worth visiting at different times of the year, a
place with a broader social appeal particularly to the higher end, higher
yielding, somewhat older and usually well-behaved visitors, that most tourist
destinations (Dinnie 2011: 38).

Zimbabwe has a range of cultural attractions to offer the visitor in the form of
historical and heritage sites and annual cultural events that can be used to put
a new lens in front of the country and start to change the people’s minds
about the kind of a country it really is. Anholt (2007:102) states that rather
than the sort of cultural event that the people visiting the country might want to
include in their itinerary, what places really need are the kinds of events that
will give people a reason to go to the country in the first place. Creativity is
what makes the difference between enjoyable events that play a role in
enhancing the place, and events that create their own market, events that are
magnetic and make the place a destination in its own right. What Zimbabwe
needs are people with the imagination, the ambition, creativity and the energy
to make these extraordinary things happen. These people need the
encouragement, moral and financial support from government to help them
think creatively and action their creative ideas, in short, the country needs to
build a spirit of creative entrepreneurship.

c. **Hospitality**

George (2008:21) argues that the term hospitality is being used more and
more in place of the phrase ‘hotel and catering’ or accommodation and food
and beverage services because it can be expanded to cover all offerings to
the consumer away from home, including travel, lodging, eating, conferences, entertainment, recreation and gaming. It refers to the sector in the tourism industry that provides shelter to the tourists. According to George (2008), the American and the European travel and tourism industries define hospitality as the friendly and generous reception and service of guests. The hospitality sector is mainly concerned with providing food, drink, and accommodation, but also promotes a warm and friendly experience that benefits consumers whether it is at a hotel, leisure facility, restaurant, or any other tourism establishment. The hospitality mix is made up of four components, which are, attractions, amenities, accessibility and ambience.

According to George (2008:291) attractions and events play the key role in tourism and hospitality destinations. They entice visitors and tourists to the destination. There are three categories of attractions, which are, natural, built, and cultural. Natural attractions include climate, scenic beauty, wildlife, and other natural phenomenon that were not necessarily created by humankind. Within Zimbabwe, for instance there are numerous natural attractions like Victoria Falls, which is one of the great wonders of the world, the Great Zimbabwe Ruins, the Matopos Hills, and the wider stretch of the Eastern Highlands Inyangani Mountains. Built attractions are those that have been artificially created such as resorts, shopping malls, and conference facilities like the Harare Conference Center, sports, and recreation facilities such as stadiums, golf courses, and motor cross racing facilities. In Zimbabwe, there is also a wider choice of built attractions like hotels, lodges, restaurants, and lodges.

Cultural attractions are tourists and visitors attractions based on the people’s activities, including archaeological, historical, and cultural sites such as the King Lobengula Kraal (Old Bulawayo city), the Murehwa Cultural Center, the Tonga Cultural Center in Binga, and the Great Zimbabwe Ruins. Other cultural attractions include theatres, the National Gallery of Zimbabwe and the National Museums of Zimbabwe and international festivals like the Harare International Festive of Arts (HIFA).
The amenities are the desirable supporting offerings at a destination, which serve the needs of the tourists and visitors while they are away from home. These may include; accommodation at a destination; hotels, resorts, apartments, villas, campsites, back packer hostels, guesthouses and other types of accommodation and Restaurants. Cafes and bars, which may range from fast food outlets to fine dining restaurants such as Nando’s, Chicken Inn. Retail outlets. Shopping malls and centres, travel agents, souvenirs and curios, foreign money exchange bureau and camping and transport and communication at the destination. Taxes, buses, trains, and car hire. Other amenities and services. Language schools, hair dressing and beauty salons, information services and the security services.

According to George (2008), accessibility includes transportation and infrastructure, which are necessary to ensure that the visitor has accessibility to the destinations. Accessibility means that, a place is easy reach. Transport links to the market are essential for the success of a destination. The elements that affect the accessibility of a destination include infrastructure of airports, road networks and railways, routes operated, frequency of services, prices charged, and comfort of travel.

A country is more than its physical tourist related features, it is also made up of social and cultural features. These give a country its atmosphere or ambience (George, 2008). A country’s ambience is difficult to quantify since it also includes intangible features such as the friendliness of its residents, the way of life of its people, its history and folklores and the way that tourist amenities and services are delivered to its visitors. Most of these maybe attractions in their own right, for instance the friendliness of the locals of Swaziland which is an attraction to many tourists and visitors. However, some countries where the local people are believed to be hostile to visitors or where people believe it is dangerous may portray a negative ambience. The way in which services are delivered is also particularly important because hospitality offerings are consumed at the point of purchase. Even if all the attractions are first-class, the visitors’ holiday experience can be spoiled by poor service. In
essence, tourist will have a much more satisfying holiday if they feel welcomed by the host population and receive good service.

The hypothesis guiding the measurement of the influence of the entertainment industry to nation branding for Zimbabwe is as follows:

**H0¹**: There is no relationship between entertainment industry and nation branding for Zimbabwe.

5.2.2 Cultural Elements

Czinkota and Ronkainneni (2002:59) view culture as a combined system of learned behaviour patterns that are distinguishing characteristics of the members of any given society. It includes everything that a group thinks, says, does and makes, its culture, language, material artefact’s, the shared systems of attitudes and feelings. They also argue that culture gives an individual an anchoring point, an identity as well as codes of conduct, and separates the humans from the inhuman. Culture is learned, shared and transmitted from one generation the the next. Parents primarily pass it on to their children, social organisations, special interest groups, the government, schools and the church. Culture is multidimensional, consisting of a number of common elements that are interdependent; changes occurring in one of the dimensions will affect the others as well. The elements of culture are language, aesthetics, education, social interactions, material elements, and religion and value systems.

a. Language

Language has been described as the mirror of culture. Messages are conveyed verbally and non-verbally with spoken word and body sign respectively. Language is required before a person is acculturated to a culture other than his or her own. Language provides access to local society, communicate and interpret the environment. As a medium of communication, language has two parts, the spoken and silent languages. The spoken language consists of the vocal sounds or written symbols that people use to communicate with one another. Silent language refers to the complex of non-verbal communication mechanisms that people use to get a message across.
A given gesture has quite different meanings across cultures. In Japan scribbling identifying cues on business cards is a major violation of basic business etiquette. Alternatively foreigners are not expected to engage in the bowing rituals used for greeting people of different ranks.

b. Aesthetics
Aesthetics are a reflection of a culture, they are expressed by means of design, colour, music, and dance. Product, packaging, and advertisements must be authentically pleasing to win acceptance in any environment. Attitudes towards modern as well as traditional designs require understanding. Griffin (1993:88) argues that calligraphy is considered the supreme art form in the Arab world. It is the principal source of embellishment for architecture, metalwork, ceramics, glass and textiles. Colours must be treated with care depending on the particular country where communication is being conducted. For instance, purple flowers are associated with death and unhappiness in Brazil, white lilies have this association in Canada, Great Britain and Sweden, yellow flowers stand for infidelity in France and disrespect for a woman in Russia. Parker’s white pens won little acceptance in China, where white is the colour of mourning and in India Parker’s green pens met with a similar fate because green is associated with bad luck.

c. Education
Education is a cultural process involving the transmission of traditions, ideas, attitudes and skills as well as training in academic disciplines. Education either formal or informal plays a major role in the passing on and sharing of culture. Education levels of a culture can be assessed using literacy rates and enrolment in primary, secondary, higher, and tertiary education systems. International firms and investors will need to know about the qualitative aspects of education, namely varying emphasis on particular skills and the overall level of education provided. Educational levels will have an impact on various business functions. Training programmes for a production facility will have to take the educational backgrounds of trainees into account.

The major function of practical and effective education and training policies in the development process of a nation must be clear. A well-learned and skilled
manpower will contribute directly towards raising production, improving economic growth, eliminating poverty and upgrading living standards of a nation. Appropriately projected, targeted and well executed education and training programmes and projects may also be very effective in eradicating challenges for the people to leave their lives productively. Education and training, especially higher education link manpower development to national economic development goals by matching or aligning training programmes to the requirements of the industry. Some of the efforts include working with industry to identify specific needs, providing work-based learning opportunities for students, offering and supporting apprenticeship programmes. Once the needs are identified higher education and industry can collaborate to entice or draw students into these critical programmes. The current case in Zimbabwean policy on education and training, no child should be left behind in getting a good education, and no worker should be left behind in having the skills necessary to find a good job.

The Higher and Tertiary Education Industry is mandated to help individuals achieve their potentials by raising educational levels to produce a high calibre workforce, training and mentoring entrepreneurial skills. Higher education in Zimbabwe is a dominant force in training manpower with robust skills needed to adapt to ever changing job requirements, identifying business and industry requirements and involving them through sponsorship of programmes relevant to their requirements, as well as taking strong and visible roles in regional initiatives through partnerships with other education and training institutions in the region. There is a strategic alliance of training institutions in Zimbabwe shares both material and human resources with universities. Universities support each other in the times of need a strategy that has made them survive during the economic meltdown period in Zimbabwe (2000-2008).

Science and technology are needed to create a sustainable economic growth. The aims of scientific and technological co-operation among nations are to provide backing for the integrated nations’ endeavours to obtain their own scientific and technical skills. This enables them to master the technology they need in order to succeed in and actively contribute to modern scientific,
environmental, and technological advancements, targeting research as a solution to economic and social problems as well as upgrading the quality of life and wellbeing of the nation. The government of Zimbabwe recognises the role of knowledge for resolving local developmental issues and the enhancement of the competitiveness of the economy.

In Zimbabwe progress was made in developing strategies to enhance the effectiveness of government intervention in the field of Science and Technology and Research and Development (R & D) through establishing institutes that are linked to science and technology development in and around strategic towns. These institutions focus on creating policy environments that stimulate co-ordination of research efforts, create agenda setting platforms that include policy makers, research community, private sector and civil society, promote public and private partnerships and contribute to the reform of the education system.

d. Social institutions

According to Kotabe and Helsen (2004:96) Social institutions determine the way in which people interact. The family unit, which in western industrialised countries consists of parents and children, in a number of cultures it, is extended to include grandparents and other relatives. Understanding tribal politics in countries such as Nigeria may help to avoid unnecessary complications in executing business transactions with such nations. Social organisations also determine responsibilities and tasks of managers and subordinates and how they interact. In some cultures they are clearly and completely separated according to their social classes and office facilities and benefit levels at work.

e. Material elements

Material culture results from technology and is directly associated with the way a society organises its commercial activities. It is manifested in the availability and adequacy of the basic economic, social, financial, and marketing infrastructures. Material culture, mainly the degree to which it exists and how much it is esteemed will have an impact on marketing decisions.
Many exporters and investors do not understand the degree to which some consumers are package conscious. For instance, some areas like the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University campus is a bottle or glass free area, so cans or plastic can be ideal packaging for such products like soft drinks alcohol (Kotabe and Helsen 2004:96).

f. Religion

Religion plays a vital role in many societies. It is important to understand different people’s religious customs, practices, and awareness levels. Religious taboos often force corporates to adapt their marketing mix programmes. Religion also shapes the holiday calendar in many countries and there is a careful examination of one’s calendar whenever meetings are to be scheduled. Religious norms also influence advertising campaigns.

The attitudes and values of a society in many instances stem from religious teachings. For example, in a Buddhist or Hindu society ‘wantlessness’ is the ideal, people do not have the same motivation to produce and consume as in most western societies. In Asia, people are not individualistic. Individualism is suspect and at odds with society. It is far more important to be in harmony with others. As for distinct values of different cultures, negative stereotypes should be avoided in communications and positive values emphasised. In Asia this would mean emphasizing loyalty, harmony, modesty, a strong work ethic, sense of obligation, oneness with nature and human dignity. In the Arab world emphasis is placed on hospitality, personal dignity, continuity, stability, and psychological and emotional strength, whilst in Africa positive values should be placed on continuity, respect for elders, story-telling, oneness with nature, interdependent community, cooperation and harmony (Griffin 1993:92).

Religion plays a major role in nation branding for Zimbabwe. Religious leaders must join forces with political leaders of the country to improve the economic, political, social situation and the moral being and achieving lasting peace of the nation. In Zimbabwe religion also helps in the creation of a homogeneous
society and is regarded as the most efficient instrument for gathering the loyalty of people and mobilizing society.

g. Manners and customs/value systems
All cultures have value systems that shape people's norms and standards. These norms influence people's attitudes towards objects and behavioural codes. Values such as saving face, long term exchange relationships and respect for elders are deeply rooted and heavily influence market entry and product decisions. Czinkota and Ronkainen (2002:70) argue that manners and customs changes should be carefully monitored and understood, specifically in cases that seem to point to tapering or narrowing of cultural differences between people. The understanding is essentially important in negotiations, because interpretation based on one's own frame of reference may lead to totally incorrect conclusion. To negotiate effectively abroad, one needs to read correctly all types of communication. Some areas in which negotiators need to be wary of are inadequate information and understanding of the history, culture and government system of the host country, inadequate understanding of the decision making processes and the role of personal relations, personalities as well as inadequate time allocation for negotiations. The adjustment to cultural variables in the market place must be a long term and continuous process.

The hypothesis guiding the measurement of the influence of the cultural elements to nation branding for Zimbabwe is as follows:

**H0¹**: There is no relationship between cultural elements and nation branding for Zimbabwe.

5.2.3 Stakeholders
A stakeholder is any individual or group that is interested in, affected by, or is involved in some way with a company, literally put, anyone who has a stake in any of an organisation’s operations or issues (Moilanen and Rainisto, 2009:171). Stakeholders can include some or all of the following: citizens, communities, consumers, private organisations, government agencies, investors, NGOs, and
academic institutions. According to Moilanen and Rainsto (2009:171) the objectives of stakeholder engagement in nation branding are, avoiding conflict through negotiations, mediation, collaborative learning, developing a shared vision agreed upon by all parties, and forming creative solutions that otherwise may not have emerged.

Moilanen and Rainisto (2009:175) argue that engaging with a broad range of stakeholders offers nations many opportunities and benefits, and there is transparency, which will increase the credibility of a nation and its industries. Stakeholder involvement allows shared decision-making responsibilities. Houghton and Stevens (2011:45) argue that it is a regrettable fact that many nation-branding initiatives fail occasionally with a bang due to the absence or inadequacy engagement of local people, businesses, and community groups in shaping, articulating and conveying the brand. According to Houghton and Stevens (2011) the participatory and iterative approach to nation branding is designed to generate and support a greater sense of ownership, which is a crucial ingredient in any nation branding initiative.

a. Government intervention

The government affects almost every other variables of nation branding. According to Kotabe and Helsen (2004:133), the political climate in the country has a direct impact on the business environment, as the impact is felt through some changes in government policies and regulations on the operations of businesses. The actions that the government will take, are sometimes based on the political stability enjoyed by the country. Kotabe and Helsen (2004) further explained that, corporations do not operate in countries that are hostile to their home countries. The sweeping political upheavals such as the Cuban crisis in the 1960s, the Iranian revolution in the 1980s and the the break-up of the Soviet Union in the late 1980s. the Kosovo crisis in Yugoslavia in 1999 and more recently the United States of America led war against Iraq in 2003 as well as the Zimbabwean land and property invasions of early 2000 are typical examples for hostile business environments (Kotabe and Helsen 2004:133).
The structure of government in a particular country is significant. The nature of government is assessed by its political ideology, ranging from communism and socialism to capitalism. Under strict communism, the government owns and manages all businesses as no private ownership is allowed. Strict government control not only strips its people of private incentives to work but is also an inefficient mechanism for allocating scarce resources across the economy. Capitalism refers to an economic system in which free enterprise is permitted and encouraged along with private ownership. The number of political parties in a country influences the level of political stability in that country. In a single party-dominant-country, government policies tend to be stable and predictable over time. Although such a government provides consistent policies, these policies do not always guarantee a favourable political environment for foreign companies operating in the country. A dominant party regime may maintain policies such as high tariff barriers, foreign direct investment restrictions, and foreign exchange controls that reduce the operational flexibility of foreign corporations.

Investors will first want to understand what national policies are being pursued and what policy instruments a government is using to promote its interests for them to be able to assess the risk involved before making any decisions to invest in that country. There are three general types of risks involved in operating in a foreign country. These are, risks associated with changes in company ownership, risks associated with changes in company operations and risks associated with changes in transfers of goods and money. The government policies that will affect operations of foreign companies are expropriation policy, confiscation policy, domestication policy, repatriation policy, and nationalisation policy.

Changes in ownership structures are usually due to dramatic political changes, such as wars, or coup d’état. Foreign companies may face the expropriation or confiscation of property or they may face the nationalisation of their industries. As noted by Czinkota and Ronkainen (2002), expropriation refers to a government taking over foreign companies’ goods, land or other
assets, with compensation that tends to fall short of their market value. Confiscation is an outright takeover of assets without any compensation. Domestication (also known as phase-out policy) refers to a foreign company gradually turning over management and operational as well as ownership to local companies over time. Nationalisation refers to government taking over foreign companies for making the industry a government-run industry. To reduce the risk of expropriation or confiscation of assets, most companies use joint ventures with local investors or adopt a domestication policy. Joint ventures with local investors imply shared responsibilities and ownership of assets. In nationalisation, companies usually receive some levels of compensation for their losses. In nationalisation, some assets should always belong to the public. In Zimbabwe, this sentiment applies to the ownership of such assets as foreign companies that are not supportive of government policy on indigenisation and empowerment. Natural resources such as the land, minerals, water resources, and wild life, are part of national wealth that must not be sold to foreigners. Nationalisation maybe forced by government through such policies as black empowerment act and the affirmative action in the case of Zimbabwe. Like expropriation of properties, nationalisation is a sacrifice to national development, attraction of investors and attainment of good hope as well as goodwill for a country. There should also be compensation for lost assets, economic and social disruptions due to nationalisation.

According to Kotabe and Helsen (2004) social, economic and environmental consequences of nationalisation and lack of adequate compensation structures are that, state owned industries are unproductive due to absence of rivalry, consumers have less choice to make and there is a lack of good corporate governance. Kotabe and Helsen (2004) also argued that other changes in operational regulations that may also make investors and international business fail to invest in foreign countries would include local content requirements. This may force companies to use inputs of higher cost or inferior quality making their products uncompetitive. Price controls may set limits on the sales price for a company’s goods that are too low to recover investments made. Restrictions on the number of foreign employees, may
force a company to train local citizens in techniques that require years of specialisation, and foreign exchange shortages. If a country is experiencing shortages of foreign capital, it may limit the sale of foreign currencies to companies that need to import inputs from abroad or repatriate profits back home.

Expropriation and confiscation of properties are considered to be a sacrifice to national development, an attraction of investors and an attainment of good hope and goodwill for a country. There should be compensation for lost assets as a result of economic and social disruptions. It is clear that there are adverse social, economic, and environmental consequences of property loss due to expropriation and lack of adequate compensation structures.

Sanctions and embargoes are country-based political trade controls that have become an accepted form of political influence in the international community. Kotabe and Helsen (2004:140) explain that embargoes and sanctions are coercive or retaliatory trade measures that are often enacted unilaterally and aimed at changing a foreign government or its policies without resorting to military force. Embargoes restrict all trade with a nation for political purposes. The European Union (EU) countries maintain an economic embargo on Zimbabwe in order to change the country’s political disposition. Sanctions are all punitive economic measures imposed by a state, organisation or person (the sender) on another state, organisation or person (the target) in the hope of influencing its political behaviour. According to Kotabe and Helsen (2004), sanctions and embargoes have a negative impact on the economy of a country. Some of the negative impacts are restrictions on international trade links, restrictions on the access to lines of credit and expensive imports as the affected country has to go through intermediaries in international trade. There is lack of foreign exchange, lack of or decrease in export earnings and lack of foreign capital inflows into the country. Sanctions and embargoes cause disinvestment in the host country as there would be economic boycott against its exports and foreign companies would be forced to close down.
b. Individuals and private enterprises

van Gelder (2011) in Dinnie (2011:38) stated that the way the local individuals behave and communicate are important in demonstrating the nation brand in action. Constant interaction with ordinary citizens can have a strong influence on the credibility of the nation brand. van Gelder (2011) poses a question that, if the locals do not believe in the brand then why should an outsider? According to van Gelder (2011) the basis for successful nation branding is some form of joint responsibility between stakeholders of the nation. No one stakeholder has the ability and capacity to develop and implement a nation branding strategy on their own. Van Gelder (2011) further argues that many of the problems that arise during nation branding initiatives are due to flawed relationships between the nation’s key stakeholders and its local peoples.

In line with van Gelder (2011), Whittaker (2007:111) states that, individuals and their private enterprises have a pivotal responsibility in achieving the developmental goals of a nation. Their involvement in nation branding is largely determined by positive responses to investment chances and to the lively promotion and maintenance of favourable environment for investment by the government. There should be a continuous public and private sector cooperation in a country and close consultations between the two sectors in order to facilitate an environment suitable for economic growth. According to Whittaker (2007) the private sector and individuals present a major source of investment, technology transfer and expertise, they can also contribute towards poverty alleviation programmes alongside the public sector efforts, they contribute towards reducing incidence of urban poverty, crime and unemployment, they create new businesses and employment, intensify competition in the industry in which they operate.

c. Investors

There is a need to take a holistic approach in nation branding of Zimbabwe as a nation in which all sectors of the industry and commerce, socio-political, economic factors and people in their individual capacities and investors are directly involved in the process. van Gelder (2011) in Dinnie (2011:38) argue that investors are a source of valuable technology and knowledge (know-
how), for they pump in much capital knowledge and capital resources into the economy of a country. Investors foster linkages between international and local firms which can help jump start an economy. Investors help host nations to establish developmental programmes such as mass educational programmes, health delivery systems and grassroots developmental programmes that will help to benefit the disadvantaged sections of the society.

d. The media
The media perform three major functions or roles in nation branding. The media informs, educates, and entertains the nation. These are the conventional normative social functions the media render to the public, but equally applicable in broader sense in national development pursuit. In van Gelder (2011) in Dinnie (2011:38)’s view, through educating, informing and entertaining the media make the society, or the nation as well as the leadership of the very society aware of the importance and needy to undertake certain processes of national development attached to these three basic roles of the media is another role of persuasion where media apply persuasive efforts to influence people’s actions towards a particular direction. The media also chart a course for the people in line with the agenda setting theory thereby creating, in the minds of the people, issues that should be heard, read and viewed as priority including development programmes and policies. The roles of the media in nation building and development lie in their capacity and capability to teach, manipulate, sensitize, and mobilize people through information dissemination.

The other roles of the media that the Zimbabwean media can perform for the success of the nation branding process include, formation of attitudes through establishment of values for the society or nation thereby building a climate of change in society. This involves the dissemination of news and information in response to basic human need, which is the right to know. In the protection of social justice, the media are not only expected to record, compose or report account of events and stories just as historians do, but are also expected to analyse issues and facts carried in the news in line with the need and interest
of social justice. In order to ensure a peaceful national co-existence and progress, the media have before them the task of discouraging negative practices. These negative practices are: dictatorship in leadership like the military rule, embezzlement of public funds by public officers and politicians. The media can investigate facts and announce them to the public as well as inform people about development projects and programmes (Peel and Lloyd, 2008:507).

Zimbabwe as a nation must ponder over the role of the media in bringing about stability in the country and in making it a strong and prosperous country. The media must be far more productive and continuously orientate the people about various issues confronting the country on national and international fronts. The nation must take the media as a mirror upon which it can use to reflect and remove its negative spots. In this way, the media can play a diagnostic role in pointing out the negative tendencies and suggest ways and means to counter such tendencies.

The hypothesis guiding the measurement of the influence of stakeholders to nation branding for Zimbabwe is as follows:

\[ H_0^1: \text{There is no relationship between stakeholders and nation branding for Zimbabwe.} \]

5.2.4 Nation Branding Elements

As defined by Keller (2008:142 brand elements are the trademarkable devices that serve to identify and differentiate the brand. They are referred to as brand identities. The main brand elements are brand names, logos, symbols, characters, spokespersons, slogans, jingles, packages and signatures. The customer-based brand equity model suggests that marketers should choose those brand elements that enhance brand awareness, facilitate the formation of strong, favourable, and unique brand associations, or elicit positive brand judgments and feelings. The testing of the brand-building ability of brand elements is what consumers would think or feel about the product if they only knew its brand name, associated logos and other characteristics. A brand element that provides a positive contribution to brand
equity conveys or implies certain valued associations or responses. The criteria for choosing brand elements according to Keller (2008) are memorability, meaningfulness, transferability, likeability, adaptability, and protectability. According to Keller (2008), the first three criteria, Memorability, meaningfulness, and likeability form the marketer's offensive strategy and build brand equity whilst the later three play a defensive role for leveraging and maintaining brand equity in the face of different opportunities and constraints.

A necessary condition for building brand equity is achieving a high level of brand awareness. As Keller (2008:143) noted, brand elements that promote this goal are inherently memorable and attention getting and therefore facilitate recall, or recognition in purchase or consumption settings. Brand elements may take on all kinds of meaning, with either descriptive or persuasive content. Brand names could be based upon people, places, animals or birds, country, or other things or objects.

A memorable, meaningful, and likable set of brand elements offer many advantages because consumers often do not examine much information in making product decisions. Descriptive and persuasive elements reduce the burden on marketing communications to build awareness and link brand associations and equity, especially when few other brand-related associations exist. The main issues to be addressed will be the made-in-Zimbabwe and I come from Zimbabwe concepts. The main questions to be addressed will be how do like products with the made-in-Zimbabwe labels and how do you regard people who come from Zimbabwe. The government of Zimbabwe, on behalf of its people, its institutions, and its companies need to discover what the world’s perception of the country and its people, products and services is like, and should develop strategies for managing these perceptions. It is the government’s responsibility to build a reputation that is fair, true, powerful, attractive, and genuinely useful to the national economy, political and social aims. In addition, the government should honestly reflect the spirit, the genius, and the will of the people.
The hypothesis guiding the measurement of the influence of the nation branding attributes to nation branding for Zimbabwe is as follows:

**H0**: **There is no relationship between nation branding attributes and nation branding for Zimbabwe.**

### 5.3 THE MODELLED OUTCOMES OF NATION BRANDING

#### 5.3.1 Nation hope

According to Snyder (2002:249) nation hope refers to a cognitive set that is based on a mutually originated sense of a successful nation (goal-directed determination) and pathways (planning to meet goals). It is a total insight and belief that set aims and objectives are achievable. It plays a significant role for the nation's performance; it is an important industry performance determinant. Snyder (2002:250) argues that the attributes for a concussive environment for the attainment of nation hope are, peace, political stability and social order, partnerships in development, favourable macro-economic and financial environment and good governance.

In order to gain the lost hope and confidence, Zimbabwe, as a nation, has no option except to implement an inclusive across-the-board nation branding process that will lead to an environment concussive for nation building where every stakeholder is involved. Snyder (2002:250) maintains that the attributes of a concussive environment for the attainment of nation hope are peace, political stability, and social order. These make up vital prerequisites for strengthening monetary stability and stimulating sustainable development and eradication of poverty. In Zimbabwe, the government must strengthen peace, political stability and social order, reflecting the nation's decisive move towards development and prosperity, leaving behind the legacy of political violence and internal strife that had destroyed Zimbabwe over the past decade. Snyder (2002:250) further argues that peace, political stability, and social order are vital for building the nation and implementing state reforms. Therefore, the top priority of the government must be to strengthen the fabric of peace. Moreover, their reinforcement will stimulate a “credible image” of a nation, build the confidence, hope of investors and tourists in the country, and create a positive environment that would engender people's livelihoods that contribute significantly to economic development.
Partnership in development with the government as a stakeholder in nation branding means prioritizing the significant strategies as a way of attaining nation hope and nation competitive advantage. Strengthening of partnerships with all development partners, including the donor community, the private sector and civil society and these partnerships must be harmonious and based upon the rule of law, democracy, freedom of expression and social order. Considering the private sector as an engine for growth, the government must strengthen cooperation between the state and civil society. The government must encourage the activities of the NGOs and other duly registered associations working to serve and benefit the nation, the government must welcome the participation of NGOs in the process of socio-economic rehabilitation and development and the promotion of democracy and respect of human rights.

In order for the nation branding process to be successful in recapturing lost hope, all key stakeholders should work out initiatives indicating that the nation has no scandals, corruption, political violence any longer, but are ready to work as a unit to revive national development efforts. Stakeholders must show that they are ready to carry out joint ventures with interested investors who have capacity. The government should develop the agriculture sector in addition to production industry, social services industry such as public transport and communication. The purpose would be to lessen the country’s reliance on imported food and food handouts from donors, diverting exports and donors to major developmental efforts. The nation should stimulate growth of private sector to promote human resources and industrial development in the country and practise diversification through increased privatisation and domestic and foreign investment. The government of Zimbabwe has to serve the interests of the people through responding to their aspirations and needs.

In order for the nation branding process to succeed there should be some efforts to create a favourable macro-economic environment, the government should, endeavour to achieve economic growth, maintain low inflation rates and stabilise the foreign exchange rates constant. There should be practice for good governance in both public and private enterprises. It is one of the most important preconditions to
attain lost hope and confidence for all stakeholders in Zimbabwe as a whole. Good governance requires a wide participation by all stakeholders, improved sharing of public information, accountability and transparency on the part of office bearers. The government and all other stakeholders must see to it that good governance does exist in all economical and socio-political sectors.

The hypothesis guiding the measurement of the influence of the nation branding to nation hope for Zimbabwe is as follows:

H0\textsuperscript{1}: There is no relationship between nation branding and nation hope for Zimbabwe.

5.3.2 Nation building

Nation building is a generic term that refers to the process of constructing or structuring a national identity. This process aims at the unification of the people within the state so that it remains politically stable and viable in the end. Eaton (2002:46) defined nation building as a social process of transforming an underdeveloped, poor and divided society into a community with peace, equal opportunities and economic viability within which individuals enjoy dignity, basic human rights, and the prospect to observe their own religion, tradition, culture and language in harmony with other people who function within other traditions. Eaton (2002) further argues that the whole community should be involved in this process. Bloom (1990:55) also argues that the process of nation building attempts to forge or create a nation after gaining independence, after divisive civil wars or civil conflicts. It seeks to provide distinct understandings of national constructs, redefining them in ways that are more broad and inclusive.

The legitimacy and functionality of a state is measured by its capability to provide security, education, health, and infrastructure and maintain the citizens’ civil and democratic rights. Citizens must participate wholly in nation building since they are the custodians of their own problems and government should be guardian that provides resources and protection to solve these problems. According to Bloom (1990:56), the objectives of nation building are to establish a fully representative government and set environmental conditions that promote economic growth and
individual prosperity. To establish security, social order, and rule of law, to create hope, confidence and pride in the nation’s capabilities. To establish institutions that would support social and economic development of a country. Nation building also aims to promote, enhance unity and cooperation, and construct a new broad, united national identity among citizens.

Based on the arguments above, it is believed that, nation branding is a process that leads to nation building and both processes share some common features in how they are done and what they try to achieve. Nation building can never succeed without a proper framework of nation branding. Based on the hypothetical framework (Figure 6.1) it can be seen that nation building is a result of the nation branding effort, all stakeholders work with a common goal.

The hypothesis guiding the measurement of the influence of the nation branding to nation hope for Zimbabwe is as follows:

H0¹: There is no relationship between nation branding and nation hope for Zimbabwe.

5.3.3 Nation competitive advantage

Onkvisit and Shaw (2004:32) argue that a nation is competitive when it has specialised assets and skills necessary for competitive advantage in an industry. Firms gain competitive advantage in industries when their home base offers better ongoing information into product and process needs. They gain competitive advantage when owners, managers, and employees support intense commitment and sustained investment. Onkvisit and Shaw (2004) further argue that, in the end, nations succeed in particular industries because their dynamic home environment stimulates firms to upgrade and widen their advantages over time.

Porter’s diamond of national advantage framework has identified four major determinants of international competitiveness and these are factor conditions, demand conditions, related and supporting industries and firm strategy, structure and rivalry. These four determinants interact and form the diamond, which provides the context in which a nation’s firms are born and compete. Porter’s theory also provides
two additional variables, chance, and government. Chance events are developments occurring outside the control of firms and they include pure inventions, breakthroughs in basic technologies, wars, external political developments, and major shifts in market demands. The government at all levels can improve or detract from country’s national competitive advantage. Regulations and investment policies can affect domestic rivalry and home demand conditions.

A country’s national competitive advantage in a particular industry may be eroded when conditions in the national diamond no longer support investment and innovation to match the industry’s evolving structure. According to Porter (1990) some important reasons for the loss of advantage are, deterioration of factor conditions, local needs not compatible with global demand, loss of homebuyers’ sophistication, technological change, firms adjustment inflexibility and reduction in domestic rivalry.

Zimbabwe has its own particular set of factor conditions like skilled labour and low costs of labour, infrastructure, fertile agricultural soils, and quality of research at universities that could be utilised to brand the nation. The political initiatives of the unity government, technological progress, or socio-cultural changes in the country may shape the national factor conditions (Porter 1990).

Zimbabwe as a nation should promote local industries, products, and services more than foreign products and services. Local competitive supplying industries will reinforce innovation and internationalisation in industries at later stages in the value system. Industries should use and coordinate particular activities in the value chain together, or produce complimentary products based on the comparative advantage of each industry. Examples are hardware and software, the shoe and leather industries and related leather products, machinery and design. Domestic rivalry and search for competitive advantage within a nation can help provide organisations with basis for achieving such advantages on a more global scale.

The government of Zimbabwe should consider the policies so as to establish national competitive advantage, which enables industries to develop a strong competitive position globally. The government can foster competitive advantage by
ensuring high expectations of product performance, safety or environmental standards or encouraging vertical cooperation between suppliers and buyers on a domestic level.

The hypothesis guiding the measurement of the influence of the nation branding to nation competitive advantage for Zimbabwe is as follows:

**H0**: There is no relationship between nation branding and nation competitive advantage for Zimbabwe.

### 5.4 SUMMARY

Nations find themselves competing against each other in search of talented manpower, advantageous conditions and access to markets. This means that nations must proactively shape and influence what the world thinks of them, their positions and market themselves with strategic intent. A nation branding process must include all key stakeholders of the country. The key stakeholders are those that can significantly contribute to shaping the future of the nation through their policies, investments, actions, behaviour and communication. The key stakeholders must meaningfully represent their constituencies. They must also accept each other as equals and regard the task of branding their nation as a truly joint initiative. The model in this chapter aims to provide inspiration, direction and ideas for policy makers as they seek to design nation branding strategies that truly reflect the uniqueness of Zimbabwe. The model also reveals the complex, multidimensional key stakeholders involved in nation branding. However, the model is not a one-size-fits-all solution to nation branding as every nation has its own unique characteristics and conditions.
CHAPTER 6

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Research methodology is the systematic and logical study of the principles guiding research. It is concerned with how the researcher established knowledge about his/her study and how the researcher can convince others that his/her knowledge is correct. Leedy & Ormrod (2005:179) define research methodology as the general approach the researcher takes in carrying out the research study, to some extent, this approach dictates the particular tools the researcher selects. Bryman (2009:31) also defines research methodology as a technique for collecting data. Bryman (2009) furthers argues that it can involve specific instruments such as self-completion questionnaire, a structured interview schedule or participation observation whereby the researcher listens to and watches others. In this study, the discussion on the research methodology will be focused on the research design, population of study and sample size, sampling design and procedures, instrument design, instrument validity and reliability, data collection procedures, data presentation, analysis and interpretation. In this chapter, focus was on research design, sampling procedures and methods as well as an overview of the instrument measurement process and data analysis will be covered.

6.2 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The success and failure of nation branding depends on a number of factors. According to Fan (2006:10) the tourism industry the world over, has being the noisiest industry through destination branding and marketing, which is different from nation branding. Fan (2006) maintains that, many brands and people can work at cross roads; a tourism board may say how wonderful the country looks like and how welcoming the people are, the investment promotion agency may say that the country is super modern and full of cars, good roads, railways, the cultural institutions may tell the people how wonderful their film industry is, and the government occasionaally doing public diplomacy. The bottom line according to Fan (2006) is that, they are all giving out completely different messages about the
country. Other countries may possess a strong cultural heritage, but lacking the necessary capital, infrastructure and an unskilled workforce, and suffering from political instability but still remain unable to attract investors into the country. Fan (2006) also emphasises that, it is almost impossible for industries to develop simple image or core message about the country that can be used by different industry sectors. Zimbabwe is a country with rich tourist resources, but under the tyranny of the current regime the countries is unable to exploit these market opportunities. It is against these background that this study’s purpose and objectives are derived. The purpose of this study is to:

- explore the concept of nation branding, and identify what is being branded,
- identify the most appropriate actors or players in the nation branding process for Zimbabwe,
- develop a conceptual framework suitable for nation branding particular to the situation of Zimbabwe, and
- investigate through empirical research the contributions by each stakeholder to the nation branding process of Zimbabwe.

6.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

In order to achieve the purpose of this study, the objectives are divided into two main groups, which are primary and secondary objectives.

6.3.1 Primary objective

The primary objective of this study is to develop a workable conceptual framework for nation branding that is suitable for the case of Zimbabwe and empirically test the impact of the identified variables in the framework.

6.3.2 Secondary objectives

This study will be guided by the following secondary objectives:

- to carry out an in-depth analysis of secondary sources dealing with nation, place destination or country branding and country of origin and apply them to nation branding particularly to suit the Zimbabwean situation;
- to ascertain all the key contributors in the nation branding process of Zimbabwe;
• to investigate the most appropriate research paradigms, research methodologies, data collection methods and data analysis methods to be used in this study;
• to develop appropriate research instruments for data collection from the empirical study;
• to analyse primary data and test the hypotheses provided in the study; and
• to investigate the success of nation branding in attainment of nation hope, nation building and creation of nation competitive advantage in the case of Zimbabwe.

6.3.3 Research questions
In order for the research objectives to be met the following research questions will be addressed:
• who are the major contributors in the nation branding process of Zimbabwe;
• can nation branding help Zimbabwe as a nation to regain lost nation hope, attract direct investment into the country and attract talent into the country;
• what is the role played by nation branding towards nation building; and
• can nation branding help Zimbabwe as a nation to gain nation competitive advantage in the international market?

6.4 RESEARCH DESIGN
According to Cohen et al (2003:73) research design is a framework used as a guide in collecting and analyzing data. Bryman (2009:35) argues that there are many research designs available for research and the choice depends on the nature of the study and population under study. Bryman (2009) further argues that all the designs are concerned with systematic collection, presentation, and analysis of data. The function of research design is to help the researcher obtain clear and meaningful answers to problems.

6.4.1 The survey design
The design employed by the researcher in this study was the descriptive survey design. According to Salkind (2012:197), a descriptive research tries to understand events that are occurring in the present and how they might relate to other factors.
Salkind (2012) further argues that the purpose of descriptive research is to describe the current state of affairs at the time of study. Neuman (2003:267) defines a survey as an attempt to obtain data (facts and opinions) about the current conditions and state of things. Neuman (2003) points out that a descriptive survey summarizes the status of some phenomena of interest as they currently occur and collects information from a sample of the study population and relates the attributes to the rest of the population. Since the data is collected from a sample with similar attributes to that of the population the results can then be generalised to the total population within calculable margin of error. Salkind (2012) says that, surveys examine the frequency and relationships between psychological and sociological variables and taps into constructs such as attitudes, beliefs, prejudice, preferences and opinions.

In this study the survey design was chosen because surveys have the general capacity to describe the characteristics of a large population. The study becomes feasible by carefully choosing a sample and administering standardized questionnaires. The sample chosen from the population will represent those who were not chosen but had the opportunity to be part of the sample.

6.5 SAMPLING

Malgarini (2005:33) argues that with a single grain of rice, an asian housewife tests if all the rice in the pot has boiled, from a cup of tea, a tea-taster determines the quality of the brand of tea and a sample of moon rocks provides scientist with information on the origin of the moon. This process of testing some data based on a small sample is called sampling. Bailey (1999:95) defined a sample as a subset of the population of study and sampling is a process by which the study subjects or objects are chosen from a larger population. It is a process of choosing from a much larger population, a group about which the researcher wish to make general statements so that the selected part will represent the whole group. Borg et al (2003:93) defined sampling as a way of selecting a given number of subjects from a defined population as a representative of that population. A hundred percent sample would be the entire population and this is common with national census enumerations. A one percent sample would consist of only one out of every hundred in the population.
According to Malgarini (2005) the purpose of sampling is to provide various types of statistical information of a qualitative or quantitative nature about the whole by examining a few selected units. Neuman (2003:270) claims that samples should be selected from populations in such a way that you maximise the likelihood that the sample represents the population as much as possible. The goal is to have the sample resemble the population as much as possible. The most important implication of ensuring similarity between the two is that, once the research is finished, the results based on the sample can be generalised to the population. When the sample does represent the population the results of the study are said to be generalisable or to have generalisability.

6.5.1 Sampling procedures and sample size
It was not possible to gather data from all people in key stakeholder groups like ministries or organisations from the key stakeholders of study. The researcher approached the Permanent Secretaries of various government ministries and Chief Executive Officers of organisations who elected resource persons who helped to identify the target population for questionnaire distribution. The sampling procedure was based on the position of an individual in the organisation. The study targeted those on positions ranging from supervisor, assistant managers, managers, chief executive officers, ministers and other senior research officers and economists in the various organisations and ministries visited. The process was repeated in all categories until the required number of questionnaires was obtained. A total of four hundred questionnaires were distributed.

- **Target population of the study**
  Leedy and Ormrod (2005:202) defined population as the entire set of objectives and events or group of people, which is the subject of research and about which the researcher wants to determine some characteristics. According to Salkind (2012:33) target population refers to a group of potential participants to whom you want to generalise the results of a study. Malgarini (2005:5) also defined target population as the base population from which a sample is drawn at the time of initial sampling. Helder and Jentoft (2011:1) identified target population as the population of individuals which the research intends to study and make statistical inferences about. In this study, the target
population of study is comprised of the entertainment industry and its sub divisions; sports tourism, cultural tourism and hospitality; the cultural elements such as social institutions, material elements and religion, the education and training systems in the country from primary to tertiary levels and stakeholders including the government, individuals and private enterprises and investors. Table 6.1 shows the demographic data and composition of the target population that was used for the purpose of statistical analysis in this study.
Figure 6.1: A six-step procedure for drawing a sample

Step 1: Identify the target population from which the sample is to be drawn

Step 2: Identify the sampling frame

Step 3: Select a sampling method:
- Probability sampling
- Non probability sampling

Step 4: Determine the sample size needed

Step 5: Select the sample elements

Step 6: Collect the data from the sample

(Source: Churchill and Iacobucci (2002))
Table 6.1 provides the demographic data and composition of the respondents. Furthermore, Table 6.1 shows that 112 representing 36% of the response rate were females while 195 representing 64% of the response rate were male. The majority of the respondents (158) represent 53% of the response rate were working as managers and assistant managers and the majority of the respondents had attained university degrees. One hundred and seventy-six (176) respondents had spent long periods of time ranging from eleven to above twenty-one years at their jobs. Table 6.1 shows that the target population of this study was drawn from all the sectors of the Zimbabwean business environment.
Table 6.1: Composition of the respondents in Demographic terms

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Sampling Methods

According to Borg, Gall, & Gall, (2003:94) sampling methods can be classified into two major classes which are those that yield probability samples and those that yield non-probability samples. Burns (2000:410) says that, in probability sampling the researcher knows the exact possibility of selecting each member of the population and in non-probability the chance of being included is not known. Burns (2000) further argues that a probability sample tends to be more difficult and costly to conduct, but however, probability samples are the are the only

a. Probability sampling

In probability sampling the probability of selections of each respondent is known. Leedy & Ormrod (2005:199) state that, in probability sampling, the researcher can specify in advance that each segment of the population will be represented in the sample. Salkind (2012:96) argues that probability sampling strategies are the most commonly used because the selection of participants is determined by chance. The determination of who will end up in the sample is determined by non-systematic and random rules, the chances that the sample will truly represent the population is increased. The probability sampling methods are; random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified random sampling and cluster sampling (Salkind 2012).

b. Random sampling

According to Burns (2000) in the random sampling method each person in the universe/population of study has an equal opportunity of being chosen for the sample and every collection of persons of the same size has an equal probability of becoming the actual sample. All that is required to conduct a random sample after an adequate sampling frame is constructed of is to select persons without showing bias for any personal characteristics. Leedy & Ormrod (2005) argue that when a random sample is selected, the researcher can assume that the characteristics of the sample approximate the characteristics of the total population.
c. Non-probability sampling

Fairfax County Department of Systems Management for Human Services (2003:1-8) posits that in non-probability sampling, the probability of selection is not known, individuals are selected not by chance but other means. The researcher has no way of forecasting or guaranteeing that each element of the population will be represented in the sample. According to the Fairfax County Department of Systems Management for Human Services (2003:2) non-probability samples do not allow the study's findings to be generalized from the sample to the population. When discussing the results of a non-probability sample, the researcher must limit his/her findings to the persons or elements sampled. This procedure also does not allow the researcher to calculate sampling statistics that provide information about the precision of the results. The advantages of non-probability sampling are the easy in which it can be administered and non-probability samples tend to be less complicated and less time consuming than probability samples. If the researcher has no intention of generalizing beyond the sample, one of the non-probability sampling methods will provide the desired information. The three common types of non-probability samples are; convenience sampling, quota sampling and purposive/judgmental sampling.

According to Fairfax County Department of Systems Management for Human Services (2003:4) in purposive sampling the researcher employs his/her own expert judgment about who is included in the sample frame. Prior knowledge and research skills are used in selecting the respondents or elements to be sampled. An example of this type of a sample would be a study of the potential users of a new recreational facility that is limited to those persons who live within the two kilometer radius of the new facility. The major problems with purposive sampling are that, the type of people who are available for study may be different from those in the population who can not be located and this might introduce a source of bias. As with all non-probability sampling methods, the degree and direction of error introduced by the researcher can not be measured and statistics that measure the precision of the estimates can not be calculated.
In this study, the researcher applied the purposive sampling methods. The method was chosen because it allows the researcher to handpick respondents based on specific characteristics. It ensures balance of the groups or classes of respondents when multiple groups are to be selected, as was the case in this study. The researcher consulted senior personnel from the position of director to the chief executive officer and/or Permanent Secretaries in the case of government ministries (those that have an input on policy issues that govern the operations of their respective organisations or ministries).

Four hundred questionnaires were hand delivered and respondents were given time to complete the questionnaires on their own time and an appointment was made for the collection period. The researcher went back to collect the filled questionnaires. Three hundred and nine filled questionnaires were collected of the returned questionnaires two were not fully completed making them unusable and this left 307 fully completed questionnaires considered for analysis.

6.6 QUESTIONNAIRE
Leedy and Ormrod (2005) define questionnaires as written forms of paper on which questions are asked and information about a research study is gathered. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005) a questionnaire is the main means of collecting quantitative data, it enables quantitative data to be collected in a standardized way so that the data are internally consistent and coherent for analysis. A questionnaire ensures standardization and comparability of the data and increases speed and accuracy of recording and facilitates data processing.

6.6.1 Questionnaire design
Malhotra (2004:2) comments that no survey can achieve success without a well designed questionnaire. The design of a questionnaire will depend on whether the researcher wishes to collect exploratory information, (i.e. qualitative information for the purpose of better understanding or the generation of hypotheses on a subject) or quantitative information to test specific hypotheses that have primarily been generated. There are no hard-and-fast rules about about how to design a
questionnaire, but there are a number of points to be borne in mind when designing one.

Malhotra (2004) maintains that, the first step in questionnaire design is to specify the information needed. Malhotra (2004) further argues that a continual review of the earlier stages of the study, particularly the specific components of the problem, the research objectives, research questions and the hypotheses will help keep the questionnaire focused. Many questionnaires omit important aspects due to inadequate preparatory work, and do not adequately probe particular issues due to poor understanding. Questionnaires should also be designed with the target respondents in mind, taking into account their educational level and experience. As Malhotra (2004) puts it, questionnaires that fail to keep in mind the characteristics of the respondents, particularly their educational level and experience lead to a high level incidence of uncertain or no opinion responses. Some questionnaires are bound to have some questions unanswered and provide a need for further research, but the objective of a good questionnaire is to minimise these problems, it should obtain the most complete and accurate information possible. The questionnaire designer needs to ensure that, respondents fully understand the questions and are not likely to refuse to answer, lie or try to conceal their attitudes. A good questionnaire is organised and worded to encourage respondents to provide accurate, unbiased, and complete information. A well-designed questionnaire should make it easy for respondents to give the necessary information and for the researcher to record the answer and it should be arranged so that sound analysis and interpretation are possible.

The questionnaire for this study was designed in such a way that the research objectives and research questions were adequately addressed. To check for authenticity and coverage of research objectives and research questions the questionnaire was sent to the statistician to check on whether the question items would gather statistical data as intended. The language editor also checked on the questionnaire to make sure that the grammar use in the questionnaire is correct and no questions were vague or will fail to solicit the required information.
6.6.2 The questionnaire development process

The questionnaire development process adopted for the purpose of this study is based upon the approach recommended by Churchill and Iacobucii (2002) which is composed of nine steps. Figure 6.2 illustrates a step-by-step procedure which was used as a guideline for generating the questionnaire employed in this study.

6.6.3 Questionnaire structure

A questionnaire may be structured or unstructured. Malhotra (2004:8) reveals assumes that structured questionnaires specify the set of responses as well as their format. A structured question may offer multiple-choices or a scale. In multiple choice questions the researcher provides a choice of answers, and respondents are asked to select one or more of the alternatives given. According to Malhotra (2004) the two concerns in designing multiple choice questions are, the number of alternatives that should be included and their order or position bias. Multiple choice questions should include choices that cover the full range of possible alternatives. The alternatives should be mutually exclusive and collectively exhaustive. Instructions should clearly indicate whether the respondent is to choose only one alternative or select all that apply. Multiple choice questions are easier for respondents to answer and to analyse and tabulate than open-ended questions. Interviewer bias is also reduced given that these types of questions work very well in self-administered conditions. Respondent cooperation in general is improved if the majority of the questions are structured (Malhotra, 2004:9).

Malhotra (2004) argues that unstructured questionnaires have open-ended questions that respondents answer in their own words. They are also referred to as free responds or free-answer questions. Open-ended questions are good as first questions on a topic. They enable the respondents to express general attitudes and opinions that help the researcher interpret their responses to structured questions. Open-ended questions allow the the respondents to express their attitudes and opinions without the bias associated with restricting responses to pre-determined alternatives. Unstructured questionnaires are are useful in exploration research. According to Malhotra (2004) the disadvantages of unstructured questions relate to recording error, data coding and the added complexity of analysis. Interviewer bias is introduced as decisions are made regarding whether to record answers verbatim or
writing down only the main points. In large surveys the complexity of recording, tabulation and analysis outweighs their advantages. Owing to the large scale of this study, open-ended questions were not used.

6.6.4 Advantages of a questionnaire as a data collection tool

The researcher chose the questionnaire because of the following advantages over other techniques. In close-ended questions, respondents are offered a set of answers from which they are asked to choose the one that most closely represent their views. One of their strength is that the respondents do not waste time thinking what to write, as answers will be provided. The questionnaire is free from interview bias, in interviews the interviewee sometimes give answers that are meant to please the interviewer who will be in front of him/her, whilst with questionnaires, the respondent will be alone and more likely to give objective responses. Questionnaires guarantee anonymity. In this study no names were to be written on the questionnaires and as a result under these conditions respondents responded fearlessly as no one will ever know who said what. The close-ended questionnaire provides answers that are easy to collect, tabulate and analyze and quantify and the questionnaire technique was chosen since it is widely viewed as the most attractive method of quantitative data collection (Churchill and Iacobucii, 2002; Leedy and Ormrod, 2005 Malhotra, 2004).
Figure 6.2: Steps in questionnaire construction

Step 1: Specify what kind of information will be sought

Step 2: Determine the type of questionnaire and methods for administration

Step 3: Content of individual item

Step 4: Determine form of response

Step 5: Determine wording of each question

Step 6: Determine sequence of questions

Step 7: Determine layout and physical characteristics of the questionnaire

Step 8: Re-examine steps 1-7 and revise if necessary

Step 9: Pre-test questionnaire

Source: Churchill and Iacobucci (2002:315)
In the study the questionnaire was divided into two sections with, section ‘A’ covering the opinions of the respondents on nation branding for Zimbabwe. This section was directly addressing the research objectives and answering the research questions of chapter one. Section B covered some questions that were not directly addressing the research objectives but were very important as they sought personal biographical data about the respondent.

There was great care in the construction of the questionnaire to avoid double-barrelled questions, jargon, and leading questions so much that there were no elements of biasness on the part of the researcher. The questionnaire used in this study was self administered in the sense that respondents read and answered the questions contained in the questionnaires all by themselves.

6.7 AN OVERVIEW OF THE MEASUREMENT PROCESS

The importance of measurement in the research process cannot be overemphasized. Salkind (2012:109) defined measurement as the assignment of numerals to objects or events according to rules. Salkind (2012) mantians that, all the researcher’s hard work and efforts at trying to answer the research objectives and questions are for naught if what he/she is interested in cannot be assessed, measured, gauge, appraised, evaluated, classified, ranked, graded or weighed.

6.7.1 Levels of measurement

A nominal level of measurement is the scale that represents a hierarchy of precision on which a viable maybe assessed. It describes variables that are categorical in nature and that differ in quality rather than quantity that is, the variables examined characterize your objectives such that they can be placed into one and only one category. These categories can be labeled as one sees fit and all nominal levels of measurement are solely qualitative (Salkind, 2012:111).

On the other hand The Wadsworth Cengage Learning Center, (2012:30) advocates that, the ordinal level of management describes variables that can be ordered along some type of quatumnum, not only can these variables be placed into categories, but they can be ordered as well. The ordinal level of measurement often refers to variables as rankings of various outcomes, even if only two categories are involved,
such as big and little, tall and short, are for example, two possible outcomes when height is measured. These are ordinal because they reflect ranking along the quantum of height.

The interval level of measurement describes variables that have equal intervals between them. Interval level variables have equidistance points along some underlying continuum, for example, the difference between $30^0$ and $40^0$ is the same as the difference between $70^0$ and $80^0$. The interval level variables give the exact differences that exists when compared to the ordinal level variables that only shows that there are differences but cannot say exactly what is the difference.

6.7.2 The measurement process

The measurement process in this study consists of two different processes; the construct development and the scale design. The construct development was intended at delineating the measured concepts and dimensional traits. The scale design process was to have a perfect and precise tool for measuring the constructs. In this study, it is essential to incorporate a range of concepts underlying the contribution of key stakeholders in the nation branding process for Zimbabwe. A well designed questionnaire should be administered to measure the constructs.

a. Construct development

Sekeran (2003:207) posits that construct validity is the degree of confidence that the information provided by the questionnaire reflects regarding the issues that are being measured. Sekeran (2003) maintains that, construct validity is assessed through convergent and discriminant validity, by comparing trends or relationships, contained in the data collected by the questionnaire, with established trends or relationships that previous research findings have established. According to Sekeran (2003) convergent validity is established when the scores obtained with two different instruments measuring the same concept are highly correlated and on the other hand, discriminant validity is established when, based on theory two variables are predicted to be uncorrelated, and the scores obtained by measuring them are indeed empirically found to be so. Some of the ways in which construct validity can be established are through, correlation analysis (establishing
concurrent and predictive validity or convergent or discriminant validity), factor analysis (a multivariate technique that would confirm the dimensions of the technique that would confirm the dimensions of the concept that have been operationally defined, as well as indicating which of the items are most appropriate for each dimension (establishing construct validity) and the multitrait, multimethod matrix of correlations derived from measuring concepts by different forms and different methods, additionally establishing the robustness of the measure (Sekeran, 2003).

The primary objective of the study is to establish key stakeholders in the nation branding process for Zimbabwe, it is important for the study to identify in the process those attributes that are important to nation branding, place branding, city branding and destination branding. Another important feat in construct development is the assessing of validity of the construct especially when the construct is viewed to be multidimensional. The validity of the construct is mainly performed after the activity is completed because, as was the case with questionnaire in this study, because the procedure requires the study to first generate a set of scale measurements for each of the constructs domain components, and the collect data on each of these dimensions. Then statistical analyses to test for content and discriminant validity should follow.

b. The criteria for evaluating measurement: Reliability and validity measurement

Salkind (2012) argues that the researcher can have the most imaginative research questions with a well defined hypothesis, but if the tools he/she uses to measure the behaviour of study are faulty. The reliability (consistency) and validity (does-what-it-should) qualities of a measurement instrument are essential because lack of these qualities lead to rejection of the research hypotheses. Salkind (2012) further argues that measurement tools must be reliable and valid otherwise the researcher might reject correct items for the wrong ones. Reliability and validity are the researcher’s first lines of defence against spurious and incorrect conclusions. If the instrument fails, then everything else down the line fails as well.
c. **Reliability**

Salkind (2012:115) posits that something reliable can be said to be dependable, consistent, stable, trustworthy, predictable, and faithful. Something that is reliable will perform in the future as it has in the past. Reliability occurs when a test measures the same thing more than once and results in the same outcomes. (Salkind, 2012) defines reliability as the extent to which a questionnaire, test, observation or any measurement can produce the same results on repeated trials. It is the stability or consistency of scores over time or across raters. Reliability according to pertains to scores not people, thus, in research it would never be said someone was reliable. The degree to which an individual’s response (their scores) on a survey would stay the same over time is also a sign of reliability. A measure can be perfectly reliable but yet not valid. Sekeran (2003:203) also states that, the reliability of a measure indicates the extend to which it is without bias (error free) and hence ensures consistent measurement across time and across the various items in the instrument. In other words, the reliability of a measure is an indication of the stability and consistency with which the instrument measures the concept and helps to assess the goodness of a measure. Salkind (2012) agrees with Sekeran (2003) and elaborates that there are three aspects of reliability, namely equivalence, stability and internal consistence (homogeneity). Equivalence reliability refers to the amount of agreement between two or more instruments that are administered at nearly the same point in time. Equivalence is measured through parallel forms procedure in which one administers alternative forms of the same measure to either the same group or different groups of respondents. This administration of various forms occur at the same time or following some time delays. The higher the degree of correlation between the two forms, the equivalent they are. Although validity and reliability are independent from each other, they have strong relationships between them. A scale has to be reliable in order for it to be valid, it does not have to be valid in order to be reliable.
d. Test-retest reliability

The primary characteristic of reliability is the assessment of repeatability of a measure, that is, the test-retest technique is a traditional and basic process of approximating reliability. This process should involve repetition of execution of the scale of the same sample of respondents at two different times, or two different samples of respondents and still get the same results. Sekeran (2003:204) emphasizes that, the reliability coefficient obtained with a repetition of the same measure on a second occasion is called test-retest reliability. That is, when a questionnaire containing some items that are supposed to measure a concept is administered to a set of respondents now, and again to the same respondents, say several weeks to six months later, the correlation between the scores obtained at the two different times from one and the same set of respondents is called the test-retest coefficient. The higher it is the better the test-retest reliability, and consequently, the stability of the measure across time. Sekeran (2003) reiterate that, in practical terms, it is very difficult to execute test-retest because deep-rooted behaviour is unlikely to change during a short interval; it is also hard or doubtful whether the original sample (respondents) would agree to participate in an identical test for the second time.

e. Alternative-forms reliability technique

Singh (2007:78) stated that the alternative-forms reliability technique test the reliability of the questionnaire by mixing the questions in the research tool and give it to the same respondents again to assess whether there is any differences in the responses. The test could also be repeated with the same respondents on different dates, but it is expensive and time wasting.

- Internal Consistency Tests

Sekaran, (2003:205) argues that the internal consistence of measures is indicative of the homogeneity of the items in the measure that tap the construct. The items should hang together as a set and be capable of independently measure the same concept so that the respondents attach the same overall meaning to each of the items. This can be
seen by examining if the items and the subsets of items in the measuring instruments are correlated highly. Consistency can be examined through the inter-item consistency reliability and split-half reliability tests. Singh (2007:85) also defined internal consistency as the extent to which a variety of dimensions of a multidimensional construct correlate with the scale. Internal consistency is measured by the split-half test or the coefficient alpha. The split half-test is a technique of splitting halves and is a fundamental process for inspecting internal consistency when a measure contains a large number of objects.

• **Inter-item consistency reliability**
  This is a test of the consistency of respondents’ answers to all the items in a measure. To the degree that items items are independent measures of the same concept, they will be correlated with one another. The most popular test of inter-item consistency reliability is the Cronbach’s coefficient alpha which is used for multipoint- scaled items, and the Kuder-Richardson formulas used for dichotomous items. The higher the coefficients, the better the measuring instrument (Sekaran, 2003:205).

• **Split-half reliability**
  According to Singh (2007) in the split-half method, it is possible for a researcher to determine results from one-half of the scale items (for example odd-numbered items) and confirm them against the outcomes from the other half of the objects (for example even numbered items). The estimation of reliability of internal consistency is done through the grouping of questions that have similarities, or measure the same concept. The split-half and the equivalent form methods evaluate homogeneity or internal consistency rather than stability over time Singh (2007:205).
High correlations show that objects are linked in some way and there is a strong internal consistency hence the higher the correlation, the more consistent and reliable the scale. Although the split-half technique is easy to administer the results are highly dependent on how the halves are split. Researchers commonly use the Cronbach’s alpha to overcome the problems of this technique. Cronbach’s alpha is used to test internal reliability and it correlates performance on each item with an overall score. The Cronbach’s alpha coefficient is used to measure the internal validity and to determine if every one item in the scale correlates with the sum of the remaining items. Bryman & Bell, (2007:307) posit that, the Cronbach’s alpha is the commonly used to measure the internal reliability. The coefficient will vary between 1 (denoting a perfect internal reliability) and 0 (denoting no internal reliability). Bryman and Bell (2007) expressed that the figure 0.5 is typically employed as a rule of thumb to denote an acceptable level of internal reliability, though many researchers and writers a slightly lower figure. For the purpose of this study, an alpha coefficient equal to or greater than 0.4 was considered acceptable and was deemed to indicate good reliability (Bryman & Bell, 2007:164; Sekeran, 2003:307) According to Sekeran, 2003:307) the Cronbach’s alpha examines the average inter-item correlation of the items in a questionnaire where all items measure the issue and this process yields the minimum errors.

f. Validity
O' Leary (2004:61) argues that, validity is premised on the thought that the hypothesis that being studied can be measured, it also seeks to confirm the truth and accuracy of this measured and captured ‘data’, as well as the authenticity and exactness of any conclusions or findings drawn for the data. Sekeran (2003:206) augmented O' Leary (2004) by indicating that, validity is aimed at determining whether we are indeed measuring the concept we set out to measure in the beginning and whether the data collected gives an accurate interpretation of what is being analysed. Sekeran (2003) maintains that for the sake of clarity, validity tests can be classified into three main classes; content validity, criterion-related validity and construct validity.
• **Content Validity**
  Sekeran (2003:206) elaborates that content validity ensures that, the measure includes an adequate and representative set of items that tape the concept. According to Sekeran (2003), the more the scale items represent the domain or universe of the concept being measured, the greater the content validity. Content validity is a function of how well the dimensions and elements of a concept have been delineated.

  Straub et al (2004: 380-427) defined content validity or face validity as the degree to which items in an instrument reflect the content universe to which the instrument will be generalised. (Singh 2007:79) contends that, validity is the scope to which the content of a measurement scale seems to tap all relevant facets of an issue that can influence respondents' attitudes. It is expected during that during the preliminary stages of the assessment and refinement of the scale some items might fallout, and there is therefore a need to include enough items for each domain in order cover up for any fallouts.

• **Criterion-related Validity**
  Sekeran (2003:206) stresses that, criterion-related validity is established when the measure differentiates individuals on a criterion on a criterion it is expected to predict. There are two types of criterion-related validity - concurrent and predictive validity. Concurrent validity assesses how the effects from one scale correspond with the results from another, when the scale measures the same trend at the same point in time that if the correlation is high, the instruments are said to have concurrent validity. Churchill and Iacobucci (2002:408) points out that, the researcher needs to establish the extent of relationship in the form of a correlation coefficient among the scores of the measuring scale and the criterion variable.
Predictive validity is the ability of the measure to forecast a future occurrence. According to Sekeran (2003) predictive validity indicates the ability of the measuring instrument to differentiate among individuals with reference to a future criterion. Predictive validity analyses how well one variable predicts the eventuality of an incident in the future.

- **Construct Validity**
  Sekeran (2003:207) notes that, construct validity testifies to how well the results obtained from the use of the measure fit the theories around which the test is designed. This is assessed through converge and discriminant validity. Constructs are highly conceptual and intangible dimensions. As a result of their being abstract and subtle in nature, for example the entertainment industry or cultural elements they can only be measured indirectly using key antecedents of the concepts. Consequently the noticeable antecedents that hypothetically demonstrate the existence of the construct have to be considered for measurement. Conversely, if the theory is not correct there will be no association between the entertainment industry and sports tourism, cultural tourism and hospitality in the nation branding initiative for Zimbabwe as purported in this study. In order to minimise this problem, researchers use more constructs on each measure rather than just one. Assessment of correlations will be done through a computer package.

- **Discriminant Validity**
  Sekeran (2003:207) also describes discriminant validity as the converse of convergent validity and is established when, based on theory two variables are predicted to be uncorrelated, and scores obtained by measuring them are indeed empirically found to be so. According to Sekeran (2003), validity can be established in different ways; correlational analysis (as in the case on establishing concurrent and predictive validity or convergent and discriminant validity). Factor
analysis, (a multivariate technique that would confirm the dimensions of
the construct validity), and the multitrait, multimethod matrix of
correlations derived from measuring concepts by different forms and
different methods additionally establishing the robustness of the
measure.

- **Factor Analysis**
  Factor analysis is a multivariate statistical technique that is used for
  reducing information contained in a large number of variables into a
  smaller number of subsets each describing a particular dimension of a
  concept (Shiu, Hair, Bush, and Ortinam 2009:30). Shiu et al. (2009)
  noted that in factor analysis, there is no peculiarity between dependent
  and independent variables, all dimensions under examination are
  analysed simultaneously to categorise fundamental variables.

- **Factor Loading**
  Shiu et al. (2009) maintain that factor loading is important for
  interpreting factor analysis. Factor loading can vary between (+1.0 to -
  1.0). Identification of a factor amongst different items is through
  selection of those dimensions with high factor loading and leaving out
  those with low factor loading. The variables with a high factor loading
  are considered to be “like” and those with zero or near zero loading are
  treated as being “not like” the factor. According to Hair, Black, Babin,
  Anderson, & Tatham (2006:128), 0.35 For the purpose of this study
  only those factors that are equal or above 0.4 were considered to
  confirm the validity of the items testing variables of the study.

6.7.3 Principal Factor Analysis and Principal Component Analysis
Hardy and Bryman (2009:28) point out that, there are a number of different
procedures for exploratory factors. The two most commonly used are principal
factors and principal components or axes. Hardy and Bryman (2009) believe that, in
principal component analysis variability in an article must be utilised in the analysis,
while in principal factor analysis the variability in an item that it has in common with
other items should be utilised. In most cases the two scales frequently produce highly related outcomes. However, principal component analysis is frequently favoured as a technique for data analysis, while the principal factor analysis is usually utilised if the purpose of the study is to detect structures. Variables are identified based upon the correlation matrix of factors and develop a number of items that efficiently reduce the interrelationships within the variables. A number of variables are thus obtained that can be used in subsequent stages of analysis. Research with uncorrelated components that normally are not independent components that require independent component analysis.

- Factor Rotation
  Zikmund, (2000:235) believes that, he rotational process cleans the data set by removing factors that are incompatible. As indicated by Churchill and Iacobucci (2002) factor rotation alters the total variance explained by the retained factors but shift the relative percentages explained by each factor, this is done to obtain a clear pattern of loading, which noticeably marks high loading of some factors and low loading of others. VARIMAX is commonly used for this purpose because of its robustness and simplicity in interpretation of the factors (Churchill & Iacobucci 2002:809). The generalizability of findings from a principal component analysis, cross-validation should be carried out in order to test the stability of the factor structure. This is done through splitting the sample randomly into two sub samples, do a principal component analysis and internal consistency analysis on each half and compare these results to the total data set. If the communalities and the factor loadings are found to be the same in the analysis of each half and the full data set, it would be evidence that the findings were generalizable and valid because, in effect, the two analyses represent a study and a replication.

- Naming of Factors
  The process is highly subjective where critical examination and selection of factors that load is done rather than relying on the naming process that is implemented by other people Churchill and Iacobucci (2002). Naming of
factors follows an examination of variables that load, to which factors. Churchill and Iacobucci (2002) sketched the subsequent procedure for factor loading, which is done by identifying the first variable and first factor in the rotated factor-loading matrix and which would then be moved horizontally from left to right, isolating the highest loading.

- **Correlation Analysis**
  Correlation analysis denotes a statistical technique that is used for determining the level of proximity of association among two or more variables Churchill and Iacobucci, 2002). The correlation amongst factors can be illustrated in numerous ways; these include presence, direction, strength of association and type. The first issue is to determine whether two or more variables are related at all. A high degree of correlation does not necessarily signify a cause and effect relationship between variables. Two variables can be highly correlated and yet the relationship may be insignificant. Therefore, correlation analysis conclusions should be based on rationality and intellectual analysis, and not only on mathematical results.

- **Analysis of Variance**
  Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is an exceptionally valuable methodology used in statistical analysis when multiple sample cases are involved. Kerry and Bland (1998) point out that ANOVA allows researchers to undertake concurrent tests; which makes it a highly suitable tool for analysis. Straub et al (2004:355) believed that by using ANOVA a researcher could make inferences on whether the samples have been draw from populations having the same mean. ANOVA is fundamentally a process for testing dissimilarities amongst diverse groups of data for homogeneities. There may be variation between samples and within sample items, and ANOVA assists in splitting the variance for analytical purposes.

Through the application of ANOVA the research can help to explain whether all the identified key stakeholders have an active input towards
nation branding for Zimbabwe or whether nation branding for Zimbabwe can be a success without involving all the key stakeholders in the process. The ANOVA technique can be used to investigate any number of variables that may have been hypothesised or that are believed to have an influence on the dependent variable. Cooper and Schindler (2003:546) argue that, a researcher can use ANOVA to investigate the differences amongst diverse categories contained by each of these factors that may have large numbers of possible values. A single factor may be initiated to determine differences with other variables, this is called one-way ANOVA and if two variables are analysed (as is the case in this study) the process is called two-way ANOVA. In a situation where there are more than two-way ANOVA, the interaction if any, between two independent variables affecting a dependent variable can be studied as well for better decision making.

- Analysis of Covariance
  To make sure that the results observed in this study are ascribed to the treatment of variables and not to any other causal circumstances the analysis of covariance was also used. The use of this technique removes or reduces the influence of uncontrolled variables, which are usually removed by the simple linear regression method and the residual sums of squares are used to provide variance estimates which concurrently are used for performing tests of significance (Hardy & Bryman, 2009; Sekeran, 2003).

- Regression Analysis
  Regression analysis is a statistical method for achieving the most detailed analysis and measure of linear or curve-linear relationships between the dependent and independent variables. Sekeran (2003) stated that the relationship between two variables is characterised by how they vary together. The most important process in regression analysis is establishing the regression equation and the regression line representing the equation that describes the share of the relationship between two variables. The relative influence of a large number of independent variables is measured by multiple regression analysis. Multiple regression analysis demonstrates the comparative significance simply of the predictors that have been
involved in analysis and for the respondents on whom data is available. According to Singh (2007), multiple regression analysis is an appropriate technique to use in these situations. Multiple regression equations are entered into the regression equation and for each variable a separate regression coefficient is calculated that describes its relationship with the dependent variable. According to Zidmund (2000) in multiple regression analysis a data matrix exists that is used for determining inter-correlations amongst predictor variables and correlation of predictors with one or more criterion variables. Multiple regression analysis was used to examine the relationship between the dimensions of the entertainment industry, cultural elements, stakeholders, branding attributes and nation hope, nation building and nation competitiveness.

6.8 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

The entertainment Industry, cultural elements, stakeholders, branding attributes, nation hope, nation competitiveness, and nation building are the key dimensions in the questionnaire. Questionnaires were used to collect data that measures the perceptions of key stakeholders on nation branding for Zimbabwe.

All questionnaire items were linked to a five-point Likert-type scale. Five response options, namely, strongly disagree, disagree, indifferent, agree and strongly agree were used to score the responses to each questionnaire item.

- **The Entertainment industry**
  This variable is dependent on the existence of sports tourism, cultural tourism and hospitality, which were measured by a five point item scales respectively that were linked to a five-item Likert Scale.

- **Cultural elements**
  A five-item scale and a five-item Likert scale measure this independent variable towards its influence to nation branding.
• **Stakeholders**
  This is an independent variable that is measured by a four-item scale and a five-item Likert scale to indicate the role that stakeholders play in nation branding.

• **Brand attributes**
  One of the independent variables measured in this study, branding attributes have an influence and bearing on the nation branding process. Factor analysis was used to find their relationship to nation branding especially to the Zimbabwe situation. Data was analysed using multiple regression techniques. A five item scale was used for the branding attributes and a five item Likert scale.

• **Nation hope**
  Nation hope is a dependent variable that is influenced by the independent variables mentioned above. Respondents evaluated the effects of nation branding independent variables to nation hope consisting of six items linked to a five-point Likert scale.

• **Nation building**
  This is the second dependent variable that is influenced by the independent variables. Respondents evaluated the effects of nation branding independent variables to nation building on scale consisting of six items linked to a five-point Likert-type scale.

• **Nation competitive advantage**
  This is the third dependent variable that is influenced by the independent variables. Respondents evaluated the effects of nation branding independent variables to nation competitive advantage on scale consisting of six items linked to a five-point Likert-type scale.

### 6.9 INSTRUMENTS USED FOR THE DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF THE RESPONDENTS

Demographic variables were measured to evaluate their effects on the respondents’ perceptions towards nation branding for Zimbabwe. A single-item instrument was
used for all selected individual variables. A two-to ten-point response scale is used for all selected variables.

- **Employment title**
  Position in the organisation was measured with a five-point scale namely:
  1= Ministry Officer
  2= Chief Executive Officer
  3= Manager
  4= Assistant Manager
  5= Supervisor

Table 6.1 Shows that 26% were Ministry officers, 10% were Chief Executive Officers, 36% were Managers, 17% were Assistant Managers and 11% were supervisors.

- **Gender**
  1 = Male
  2 = Female

Table 6.1 revealed the majority of the respondents 36% were females and 64% were males.

- **Age group**
  1=30 to 41 years
  2=42 to 53 years
  3=54 to 65 years
  4=65+ years

Table 6.1 revealed that 27% of respondents were within the 30-41 age group, 35% were within the 42-53 age group, 35% were in the 54-65 age group and 13% of the respondents fitted within the 65 and above age group.
• **Educational level**
  1= 0 Level  
  2= Diploma  
  3=Bachelor’s degree  
  4=Post Graduate degree/diploma  
  5=Other

A single-item instrument was used to measure educational qualifications. Each respondent was asked to indicate his/her highest educational qualification. Table 6.1 reveals that 0.64% of the respondents have ordinary level qualifications, 26% have diplomas in their respective trades, 33% have Bachelor’s degrees, 40% have Post graduate degrees/diplomas and 0.36% have other qualifications not mentioned in the above categories.

• **Period at current employment**
  1=1-5 years  
  2=6-10 years  
  3=11-15 years  
  4=16-20 years  
  5=21+ years

A single-item instrument was used to measure the period spent by each individual respondent on the current employment. Table 6.1 reveals that 23% of the respondents have stayed at their current job for periods ranging from 1-5 years, 19% have stayed for about 6-10 years, 16% have stayed for a period 11-15 years, 26% have stayed between 16-20 years and 16% have stayed for 21 and above years in their current employment.

• **Type of industry**
  1= Education and culture  
  2 = Tourism and hospitality  
  3= Sports  
  4 = international trade and integration  
  5= Trade and Commerce  
  6 = Mining  
  7= SMEs  
  8 = Media
A single-item instrument was used to measure the type of industry each of the respondents' organisation falls under. Table 6.1 reveals that 3.49% of the respondents were from the education and culture type of industry, 6.03% sports 19.68% of the respondents fall under trade and commerce. 13.02% were coming from the SMEs related organisation 10.16% ICT, 13.33% were coming from tourism related organisations, 13.65% of the respondents were coming from international trade and integration, 3.49% were from the mining related organisation, 4.13% were from media related organisation and 13.02% were coming from privately owned organizations.

- **Size of organisation in terms of employees**

  1= 50-99
  
  2= 100-149
  
  3= 200-249
  
  4= Above 250

A single-item instrument was used to measure the number of employees in each of the respondents' organisations. Table 6.1 reveals that 43.37% of the respondents were coming from an organisation with 50-99 employees, 14.24% were coming from organisations with 100-149 employees, 23.30% were from organisations with employees ranging from 150-199, 13.27% 200-249, and 5.82% of the respondents were from organisations with 250 employees and about above.

**6.10 THE LIKERT SCALE**

According to Zikmund (2000:219) the Likert scale is a measure of attitude designed to allow respondents to rate how strongly they agree or disagree with carefully constructed statements ranging from very positive to very negative attitudes toward some object. Neuman (2003:197) argues that, Likert scales are called summated-rating or additive scales because a person's scores on the scale are computed by summing the number of responses the person gives. Respondents indicate their
attitudes by checking how strongly they agree or disagree with the statements respondents maybe asked whether they approve or disapprove, or whether they believe something is almost always true. The scale gives room for a neutral category like, don’t know, undecided, no opinion in additional to the directional categories. A neutral category implies an odd number of categories. In this study the neutral category was represented by an indifferent answer.

Some of the questions in the questionnaire were scored in reverse. The reason for switching directions was to avoid the problem of the response set. According Neuman (2003) the response set also called response style and response bias is the tendency of some people to answer a large number of items in the same way (usually agreeing) out of laziness or a psychological predisposition. The statements in the questionnaire were also worded in alternative direction so that those who agree all the time appears to answer inconsistently or to have a contradictory opinion.

6.11 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

There are two forms of data collection and these are primary and secondary data collection techniques. Leedy and Ormrod (2005) identified data as the information that lies closest to the source of the ultimate truth underlying the phenomena. For the purpose of this study primary data was collected from the sample survey whilst secondary data was collected from books, the worldwide web (internet) and professional journals by various authors. The researcher distributed three hundred and fifty questionnaires to the respondents by hand and collected them again by hand after a period ranging between two and three weeks.

6.12 DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS, AND INTERPRETATION

6.12.1 Data presentation

In this study data was presented with the aid of tables, graphs and pie charts. These techniques allowed the researcher to summarize and to express quantitatively the strengths of relationships. The careful classification, organization and combination of field notes (questionnaires) required patient checking and cross checking and the application of systematic techniques.
6.12.2 Data interpretation

Interpretation simply means that after the data have been accumulated and processed, arranged into categories, converted to graphical presentation, analyzed statistically or by any other means of manipulation there must be finally a discovery of the meaning of the data items. In this study data was interpreted manually with the help of tables, graphs and pie charts generated through the help of computer programmes such as Microsoft Office Excel 2010 and Microsoft Office word 2010 computer packages and with the help of specialist statistician.

6.13 SUMMARY

This chapter outlined the methods of research used to gather data. These are research design, population of study and sampling. Data collection procedures used to collect data in the study, data presentation, analysis and interpretation were also looked at in this chapter. The research methodology and steps used in this study follow a structured design developed by Churchill and Iacobucci (2002:449). The sampling procedures, research instrument and measurement processes were evaluated in detail. This chapter also described the reliability and validity of measurement techniques, focusing on the constituency and stability of the scale. The procedure in the use of factor analysis (Exploratory Factor Analysis) and correlation (Analysis of Covariance) as data reduction methods were briefly explored. The following chapter deals with the full analysis and evaluation of the study.
CHAPTER 7
EMPIRICAL EVALUATION OF THE STUDY

7.1 INTRODUCTION
This chapter focuses on the results of reliability and validity assessments of the questionnaire used to gather data in this study. The chapter also reports on the results of the empirical evaluation and analysis of the perception of key stakeholders in the nation branding process for Zimbabwe.

7.2 SUMMARY OF THE EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION OBJECTIVES
The research investigated and analysed perceptions of stakeholders regarding nation branding for Zimbabwe. The research and analysis will be based on the key variables of nation branding in Figure 7.1 below. The study will provide useful insights into identifying key aspects related to the branding of a nation, country, place, or destination. The questionnaire in this study was aimed at collecting data pertaining to the perceptions of key stakeholders regarding nation branding for Zimbabwe. Based on the purpose of this study, the hypotheses will be stated again in order to put the study into perspective:

7.3 THE HYPOTHESES CONCERNING NATION BRANDING FOR ZIMBABWE ARE:

H₀¹ There is no relationship between entertainment events and nation branding for Zimbabwe.
H₀² There is no relationship between cultural elements and nation branding for Zimbabwe.
H₀³ There is no relationship between stakeholders and nation branding for Zimbabwe.
H₀⁴ There is no relationship between nation branding attributes and nation branding for Zimbabwe.
H₀⁵ There is no relationship between nation branding and attainment of nation hope for Zimbabwe.
H₀⁶ There is no relationship between nation branding and nation building for Zimbabwe.
There is no relationship between nation branding and attainment of nation competitive advantage for Zimbabwe. The empirically tested hypotheses are depicted on Figure 7.1

**Figure 7.1: Theoretical nation branding model for Zimbabwe**

![Diagram of the theoretical nation branding model for Zimbabwe]

### 7.4 DATA ANALYSIS RESULTS

The data analysis consisted of four distinct phases and the empirical results will be as follows:

- the objective of the first phase of data analysis was to assess the internal reliability of the measuring instruments used. This was done by calculating the Cronbach alpha values of each instrument, using the computer programme SPSS Bryman and Bell (2007:162),

- the second phase of the statistical analysis evaluated the convergent validity of the various instruments used to measure the constructs under
consideration. Validity was verified by means of factor analysis procedures, which were used to assess whether individual items are indeed separate measures of the underlying dimensions they are supposed to measure,

- during the third phase the influence of independent variables on the dependent variables specified in the model depicted in Figure 7.1 were evaluated through multiple regression, and

- the objective of the fourth phase was to test the hypothesised relationships

Table 7.1 Abbreviations of variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment Industry</td>
<td>ENT IND</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Elements</td>
<td>CL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stakeholders</td>
<td>SH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceptions of Nation Branding</td>
<td>PBA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nation Hope</td>
<td>NH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nation Building</td>
<td>NB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nation Competitive Advantage</td>
<td>CA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.4.1 Internal reliability of instruments

The Cronbach alpha coefficient was used to assess the internal validity and consistency of the measuring instruments and STATISTICA (Version 10) computer package was used for that purpose. According to Hair, Money, Samouel, and Page, (2007:244) researchers normally consider an alpha of 0.5 as the cut off point, although lower coefficients may be accepted depending on the research objectives. There are three factors involved when considering whether a measure is reliable and these are; stability, internal reliability and inter-observer consistency. For the purpose of this study, an alpha coefficient equal to or greater than 0.4 (≥0.4) was considered acceptable and was deemed to indicate good reliability. The acceptance of a value ≥0.4 was in accordance with writings of (Hair, et al. 2007:244) Sekaran, 2003:307).
Table 7.2: Cronbach alpha values of measuring instruments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measuring Instrument</th>
<th>Cronbach alpha Values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EI</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SH</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PNB</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NH</td>
<td>0.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NB</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CA</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results in Table 7.2 show that all the variables have Cronbach alpha values greater than the cut off-point (0.4) and as a result, they are all retained for further analysis.

7.4.2 Descriptive statistics
Zikmund and Babin (2010:622) distinguish descriptive statistics as the elementary transformation of data in a way that describes the basic characteristics such as central tendency, distribution and variability. Descriptive statistics can summarise responses from large numbers of respondents into a few simple statistics. The Table 7.3 shows the descriptive statistics of the variable that were measured on a five-point Likert scale. The degree at which each respondent agreed or disagreed with the statements in the questionnaire is indicated by selecting from given options ranging from one to five. The Likert scale in the questionnaire was given as (1-strongly disagree; 2-disagree; 3-indifferent; 4-agree and 5-strongly agree).

Table 7.3 shows that respondents feel that ‘tourists attraction’ contributes to nation branding with a mean score of 4.14. This means that respondents perceive that among others, a pleasant climate, successful hosting and winning of mega events such as World Cup and regional tournaments of several sporting disciplines will help to boost the tourism industry and economy in general. Table 7.3 shows that ‘entertainment events’ have a mean value of 4.07 and a standard deviation of 0.60. This means that, respondents believe that the hosting of mega events attracts investors and tourists into the country and that Zimbabwe has established attractions capable of hosting world events. Stakeholders have a mean score of 3.31 which
means that, respondents felt that the absence of limitation by government on proceeds such as profit generated by foreign investors does not enhance strategic alliance with foreign investors. Also national policies regarding ownership and taxation of foreign owned companies does not promote foreign investment. Respondents indicated that they were indifferent to the influence of ‘hospitality’ to nation branding. With a mean score of 3.37 and a standard deviation of 0.58 it means that, among other things, respondents believe that, they do have all they need in order for them to enjoy life. As a result they do not need foreigners to join them thereby preventing investors and talented professionals from coming into the country. Respondents also felt that the seizure of properties by government without proper and adequate compensation does not attract investors into the country.

Table 7.3 shows that the ‘cultural elements’ has a mean score value of 3.37 and a standard deviation value of 0.58. This means that, respondents felt that cultural tourism is not a basis for preserving a nation’s heritage and the Zimbabwean cultural events do not attract people from various countries into the country. Table 7.3 shows that ‘perceptions of nation branding’ have a mean score of 3.91 and a standard deviation of 0.64. This means that, among other things, respondents believed that Zimbabwean products bring pleasant memories into their minds and will always prefer local brand to foreign brands. Nation building has a mean score of 3.44 and standard deviation of 0.69. This means that respondents felt that Zimbabwean inhabitants always strive to be a united society in the eyes of national trading and that the economic environment in Zimbabwe promotes foreign investment.

Good Governance has a mean score of 4.09 and a standard deviation of 0.78. This means that respondents felt that Zimbabwe has a competent human capital and an education system that is capable of producing a workforce with high entrepreneurial skills and professionals, among other things. Table 7.3 shows that ‘competitive advantage’ has a mean value of 3.93 and a standard deviation of 0.61. This means that, respondents felt that the presence of trading partnerships between government and NGOs boosts the national effort in a country and that Zimbabwe is capable of attracting tourists into the country.
7.4.3 Validity of measurement instruments

The Assessment of correlations was done by utilising a computer package. The next step in the data analysis was the assessment of the validity of all the variables indicated in Table 7.2. Construct validity is a scale evaluation criterion that relates to the question that probes the actual meaning of the nature of the underlying variable or construct measured by the scale. In other words, it deals with accuracy by providing an indication of the degree of the relationship between the instrument and the construct measured. Construct validity can be segmented into sub-categories namely, discriminant, convergent, nomo-logical and face validity.

- Convergent Validity

According to Singh (2007:79) convergent validity relates to the degree to which the measured items are believed to embody a construct that would converge on the same construct. This means that items of a specific factor they measure should converge and be related. Therefore, all factor loadings must be statistically significant at a minimum, to confirm the convergent validity of the measuring instrument used in the study.

The computer programmes Microsoft Excel, STATISTICA (Version 10.0) According to Hair et al (2006:128-129), it is possible to use a loading of 0.35

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Means</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tourists attraction</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>0.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment events</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stakeholders</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>0.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospitality</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural elements</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceptions of nation branding</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nation Building</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Governance</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competitive advantage</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
for their respondents, but in this study only those factors that above 0.4 were considered to confirm convergent validity as loadings greater than 0.4 is significant.

7.4.4 Perceptions of respondents towards tourist attractions, entertainment events, stakeholders, hospitality, and cultural elements

Table 7.4 shows that respondents did not perceive the individual underlying dimensions of ‘tourism attractions’ as separate dimensions. This means that respondents view ‘tourist attractions’ as a single construct and this is reflected as such in Figure 7.2. Three (ST1, ST2 and ST5) of the five items that are expected to measure Sports tourism (ST) also (CT3, H3, VN1, VN2, VN5, R3, E2, E3 and LC6) all loaded on factor one (1) and these items are now termed ‘tourist attractions’. One item (ST3) expected to measure ‘sports tourism’ loaded on factor two (2) and other items (E1, E2, M4, M5, ME3, H4 and LC5) all loaded to factor two (2) and are now termed ‘entertainment events’. Four items out of the seven intended to measure government intervention (GI2, GI4, GI5, and GI7) as well as other items as (VN4, R5, LC4, IP1, IP2, IP3, IP4, l1, l2 and M20 all loaded to factor three and are now termed ‘stakeholders’. One item out of four that were intended to measure hospitality, (H1) as well as (ME2, ME5, and GI) all loaded on factor four (4) and are now termed ‘hospitality’. Table 7.4 also shows that, respondents did not perceive the individual underlying dimensions of ‘cultural elements’ as separate dimensions. Two items meant to measure cultural tourism (CT1 and CT4) as well as (VN3 and R1) are all loaded on factor 5 and are now termed cultural elements. The minimum number of items for loading per factor is three.

- **Factor analysis**
  Zikmund and Babin (2010:625) defined factor analysis as a prototypical multivariate, interdependency technique of statistically identifying a reduced number of factors from a larger number of measured variables. Factor analysis is considered a data reduction technique. It allows the researcher to summarise information from many variables into a reduced set of variates or composite variables. Factor analysis accomplishes data reduction by
capturing variance from many variables with a single variate (Zikmund and Babin 2010). Data reduction is also a way of identifying which variables among a large set might be important in some analysis. Thus data reduction simplifies decision making. Very low loadings suggest that a variable does not contribute much to the factor. Factor analysis is commonly used to reduce the number of variables that need to be included in a regression analysis. For example, a set of 24 variables may be factor analysed and the results used to create 4 independent variables. The variables could each be represented by a summated or averaged scale for each modelled variable.

According to Zikmund and Babin (2010) the factors themselves are not measured, but instead they are identified by a variate using the measured variables. Factors are usually latent constructs like attitudes or satisfaction or an index like social class. Factor analysis can be divided into two: exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and conformatory factor analysis (CFA) (Zikmund and Babin 2010:625).

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is performed when the researcher is uncertain about how many factors may exist among a set of variables, and conformatory factor analysis (CFA) is performed when the researcher has a strong theoretical expectations about the factor structure before performing the analysis. According to Zikmund and Babin (2010) CFA is the best single tool for assessing construct validity. One big advantage is that, CFA provides a test of how well the researcher's 'theory' about the factor structure fits the natural observations.

- **Factor loading**

Zikmund and Babin (2010:626) point out that a factor loading indicates how strongly correlated is a factor is with a measured variable. In other words, to what extent does a variable load on a factor. Zikmund and Babin (2010) maintain that EFA depends on the loadings for proper interpretation. The interpretation of a latent construct can be based on the pattern of loadings and the content of the variables. In this way, the latent construct is measured
indirectly by the variables. Loading estimates are provided by factor analysis programmes. For the purpose of this study the factor loading of three items per factor is considered significant and any factors that fail to load three and more items are considered insignificant and as such will be deleted and ignored for any further analysis.

- **Perceptions of Management towards influences of nation branding**

Table 7.4 above shows that three of the five items meant to measure sports tourism (ST1, ST2, ST5) as well as one item out of four items meant to measure cultural tourism (CT3) loaded on factor one. Table 7.4 also shows that one item out of four items that were meant to measure hospitality (H3) as well as three of the five items (VN1, VN2, VN5) meant to measure values and norms all loaded on factor one. One item out of five items that were meant to measure religion (R3), two items out of five that were meant to measure education (E2, E3) and one item (LC6) meant to measure language and communication all loaded on factor one. This means that respondents viewed all these items as a single construct ‘tourist attractions’.

One item out of the six that were meant to measure sports tourism (ST3), one of the items meant to measure hospitality (H4) loaded factor two, while one item intended to measure sports tourism (ST4) cross loaded and was deleted and no further analysis was done on the item. The table shows that one item out of the six that were intended to measure material elements (ME3), two items that were meant to measure education (E1, E4) all loaded on factor two, whilst one factor measuring material elements (ME6) cross loaded and was deleted and no further analysis was done on the item. One item out of six that were intended to measure language and communication (LC5) loaded to factor two. One item out of seven (GI6) that were intended to measure government intervention cross loaded and was deleted and no further analysis was made. Table 7.4 shows that two items out of five that were intended to measure media (M4, M5) loaded on factor two. This means that respondents viewed these items as a single construct ‘entertainment events’.
Table 7.4 shows that one item out of the five items that was meant to measure values and norms (VN4) as well as one item out of the five that were intended to measure religion (R5) were all loaded on factor three. One item out of the six (LC4) that were intended to measure language and communication and four out of seven items intended to measure government intervention (GI2-GI7) all loaded to factor three. The table shows that four out of the five items meant to measure individual and private enterprises (IP1-IP4), three items out of the four that were intended to measure investors (I2, I3, I4) and one item out of the five items meant to measure media (M2) were all loaded on factor three. This means that respondents viewed these items as a single item, ‘stakeholders’.

Table 7.4 shows that one item out of the four that were measuring hospitality (H1) as well as two items out of the six that were intended to measure material elements (ME2, ME5) were all loaded on factor four. (ME5) loaded with a negative sign, (the statement in the questionnaire suggested that the Zimbabwean inhabitants believed they do not have everything they need to enjoy life) the response rate was high though in the negative, as they believe they have everything they need to enjoy life. One item out of the seven items meant to measure government intervention (GI1) was loaded on factor four. The item loaded with a negative sign, the item in the questionnaire, which implied that the absence of the seizing of assets by authority without compensation attracts foreign investors. In reality, the period of study was characterised by the seizure of assets by the Zimbabwean government, a practice that drove investors out of the country. Respondents indicated that the seizer of assets without compensation does not lure but chases investors away. This means that respondents viewed these items as a single construct ‘hospitality’. Table 7.4 shows that two of the items meant to measure cultural tourism (CT1, CT4), one item out five that were measuring values and norms (VN3) and one item out of five that measured religion (R1) all loaded on factor five. This means that respondents viewed intended the items as a single item ‘cultural elements’.
Table 7.4 shows that there are, however, some items that failed to load significantly on any of the five factors, (CT2, H2, ME1, ME4, R2, R4, E5, LC1, LC2, LC3, GI3, IP5, I1, M1, M3) all could not load, so they were deleted and no further analysis done.

**Table 7.4: Factor loadings: Perceptions of management of influences of nation branding**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
<th>Factor 4</th>
<th>Factor 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tourists attraction</td>
<td>ST1</td>
<td>0.597</td>
<td>0.214</td>
<td>0.050</td>
<td>0.158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ST2</td>
<td>0.571</td>
<td>0.097</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td>-0.049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ST5</td>
<td>0.616</td>
<td>-0.069</td>
<td>0.140</td>
<td>-0.182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CT3</td>
<td>0.412</td>
<td>0.308</td>
<td>-0.020</td>
<td>0.231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>H3</td>
<td>0.595</td>
<td>0.064</td>
<td>-0.110</td>
<td>0.115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VN1</td>
<td>0.519</td>
<td>0.132</td>
<td>-0.037</td>
<td>0.046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VN2</td>
<td>0.572</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.152</td>
<td>-0.096</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VN3</td>
<td>0.645</td>
<td>-0.042</td>
<td>0.094</td>
<td>-0.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R3</td>
<td>0.668</td>
<td>-0.065</td>
<td>0.163</td>
<td>0.187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E2</td>
<td>0.409</td>
<td>0.378</td>
<td>-0.192</td>
<td>0.085</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E3</td>
<td>0.440</td>
<td>0.247</td>
<td>0.041</td>
<td>0.315</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LC6</td>
<td>0.479</td>
<td>-0.135</td>
<td>0.359</td>
<td>-0.125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ST3</td>
<td>0.272</td>
<td>0.553</td>
<td>-0.110</td>
<td>0.100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>H4</td>
<td>-0.004</td>
<td>0.570</td>
<td>-0.048</td>
<td>-0.079</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ME3</td>
<td>-0.148</td>
<td>-0.554</td>
<td>0.143</td>
<td>0.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E1</td>
<td>-0.061</td>
<td>0.540</td>
<td>0.394</td>
<td>-0.143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E4</td>
<td>0.168</td>
<td>0.559</td>
<td>0.128</td>
<td>-0.218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LC5</td>
<td>-0.340</td>
<td>0.450</td>
<td>0.210</td>
<td>0.087</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M4</td>
<td>-0.002</td>
<td>0.462</td>
<td>0.211</td>
<td>0.321</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M5</td>
<td>0.063</td>
<td>0.829</td>
<td>0.008</td>
<td>-0.135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VN4</td>
<td>-0.037</td>
<td>0.311</td>
<td>0.648</td>
<td>-0.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R5</td>
<td>-0.109</td>
<td>0.189</td>
<td>0.416</td>
<td>-0.062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LC4</td>
<td>0.379</td>
<td>0.044</td>
<td>0.423</td>
<td>-0.240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VARIABLES</td>
<td>INDIVIDUAL ITEMS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourist attractions</td>
<td>ST1, ST2, ST5, CT3, H3, VN1, VN2, VN4, R3, E2, E3, LC6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment events</td>
<td>ST3, H4, ME3, E1, E4, LC5, M4, M5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stakeholders</td>
<td>VN4, R5, LC4, GI2, GI4, GI5, GI7, IP1, IP2, IP3, IP4, I2, I3, I4, M2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospitality</td>
<td>H1, ME2, ME5, GI1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural elements</td>
<td>CT1, CT4, VN3, R1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Loadings greater than 0.4 were considered significant

Table 7.5:  Empirical factor structure: influences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GI2</th>
<th>0.075</th>
<th>0.102</th>
<th>0.493</th>
<th>-0.335</th>
<th>0.145</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GI4</td>
<td>-0.007</td>
<td>0.092</td>
<td>0.440</td>
<td>-0.226</td>
<td>-0.076</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GI5</td>
<td>-0.131</td>
<td>-0.144</td>
<td>0.429</td>
<td>-0.068</td>
<td>0.189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GI7</td>
<td>0.224</td>
<td>-0.047</td>
<td>0.501</td>
<td>0.082</td>
<td>-0.232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IP1</td>
<td>0.033</td>
<td>0.159</td>
<td>0.451</td>
<td>-0.186</td>
<td>-0.378</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IP2</td>
<td>0.105</td>
<td>0.312</td>
<td>0.536</td>
<td>0.122</td>
<td>-0.049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IP3</td>
<td>0.203</td>
<td>-0.078</td>
<td>0.603</td>
<td>-0.021</td>
<td>-0.151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IP4</td>
<td>0.233</td>
<td>-0.047</td>
<td>0.626</td>
<td>0.118</td>
<td>-0.214</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I2</td>
<td>0.149</td>
<td>-0.076</td>
<td>0.644</td>
<td>0.131</td>
<td>-0.205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I3</td>
<td>0.158</td>
<td>-0.224</td>
<td>0.614</td>
<td>-0.037</td>
<td>-0.186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>0.169</td>
<td>0.186</td>
<td>0.521</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M2</td>
<td>-0.137</td>
<td>-0.051</td>
<td>0.571</td>
<td>0.067</td>
<td>0.029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1</td>
<td>-0.154</td>
<td>0.265</td>
<td>0.112</td>
<td>0.585</td>
<td>-0.301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ME2</td>
<td>0.096</td>
<td>-0.020</td>
<td>0.365</td>
<td>0.449</td>
<td>0.080</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ME5</td>
<td>-0.010</td>
<td>0.063</td>
<td>0.060</td>
<td>-0.637</td>
<td>0.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GI1</td>
<td>0.174</td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td>-0.512</td>
<td>-0.241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CT1</td>
<td>0.225</td>
<td>0.139</td>
<td>-0.301</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td>-0.478</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CT4</td>
<td>-0.098</td>
<td>0.078</td>
<td>-0.143</td>
<td>-0.133</td>
<td>-0.762</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VN3</td>
<td>0.226</td>
<td>0.033</td>
<td>0.056</td>
<td>-0.058</td>
<td>-0.454</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R1</td>
<td>0.118</td>
<td>0.173</td>
<td>-0.076</td>
<td>0.271</td>
<td>-0.408</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

189
Table 7.5 shows all the items that loaded on each factor. The factor loadings in this study were further used to restructure the independent variables and hypotheses presented in the study before the empirical study.

- **Perceptions of Management towards nation branding**
  Table 7.6 shows that twelve of the fifteen items that were expected to measure nation branding (PNB2, PNB3, PNB4, PNB5, PNB6, PNB7, PNB8, PNB9, PNB10, PNB11, PNB12, PNB13,) were loaded on factor one (1). This means that respondents viewed the items that loaded on factor one as a single construct ‘perceptions of nation branding’. Only three items that were expected to measure ‘nation branding’ (PNB1, PNB14 and PNB15) did not load and were deleted as they showed insufficient validity and were not considered for further analysis.

**Table 7.6: Factor loading: Perceptions of management for nation branding**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceptions on nation branding</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PNB2</td>
<td>0.403</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PNB3</td>
<td>0.594</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PNB4</td>
<td>0.605</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PNB5</td>
<td>0.639</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PNB6</td>
<td>0.512</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PNB7</td>
<td>0.588</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PNB8</td>
<td>0.624</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PNB9</td>
<td>0.478</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PNB10</td>
<td>0.465</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PNB11</td>
<td>0.614</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PNB12</td>
<td>0.691</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PNB13</td>
<td>0.509</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Loadings greater than 0.4 were considered significant.
Outcomes of the nation branding: Nation hope, nation building and competitive advantage

Table 7.7 indicates that all items that were expected to measure ‘nation building’ (NB1-NB6) and three of the six items (NH2, NH3, NH4) that were expected to measure ‘nation hope’ loaded onto factor one (1). This means that respondents view these items as a single construct termed ‘nation building’. The table shows that one item out of the six that were measuring nation hope (NH6), as well as, two items out of six that were measuring nation competitive advantage (CA1, CA4) loaded on factor two. One item out of the six (NH5) that were measuring nation hope and two factors that were measuring nation competitive advantage loaded to factor three. This means that respondents viewed these items as one construct ‘competitive advantage’.

Table 7.7 Factor loadings: outcomes of nation branding

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nation Building</td>
<td></td>
<td>Good Governance</td>
<td>Competitive Advantage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NH2</td>
<td>0.565</td>
<td>0.065</td>
<td>0.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NH3</td>
<td>0.583</td>
<td>0.167</td>
<td>-0.257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NH4</td>
<td>0.725</td>
<td>0.011</td>
<td>0.019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NB1</td>
<td>0.684</td>
<td>-0.026</td>
<td>0.086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NB2</td>
<td>0.533</td>
<td>0.236</td>
<td>-0.223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NB3</td>
<td>0.664</td>
<td>-0.217</td>
<td>0.317</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NB4</td>
<td>0.787</td>
<td>-0.247</td>
<td>0.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NB5</td>
<td>0.599</td>
<td>0.106</td>
<td>0.288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NB6</td>
<td>0.807</td>
<td>0.080</td>
<td>-0.302</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NH6</td>
<td>-0.171</td>
<td>0.687</td>
<td>0.058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CA1</td>
<td>0.013</td>
<td>0.886</td>
<td>0.178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CA4</td>
<td>0.071</td>
<td>0.768</td>
<td>0.286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NH5</td>
<td>0.034</td>
<td>0.120</td>
<td>0.485</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CA3</td>
<td>-0.043</td>
<td>0.148</td>
<td>0.649</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CA5</td>
<td>0.136</td>
<td>0.021</td>
<td>0.615</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Loadings greater than 0.4 were considered significant.
Table 7.8: Empirical factor structure: Nation branding and outcomes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLES</th>
<th>INDIVIDUAL ITEMS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nation Branding</td>
<td>PNB2, PNB3, PNB4, PNB5, PNB6, PNB7, PNB8, PNB9, PNB10, PNB11, PNB12, PNB13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nation Building</td>
<td>NH2, NH3, NH4, NB1, NB2, NB3, NB4, NB5, NB6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Governance</td>
<td>NH6, CA1, CA4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competitive Advantage</td>
<td>NH5, CA3, CA5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the factor loading of independent and dependent variables there were new adapted model of the study, new independent and dependent variables and new hypotheses in line with respective new changes.
Table 7.9: Empirical factor structure: influences and outcomes of nation branding

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLES</th>
<th>INDIVIDUAL ITEMS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tourist attractions</td>
<td>ST1, ST2, ST5, CT3, H3, VN1, VN2, VN4, R3, E2, E3, LC6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment events</td>
<td>ST3, H4, ME3, E1, E4, LC5, M4, M5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stakeholders</td>
<td>VN4, R5, LC4, GI2, GI4, GI5, GI7, IP1, IP2, IP3, IP4, I2, I3, I4, M2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospitality</td>
<td>H1, ME2, ME5, GI1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural elements</td>
<td>CT1, CT4, VN3, R1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceptions of nation branding</td>
<td>PNB2, PNB3, PNB4, PNB5, PNB6, PNB7, PNB8, PNB9, PNB10, PNB11, PNB12, PNB13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nation Building</td>
<td>NH2, NH3, NH4, NB1, NB2, NB3, NB4, NB5, NB6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Governance</td>
<td>NH6, CA1, CA4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competitive Advantage</td>
<td>NH5, CA3, CA5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 7.2: The adapted model of the relationships among variables based on perceptions of management with regard to nation branding
The empirical structure as summarised in Figure 7.2 is therefore subjected to regression analysis.

7.4.5 Regression Analysis
Regression analysis is utilised to examine factors in circumstances where the intention is to predict one variable based on numerous independent factors. Regression analysis assumes that the correlation involving two variables is linear, that is, an increase in the values on one variable is linked with either an increase (positive relationship) or decrease (negative relationship) on the other variable, and that changes in the value on both variables occur at the same rate (Zikmund and Babin, 2010:618). Churchill & Iacobucii, 2002:72 indicated that having an additional predictor variable is important when predicting human behaviour, particularly when using a statistical technique such as multiple regressions to test theories or models concerning variables that affect behaviour.

Using the modified conceptual model, linear regression analyses were performed to establish the relationships formulated in the relevant set of hypotheses. Linear regression analysis is a technique for measuring the linear association between an independent and a dependent variable. Linear regression analysis assumes that the dependent variable is predictably linked to the preceding variable (Zikmund and Babin, 2010). This means that the researcher could reject or not reject hypotheses based on the regression procedure. According to Wegner (2012:309), in order to evaluate objectively the “success” of the independent variables, in predicting the variation in the dependent variable, a “goodness-of-fit” measure is required. One such measure is the coefficient of determination denoted by R2. The R2 value varies between one and zero.

For the purpose of this study, regression analyses were performed to establish the influence of independent variables to dependent variables. The first level of regression analysis tested the relationship between the independent variables suggested in the model of the study the outcome (dependent) variable ‘nation branding’. The second level of analysis tested the influence of the moderating variable to each of the outcomes (dependent) variables.
• **The influence of independent variables to perception of nation branding**

Table 7.10 shows that $R^2$ of 0.32 explains that 32% variability in the model is explained by the variable ‘nation branding’ (PNB). Table 7.10 shows that ‘tourist attraction’ has a positive relationship with nation branding ($b=0.40; \ p<0.001$). This indicates that respondents feel successful hosting and winning major sport events will help to boost the image of the country and that Zimbabwe has a pleasant climate all year round for tourists and visitors, among other factors. Table 7.10 shows that there is a positive relationship between ‘entertainment events’ and nation branding ($b=0.09; \ p<0.05$). This indicates that respondents feel that hosting of mega events attract foreign investors in the country and that Zimbabwe has established attractions like holiday resorts, shopping malls that are capable of hosting world events.

Stakeholders have a positive relationship with nation branding ($b=0.19; \ p<0.001$). This indicates that authorities realise the role of individuals and private enterprises in the Zimbabwe economy and that there is political stability in Zimbabwe that is favourable to a sustainable economic development. Table 7.10 shows that hospitality has a negative relationship with nation branding ($b=-0.12; \ p<0.001$). This indicates that the respondents believe that the seizure of private properties by authorities without compensation repels the investors. Table 7.10 shows that cultural elements have a positive relationship with nation branding ($b=0.11, \ p<0.01$). This means that respondents believe that Zimbabwe has transport networks capable of conveying tourists from one point to another.
Table 7.10: Regression analysis: The influences of independent variables on nation branding

**REGRESSION SUMMARY FOR INDEPENDENT VARIABLES TO PERCEPTION OF NATION BRANDING**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>b*</th>
<th>Std Err. of b*</th>
<th>b</th>
<th>Std. Err. of b</th>
<th>t(312)</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>0.00000***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourist Attractions (TA)</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>6.94</td>
<td>0.0001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment Events (EE)</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>0.0191*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stakeholders (SH)</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>4.77</td>
<td>0.0001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospitality (H)</td>
<td>-0.17</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>-0.12</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>-3.52</td>
<td>0.0001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Elements (CE)</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>0.0020**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Std Error of estimate</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>56 %</td>
<td>32 %</td>
<td>29.190</td>
<td>0.38249</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

P<0.0000

*=p<0.05

**=*p<0.01

***=*p<0.001

- **The influence of ‘perception of nation branding’ to nation building**

  Table 7.11 shows that nation branding has a positive relationship with nation building (b=0.69, p<0.001). The R² of 0.21 indicates that 21% variability of the study is explained by the variable ‘nation building’ (NB). This indicates that among other factors, respondents believe that Zimbabwe promotes a favourable environment for peace, equal opportunity and economic viability for all its inhabitants, and that Zimbabwe as a nation always creates hope, confidence and pride in the nation’s capabilities, for example, in trading, professionals and tourism.
Table 7.11: Regression summary for the influence of nation branding towards nation building

| REGRESSION SUMMARY FOR PERCEPTIONS OF NATION BRANDING TO NATION BUILDING |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|   | b* | Std Err of b* | b | Std Err of b | t(312) | p-value |
| Intercept | 0.74 | 0.29 | 2.53 | 0.01200 |
| Nation Branding (PNB) | 0.46 | 0.05 | 0.69 | 0.07 | 9.22 | 0.00000 |
| R | R² | F | Std Error of estimate | P |
| 46% | 21% | 85.026 | 0.61330 |

* = p<0.05
** = p<0.01
*** = p<0.001

- The influence of dependent variable ‘perception of nation branding’ to good governance

Table 7.12 shows that there is a positive relationship between branding and good governance (b=0.27, p<0.0000). This means that respondents feel that good governance of global firms is the most important pre-condition for a successful negotiation process of strategic foreign business alliances. In Zimbabwe, there is a competent human capital and the education system is capable of producing a workforce that has high entrepreneurial skills and well-trained professionals.
Table 7.12: Regression summary for the influence of nation branding towards Good Governance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>( b^* )</th>
<th>Std Err of ( b^* )</th>
<th>( b )</th>
<th>Std Err of ( b )</th>
<th>( t(312) )</th>
<th>( p )-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>8.20</td>
<td>0.00000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Branding (DV)</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>0.00415</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \begin{align*} R^2 & = 16\% \quad \text{P}<0.0000 \\
R & = 3\% \quad F = 85.026 \quad \text{Std Error of estimate} = 0.61330 \end{align*} \]

\( ^* = p<0.05 \)

\( ^** = p<0.01 \)

\( ^*** = p<0.001 \)

- The influence of dependent variable ‘perception of nation branding’ to competitive advantage

Table 7.13 shows that there is a positive relationship between branding and competitive advantage \((b=0.44, \ p<0.0000)\). This means that, respondents believe that Zimbabwe is capable of attracting cultural tourists to the country. In addition, the presence of sophisticated infrastructure and technology in Zimbabwe’s tertiary education boosts the image of the country.
Table 7.13: Regression summary for the influence of nation branding towards competitive advantage

| REGRESSION SUMMARY: PERCEPTIONS OF NATION BRANDING ON COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE |
|----------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
|                                  | b*  | Std Err of b* | b   | Std Err of b | t(312) | p-value |
| Intercept                        | 2.21 | 0.28           | 0.44 | 0.07          | 6.24    | 0.00000 |
| Branding (DV)                    | 0.33 | 0.05           | 0.44 | 0.07          | 6.24    | 0.00000 |
| R                                | 33  | 0.11           | 85.026 | 0.61330 |
| R^2                              | 0.11 | 85.026         | 0.61330 |

P<0.0000

*=p<0.05

**=p<0.01

***=p<0.001
FIGURE 7.3: THE SUMMARY OF THE REGRESSION ANALYSIS RESULTS

Tourist Attractions

- b = 0.40, p < 0.01

Nation Building

- b = 0.69, p < 0.01

Entertainment Events

- b = 0.09, p < 0.001

Perceptions of nation branding

- b = 0.19, p < 0.001

Stakeholders

- b = -0.12, p < 0.001

- b = 0.27, p < 0.01

Hospitality

- b = 0.11, p < 0.01

- b = 0.44, p < 0.01

Cultural Elements

- b = 0.44, p < 0.01
7.4.6 Correlation analysis of the hypotheses

Correlation measures the association or the relationship that prevails between two phenomena Walliman (2006:218). Correlation techniques normally respond to three questions about two factors or two sets of data: does a relationship exist between two variables or sets of data? If so, what is the direction of the relationship and what is its magnitude? (Walliman 2006:254). Multi co-linearity and correlation test analyses confirm the appropriateness of the data at hand. In this study, several tests were done to identify the degree of multi co-linearity.

The correlation coefficient \( r \) indicates the level of linear association between the two variables or the strength of the relationship (Somekh & Lewin 2005a:230). The degree of association is measured and expressed by +1.0 as maximum positive correlation, 0.0 as no correlation and -1.0 as maximum negative correlation (Walliman 2006:121; Kothari 2004:121). According to Somekh and Lewin (2005b:120) the problem of multi co-linearity occurs where two or more independent variables are well correlated. This issue makes the process of determining or isolating the effects of every individual variable difficult when one variable is highly correlated with other variables. According to Singh (2007:183) the subject of multi co-linearity can be corrected by dropping some variables whose correlations are less than 30% at the pilot stage, adjusting several factors by putting in additional construct elements that might improve the correlation among variables and making some alterations in data through adding more responses to the study sample.

Table 7.14 indicates that there is a significant positive correlation between TA and PNB with a correlation of 48%. Zimbabwean tourist attractions contribute largely towards nation branding. As a nation, Zimbabwe has reciprocal understanding with foreign trading partners. Consequently Zimbabwean cultural events such as the Harare international Festival of the Arts (HIFA).

Table 7.14 shows that there is a positive correlation between ‘Cultural events’ (CE) and PNB, however, the strength of the relationship is not very high given the correlation coefficient of 16%. Similarly, H and PNB have a negative correlation, which is not favourable for nation branding for Zimbabwe. This indicates that though Zimbabweans practise hospitality towards foreigners it is not enough to attract
tourists and investors into the country. This means that hospitality should be fundamentally improved to attract both tourists and foreign investment. Table 7.14 shows that, there is a positive correlation between SH and PNB with a correlation of 30%. This means that respondents felt that both political stability and the hosting of mega events attract foreign investors to the country. However, according to the respondents the correlation is affected by national policies regarding taxation on foreign businesses and investments. Similarly, ‘cultural elements’ (CEL) and PNB have a significant positive correlation of 30%. This means that, respondents feel that though there is a positive correlation cultural, tourism is not a basis for preserving a nation’s heritage that is important for nation branding, and that, the Zimbabwean cultural events such as the music galas do not attract people from various countries.

Table 7.14 shows that there is a positive correlation between PNB and NB with a correlation of 46%. This means that respondents believed that among other factors Zimbabwe is transforming from being an undeveloped country to a developing country, and in Zimbabwe, local, regional, and global reconciliation and integration are always promoted. Table 7.14 also shows that GG and PNB have a positive relationship, with a correlation of 16%. This means that the respondents felt that good governance of global firms as practiced in Zimbabwe is the most important precondition for successful a negotiation process for strategic foreign business alliance.

Table 7.14 shows that there is positive correlation between CA and PNB with a correlation of 33%. This means that respondents believe that, the presence of trading partnership between government and NGOs boosts government efforts for nation branding and Zimbabwe, as a nation, excels in promoting the growth of exports and imports of local products.
Table 7.14: Analysis of the correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Means</th>
<th>Std. Dev</th>
<th>TA</th>
<th>CE</th>
<th>SH</th>
<th>H</th>
<th>CL</th>
<th>PNB</th>
<th>NB</th>
<th>GG</th>
<th>CA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TA</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SH</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CL</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PNB</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NB</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GG</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CA</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **Findings on the first set of hypotheses: (influences)**
  The null hypotheses concerning nation branding for Zimbabwe are as follows:

  **H0¹**: There is no relationship between tourist attractions and perceptions of nation branding
  Tables 7.10 and 7.14 reported a statistically significant positive relationship between tourist attractions and perceptions of nation branding (p < 0.001). This means that there is a significant positive correlation between tourist attractions and perceptions of nation branding with a correlation coefficient of 48%. Therefore H0¹ is rejected and an alternative hypothesis is accepted.

  **H0²**: There is no relationship between cultural events and perceptions of nation branding
  Tables 7.10 and 7.14 reported statistically that there is a significant positive relationship between tourist attractions and perceptions of nation branding (p < 0.05). This means that there is a significant positive correlation between cultural events and perceptions of nation branding with a correlation...
coefficient of 16%. Therefore H0⁵ is rejected and an alternative hypothesis is accepted.

H0³: There is no relationship between stakeholders and perception of nation branding
Tables 7.10 and 7.14 reported statistically that there is a significant positive relationship between tourist attractions and perceptions of nation branding (p < 0.001). This means that there is a significant positive correlation between stakeholders and perceptions of nation branding with a correlation coefficient of 30%. Therefore H0¹ is rejected and an alternative hypothesis is accepted.

H0⁴: There is no relationship between hospitality and perceptions of nation branding
Tables 7.10 and 7.14 reported statistically that there is a significant negative relationship between hospitality and perceptions of nation branding (b=-0.12; p<0.001). This means that there is a significant positive correlation between stakeholders and perceptions of nation branding with a correlation coefficient of -7%. Therefore, H0¹ is accepted.

H0⁵: There is no relationship between cultural elements and perceptions of nation branding
Tables 7.10 and 7.14 reported statistically that there is a significant positive relationship between cultural elements and perceptions of nation branding (p<0.002). This means that there is a significant positive correlation between cultural elements and perceptions of nation branding with a correlation coefficient of 30%. Therefore, H0¹ is rejected and an alternative hypothesis accepted.

• Findings on the second set of hypotheses: (outcomes)

H0⁶: There is no relationship between perceptions of nation branding and nation building
Tables 7.11 and 7.14 reported statistically that there is a significant positive relationship between perceptions of nation branding and nation building (p<0.001). This means that there is a significant positive correlation between perceptions of nation branding and nation building with a correlation coefficient of 46%. Therefore H0¹ is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted.

**H0⁷: There is no relationship between perceptions of nation branding and good governance**

Tables 7.12 and 7.14 reported statistically that there is a significant positive relationship between perceptions of nation branding and nation building (p<0.01). This means that there is a significant positive correlation between perceptions of nation branding and good governance with a correlation coefficient of 16%. Therefore H0¹ is rejected and alternative hypothesis accepted.

**H0⁸: There is no relationship between perceptions of nation branding and competitive advantage**

Tables 7.13 and 7.14 reported statistically that there is a significant positive relationship between perceptions of nation branding and competitive advantage (p<0.01). This means that there is a significant positive correlation between perceptions of nation branding and competitive advantage with a correlation coefficient of 33%. Therefore, H0¹ is rejected and alternative hypothesis accepted. The empirical structure as summarised in Table 7.9 is therefore subjected to regression analysis. Figure 7.2 shows the adapted model.
Figure 7.4: The hypothesised model of management’s perceptions regarding nation branding for Zimbabwe
7.5 SUMMARY

In summary, this chapter examined the elements of the empirical evaluation of nation branding for Zimbabwe. Each of the eight null hypotheses was extensively considered along with a discussion of the study design and implementation. The final chapter, Chapter eight, gives summary and conclusion of the study, as well as recommendations and contributions of the study.
CHAPTER EIGHT

MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS, SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY
The focus of this chapter is to summarise the study, provide conclusions, and give recommendations based on the findings of the study. The chapter also provides an outline of managerial implications of the study based on the findings.

Chapter One introduced the problem statement and concepts, outlined the purpose and objectives of the study (primary and secondary), significance of the study and research questions, and hypotheses, as well as a brief review of literature that was relevant to the area of study.

Chapter Two focused on an overview of the Zimbabwean business environment. In this chapter, the focus was on the brief overview of the Zimbabwe economy, the role and impact of the external business environment dimensions and variables as well as their impact on improving the country's image. The chapter also focused on the effect of globalisation on international business and international trade theories.

In Chapter Three the focus was on the conceptual theory of branding, country branding, nation building, and the impact of elements and strategies of nation branding in a country and their application to the Zimbabwean situation.

Chapter Four presented the conceptual model of nation branding for Zimbabwe. In this chapter, the modelled (variables) influences and benefits of nation branding were discussed as outlined in the theoretical model of this study.

Chapter Five presented case studies of nation branding and factors affecting nation branding where the focus will be on strategies used, challenges faced and solutions applied to face the challenges. This chapter focused on how nation branding could be used to promote nation building, good governance, and competitive advantage for Zimbabwe.
Chapter Six presented the research methodology applied in the study. This chapter will focused on the research design and methodology of the study.

Chapter Seven covered an empirical evaluation of perceptions of nation branding. The focus of this chapter is to summarise the study, provide conclusion, give recommendations based on the findings of the study. The chapter will also provide an outline of managerial implications of the study based on the findings. Attention will also be given to recommendations from other studies on nation branding that the researcher thinks could be of great use to the Zimbabwean nation-branding environment. This chapter will give the summaries of the chapters covered especially on the influence and outcome of each variable and items that form each variable in particular. The study will suggests areas for future studies that the researcher thinks need further attention alongside nation branding for the case of Zimbabwe. The primary objective of this study was to develop a workable conceptual framework for nation branding that is suitable for the case of Zimbabwe and empirically test the impact of the identified variables in the framework. This was achieved by carrying out an in-depth analysis of secondary sources dealing with place and destination branding and marketing, country branding and applied the concepts to nation branding particularly to suit the Zimbabwean situation.

The study also ascertained all the key stakeholders in the nation branding process of Zimbabwe and investigated the success of nation branding in attainment of nation building, good governance and creation of nation competitive advantage in the case of Zimbabwe. The study also looked at some case studies of nations with the same environment as Zimbabwe that have embarked on nation branding initiatives. Attention was directed to one country from the Former Yugoslavia states where Slovenia was studied, Asian countries where Singapore was chosen and Africa from which Kenya was chosen. The case studies covered such areas as successes, challenges and strategies applied in order overcome the challenges

8.2 CONCLUSIONS ON RESEARCH PROBLEM OF THE STUDY
In this study attempts to investigate the following problems were answered by both literature review and empirical results:

- What is the difference between product branding and nation branding?
• Who are the key stakeholders or players in nation branding?
• Can nation-branding lead to nation building, good governance, and competitive advantage in Zimbabwe?

Nation branding is a discipline that does not have much literature and as such, much literature on product branding was used to build the basis upon which nation-branding models are built and answers to the problems were provided. In this study, theory that forms the basis of the influence of identified independent as well as dependent variables was extensively analysed and provided to suit the Zimbabwean situation. Additionally, this study provided empirical evidence on the relationships that exist amongst the variables themselves.

Since nation branding is the integral part of this study, it was necessary to pay more attention to its importance as a tool that virtually all nations can use to promote nation building, good governance, and nation competitive advantage. Chapter five discussed cases, in which the nation branding was successfully carried out, and some challenges faced and recommendations were given basing on each case for other nations like Zimbabwe that might need to follow the same root of nation branding to take note of.

The empirical results and literature review in the study revealed that stakeholders of nation branding can include some or all of the following; citizens, communities, consumers, private organisations, government agencies, investors, NGOs, and academic institutions. It was also revealed that, the main objectives of stakeholder engagement in nation branding are, to avoid conflict through negotiations, mediation, and collaborative communication, and to develop a shared vision agreed upon by all parties. The literature review in this study showed that, nation-branding initiatives, which do not engage, and in some cases alienate local stakeholders are always destined to failure.

In the literature review in this study it was revealed that, nation building is a generic term that refers to the process of constructing or structuring a national identity. It was revealed that both nation building and nation branding, aim at the unification of
the people within the state so that it remains politically stable and viable in the long run. The empirical study in chapter seven revealed that nation branding influences nation building, meaning that, nation building is a dependent variable of nation branding. A successful nation branding initiative will lead to nation building where a nation would be transformed into a community with peace, equal opportunities, and economic viability. A community where individuals enjoy dignity, basic human rights, and the prospect to observe their own religion, tradition, culture and language in harmony with other people who function within other traditions.

8.3 THE EMPIRICAL FINDINGS OF THE STUDY
The variables that exerted a significant influence on perceptions of nation branding were shown in Figure 7.4. In the model, perceptions of nation branding strongly influence nation building, good governance and competitive advantage.

Figure 8.1 summarises the empirical results reported in Chapter 7.

Figure 8.1: Empirical evaluation of the proposed influences and outcomes of nation branding of Zimbabwe.

The empirical findings in this study indicate that:
- There is a positive relationship between tourist attractions and nation branding for Zimbabwe

The empirical findings in this study indicate that tourist attractions have a positive influence towards nation building in Zimbabwe. The empirical findings
revealed that respondents, feel that successful hosting of mega events such as World Cup of different sports disciplines, regional sport events such as the Orange African Cup of Nations (soccer) and winning them would help Zimbabwe as a nation to boost the image of the country and gain brand awareness. Respondents feel that the Zimbabwean cultural events such as, the Harare International Festival of the Arts (HIFA) attracts people from various countries with different cultural backgrounds into the country. The empirical findings indicated that respondents believe Zimbabwe has attractions for example climate, scenic beauty, wildlife that can be put to good use in attracting tourists and promote nation branding and give competitive advantage to Zimbabwe. The empirical findings also revealed that Zimbabweans have respect for the elderly people, visitors, tourists, and foreign investors. They believe this would make tourists, investors and visitors to the country feel comfortable ‘make them feel at home away from home’. The findings also revealed that Zimbabwean inhabitants observe their religion in harmony with others meaning that in Zimbabwe there is freedom of worship.

- **There is a positive relationship between entertainment events and nation branding**

The research findings in this study revealed that, entertainment events have a positive relationship with nation branding. The empirical findings revealed that respondents perceive that, hosting of mega events attract foreign investors into the country. This means that investors are attracted by these events, some of which might be in their line of business. The findings also reveal that in Zimbabwe, there is adequate infrastructure to enhance the education system. The finding also proved that, respondents consider that in Zimbabwe the media plays a pivotal role in sharing the ideas with the inhabitants on how to promote protection of social justice. In the finding of the study, respondents indicated that, Zimbabwe has established attractions like holiday resorts, shopping malls capable of hosting world events. This means that, despite the economic hardships that the country had gone through, its infrastructure is still intact, and if appropriately resuscitated the country can gain its competitiveness.
• **There is a positive relationship between stakeholders and nation branding for Zimbabwe**

The research findings uncovered that there is a positive relationship between stakeholders and nation branding for Zimbabwe. In the empirical results respondents indicated that in Zimbabwe people enjoy basic human rights. The empirical findings uncovered that, respondents indicated that in Zimbabwe religion, help inhabitants to be less materialistic. It was also revealed in the empirical findings that, respondents think that the absence of limitations by government on proceeds or profits generated by foreign investors in the country enhances strategic alliances with foreign business investors. This means that according to the respondents in this study, the government of Zimbabwe does not interfere with the remittance of profits to mother nations by foreign companies operating in the country. The findings demonstrate that, the political stability in Zimbabwe attracts foreign investors into the country. Respondents feel that, Zimbabwe gets acknowledgement in the international trading arena through the membership of foreign trading groupings. The literature review on chapter two reports that, Zimbabwe is an active member of international trade organisations and arrangements such as COMESA, SADC, AU, and SACU. In the empirical results it is also shown that, Zimbabwe individuals and private enterprises are experts in trading through sharing of technology transfer with foreigners. The literature review in chapters two indicated that Zimbabweans are hardworking people with entrepreneurial skills, they do trade both at a larger and smaller scale, they do cross boarder trading with countries like South Africa, Botswana, and China. The empirical results exhibited that Zimbabwean individuals and private enterprises boost the economy of the country by creating jobs. The respondents felt that in Zimbabwe, foreign investors attract talent and expertise into the country.
• **There is a negative relationship between hospitality and nation branding**
  The empirical findings in this study have indicated that there is a negative relationship between hospitality and nation branding for Zimbabwe. This means that, respondents feel that Zimbabwe has transport services capable of conveying tourist from one point to the other. The empirical results also show that Zimbabweans believe in sharing what they have with the disadvantaged members of the society. However the respondents indicated that Zimbabweans have everything they need to enjoy life and as such there is a feeling that they do not need other people from foreign countries to determine their destiny in life. In the study it was also discovered that the seizure of assets by authority without proper compensation scare away investors.

• **There is a positive relationship between cultural elements and nation branding**
  It was found in the empirical results that, respondents feel that cultural tourism is not a basis for preserving a nation’s heritage that is important for nation branding. This means that, in the view of the respondents, cultural elements can promote nation branding for Zimbabwe and that the Zimbabwean cultural events like the music galas do not attract people from other countries into Zimbabwe. Respondents also feel that cross-cultural communication does not play an important role on nation branding. In this study, it was discovered that, respondents failed to realize the importance and impact of hospitality to any nation branding initiative.

• **There is a positive relation between nation branding and nation building**
  The empirical results showed that, there is a positive relation between nation branding and nation building. The empirical results indicated that, respondents feel that there is consistence in the implementation of the rules of the country and it is a way of attracting investors and international trading partners into the country. Respondents also believe that Zimbabwe takes pride in being a member state of many regional and international trade groupings and as such the nation enjoys good trade relations with its...
neighbouring countries. Zimbabwean citizens do cross-boarder trade and have formed many trading co-operatives. Literature review in chapter two revealed that, through such organisations as Zimtrade, Cross-Border Traders Association of Zimbabwe, Kingdom Bank, and Zimbabwe Women Traders Association, inhabitants enjoy the benefits of trade partnerships with foreign countries. The empirical findings also indicate that, the economic environment in Zimbabwe promotes foreign investment and local growth. Empirically respondents indicated that they feel the economical environment in the country promotes local business and entrepreneurial initiatives. Literature reviewed also pointed to the same argument that financial institutions such as the Kingdom Bank help small to medium entrepreneurs with capital to start or grow their businesses.

The empirical findings indicated that respondents say that Zimbabwe has a good reciprocal understanding with foreign trading partners. In the empirical study, the respondents indicated that, Zimbabwe is transforming from being an underdeveloped to a developing country. The literature review in chapter two revealed that, Zimbabwe promotes a favourable environment for peace, equal opportunity, and economic viability for all the inhabitants of the country. The country offers incentives to foreign investors who would like establish business and settle in Zimbabwe as well as local investors who intend to do business. The empirical results show that, respondents indicated that, Zimbabwe as a nation always creates hope, confidence, and pride in the nation’s capabilities.

- **There is a positive relationship between nation branding and good governance**
  
The empirical findings reveal that there is a relationship between nation branding and good governance for Zimbabwe. Respondents feel that good governance in Zimbabwe is the most important pre-condition for successful negotiation process for strategic foreign business alliances. Respondents believed that, Zimbabwe has a competent human capital. Zimbabwe’s education system is capable of producing workforce with high entrepreneurial skills and professionals. The literature review in this study revealed that
Zimbabwe has one of the best education systems in Africa and is credited for producing highly skilled entrepreneurs and professionals who have acquitted themselves well in the region and world over.

- **There is a positive relationship between nation branding and competitive advantage**
  
The research findings revealed that presents of trading partnerships between government and NGOs boost national efforts in Zimbabwe. Zimbabwe is capable of attracting cultural tourists to the country. Zimbabwe's tertiary education has sophisticated infrastructure and technology that makes them produce highly qualified personnel. Literature review in chapter two revealed that, the Zimbabwe education system has adopted technology in its training system. There are technology oriented institutions ranging from primary schools, high schools and universities. Literature also revealed that, there are some technology-oriented universities, which were constructed. There is a linkage between industry and universities where training is tailored to provide for the industry requirements.

**8.4 Recommendations for nation branding for Zimbabwe**

Basing on the findings in chapter 7 it is recommended that:

- **Tourist attractions**
  
  Literature review in the study revealed that, tourist attractions play a key role in the tourism and hospitality industry by enticing visitors and tourists to the destination. The literature review also found out that Zimbabwe has three categories of tourist attractions, which are natural, built and cultural attractions.

Zimbabwe has natural attractions include climate, scenic beauty, wildlife, and natural phenomena not created by humankind. Empirical findings show that there are numerous natural attractions within Zimbabwe, for instance, The Victoria Falls, which is one of the greatest wonders of the world, the Great Zimbabwe Ruins, the Matopos Hills and the wider stretch of the Eastern Highlands Inyangani mountains. Zimbabwe has a pleasant climate all year
Built attractions are those that have been artificially created such as resorts, shopping malls, conference facilities like the Harare Conference Center, sports and recreation facilities such as stadiums, golf courses and motor cross racing facilities. There are also a wider choice of built attractions like hotels, lodges, restaurants, and lodges in Zimbabwe.

Cultural attractions are tourist and visitors attractions based on the people’s activities, including archaeological, historical, and cultural sites such as the King Lobengula Kraal (Old Bulawayo city), the Murehwa Cultural Center, the Tonga Cultural Center in Binga, the Kariba Dam and the Great Zimbabwe Ruins. Other cultural attractions include theatres, the National Gallery of Zimbabwe and the National Museums of Zimbabwe and international festivals like the Harare International Festive of Arts (HIFA).

Empirical findings and the literature review in this study have revealed that, tourist attractions play a crucial role in building nation brands. The empirical results indicated that respondents believe that hosting, participating, and winning mega sports events are one of the core factors in building national images. Basing on these findings and revelations, it is recommended that all stakeholders in the Zimbabwe Tourism Industry like, the government through the Ministry of tourism, Zimbabwe Tourism Authority, tour guides, hotels and lodges, museums and monuments, and other related organisations like the transport (air, rail and road) should all work together in order to make the life of tourists and visitors in the country comfortable.

- **Entertainment events**

  There is stiff competition among nations and cities to host mega-events. The contest for hosting mega-events like the Olympic Games, World cups of various sports, Common Wealth Games, and regional competitions such as Africa Cup of Nations (AFCON) is stiff. Entertainment events attract millions of spectators to the country and cities and have intense media coverage with global reach. The hosting of mega-events has tremendous effects on
developing and emerging countries. These can be positive in economic investment, job creation, skills development and nation branding, but can also be negative in terms of their environmental footprint, for example via carbon emissions caused by visitors. In the literature review in this study, it was revealed that two major factors that motivate nations to host mega-events are that, they are platforms for the promotion of national unit and the coherent articulation of national identity. International exposure generated by mega-events attracts new sources of funding to host nations and their cities. The specialised infrastructure like stadiums required by these mega-events can become architectural landmarks in the urban landscapes of a city. Beyond these, hosting mega-events provides the impetus for the implementation of ambitious urban planning projects such as upgrading transport infrastructure like roads, airports, public transport systems and undertaking regeneration initiatives in many parts of the country.

Basing on the findings in the empirical findings and the literature review in this study it is recommended that, Zimbabwe can benefit from hosting mega-events. Successful hosting of these events will gain Zimbabwe global exposure, lost nation hope, prestige and legitimacy which are critically desired at the present moment (2012) to prove that the nation has become a major player on the global stage. Staging mega-events will offer Zimbabwe as a nation a unique opportunity to not only present itself to the world and achieve economic benefits, but there is also a possibility of creating a green legacy in some sectors, which helps the cities to face their future development challenges. The literature review also indicated that, certain economic sectors, especially tourism do benefit but the multiplier effects are intended to boost the entire economy. The key questions that Zimbabwe as a nation needs to address concern the potential employment and income generating effects of these events and the social distribution of the projected positive employment and income generating effects nationwide.

However, it was highlighted in the literature review that, it is possible that hosting mega-events can contribute to deepening social inequalities in the host nation. As an example, investments by government in the infrastructure
of sport centres could be made at the expense of investments in social infrastructure (hospitals and schools). Other negative effects are relocations to make way for new infrastructure measures, displacement through property speculation on the basis of city suburbs that have increased in value and mega-events are often used by local administration to remove informal economic activities like street sales from the city.

In this study it is recommended that, in order for Zimbabwe to succeed in using mega-vents as a nation branding tool, it is important that potential economic, social, and environmentalegacies correspond to the development objectives of the country and hosting cities. Additionally the infrastructure investments should also be part of the long term infrastructure planning. It is important that possible negative environmental impacts of mega-events (water usage, waste, carbon footprint, and pollution), will be mitigated adequately by the implementation of a sustainability agenda. Mega events will bring cooperation, which in turn contribute towards building social organisations, such as networks, norms, ties, and trust that would be transferred from one social setting to another.

- **Stakeholders**

In this study, the literature reviewed has indicated that the stakeholders of nation branding can include some or all of the following, citizens, communities, consumers, private organisations, government agencies, investors, NGOs, and academic institutions. It was also highlighted that, the objectives of stakeholder engagement in nation branding are, trying to avoid conflict through negotiations, mediation, and collaborative learning, developing a shared vision agreed upon by all parties. Opportunities and benefits of engaging stakeholders for nation branding for Zimbabwe

Basing on the empirical findings and the literature review it is recommended that, stakeholder engagement is crucial for the success of nation branding for Zimbabwe. Zimbabwe will benefit immensely from engaging with a broad range of stakeholders for nation branding, as it creates multi-directional flow of information that can provide valuable feedback on activities and products.
Stakeholder engagement will promote transparency and good governance for in the country, which will increase the credibility of its industries as socially responsible corporates. Stakeholder involvement would promote shared decision-making responsibilities in Zimbabwe. Stakeholders can have specific and in-depth knowledge and resources that can provide broader perspectives and add value to the nation branding initiative. However, it is a regrettable fact that many nation-branding initiatives fail occasionally with a bang due to the absence or inadequacy of stakeholder engagement of local people, businesses, and community groups in shaping, articulating and conveying the brand. Stakeholder participatory generates and supports a greater sense of ownership, which is a crucial ingredient in any nation branding initiative. Many authors in the study pointed out that, nation branding initiatives which do not engage, and in some cases alienate local stakeholders are always destined to failure, the more people are engaged in effective and productive nation branding, the more it is likely to succeed.

Stakeholder engagement enriches and deepens the quality of branding discussion introducing new opinions, ideas and perspectives nation brand that has been with stakeholders is able to stand the test of time because it has developed adequate buy-in during the branding process phase. If all the ranges of stakeholders in the country feel that, they have been involved in the nation branding process they are more likely to embody it and feel part of the process.

In the literature review in this study it was reported that, there is no a one fit all strategy when engaging stakeholders, each nation has to develop a tailored programme that reflects the branding challenges, the range and accessibility of different stakeholders and other unique factors. However, there are some recommended basic starting points that Zimbabwe can adopt for successful engagement of stakeholders in its nation branding initiative.

Firstly, it is crucial to understand and work with the diversity of stakeholders in a place. Stakeholders are not a discrete and tidy group, they are a mixture of people, groups, and organisations that have an interest in the future of the
nation. They range from individual citizens, local businesses, and groups representing communities of identity, interest, and place to national and international agencies, which have a presence or strong interest in the country. These groups need to be engaged proactively and in different ways.

Secondly, another basic starting point is to engage stakeholders from the beginning of the nation branding process. Stakeholders, especially locals’ knowledge has to be harnessed from the start in any preliminary discuss about the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and challenges facing the nation. Effective nation branding therefore seek out and utilize the people who make the place work, from recognised civic, community and business leaders through to the taxi drivers, hairdressers and all those others who play unrecognised but vital public-facing contact roles in the area. This approach will bring a range of perspectives to the process and helps to ensure that the branding process has been tested before implemented.

Thirdly, stakeholders need to be engaged based on evidence. Nation branding does not start with a blank state, as each nation is already branded, whether or not they realise or acknowledge the fact, and it is very difficult to erase or amend the associations, which people attach to them. The starting point for an effective and inclusive nation branding strategy is to take a critical analysis of what the nation has to offer to current and potential residents, visitors, investors and what unique assets and strengths can be developed and emphasised, and what flaws and weaknesses need to be addressed.

The fourth element is the importance of challenge. Effective teams often disagree, but can do so in a constructive and deliberative manner that leads to better outcomes. Nation branding teams need to be prepared to challenge the assumptions and perceptions of partners who do not see the need to brand or recognise the scale of the task, and this needs to be done tactfully and sensitively.

The study concludes that the key contributors could augment nation image and create opportunities for investment partnerships to the country and
reposition zimbabwe in the global market.

• **Hospitality**

It has been revealed in the literature review in this study that, hospitality provides shelter to the tourists and visitors. It is the friendly and generous reception and service given to guests, tourists, and investors. Hospitality is mainly concerned with providing food, drink, and accommodation, and promotes a warm and friendly experience that benefits consumers whether it is at a hotel, leisure facility, restaurant, or any other tourism establishment. The hospitality mix is made of attractions, amenities, accessibility, and ambience.

Amenities are the desirable supporting offerings at a destination, which serve the needs of the tourists and visitors while they are away from home. These may include accommodation at a destination, restaurants, retail outlets, transport, and communication at the destination and other amenities and services like language schools, hairdressing and beauty salons, information services and the security services. Accessibility includes transportation and infrastructure, which are necessary to help ensure that the visitor has access to the destination. The elements that affect the accessibility of a destination include infrastructure of airports, road networks and railways, routes operated, frequency of services, prices charged, and comfort of travel.

A country’s ambience includes intangible features such as the friendliness of its residents, the way of life of its people, its history, and folklores. When local inhabitants are believed to be hostile to visitors or where visitors believe it is dangerous may portray a negative ambience. Service delivery systems are also particularly important because hospitality offerings are consumed at the point of purchase. Even if all the attractions are first-class, the visitors’ holiday experience can be spoiled by poor service. In essence, tourist will have a much more satisfying holiday if they feel welcomed by the host population and receive good service.

Empirical results in this study showed that hospitality has a negative influence on nation branding for Zimbabwe. Respondents felt that Zimbabweans are
doing enough as far as hospitality is concerned. It is recommended that all Zimbabweans across the board should work towards improving their standard of hospitality towards foreigners.

• **Cultural elements**

The elements of culture are language, aesthetics, education, social interactions, material elements, religion and value systems. In the literature review language has been described as the mirror of culture. It was outlined that language provides access to local society, it is used to communicate and interpret the environment. Aesthetics are a reflection of culture, they are expressed by means of design, colour, music, and dance. Many authors agreed that, education is a cultural process involving the transmission of traditions, ideas, attitudes and skills as well as training in academic disciplines. Either formal or informal education plays a major role in the passing on and sharing of culture. The educational levels of a culture can be assessed using literacy rates and enrolment in primary, secondary, and higher and tertiary education systems.

Educational levels will have an impact on various business functions. Training programmes for a production facility will have to take the educational backgrounds of trainees into account. Social institutions determine the way in which people interact. Social organisations also determine the responsibilities and tasks of members in an organisation, and how they interact. Attitudes and values of a society, in many instances, stem from religious teachings. The empirical results in this study, proved that in Zimbabwe, people are not individualistic they leave in harmony with other people in different religions.

Cultural elements play a major role in nation branding for Zimbabwe. Religious leaders must join forces with political leaders of the country to improve the economic, political, social situation and the moral being and achieving lasting peace of the nation. In Zimbabwe, cultural elements also help in the creation of a homogeneous society and are regarded as the most efficient instruments for gathering the loyalty of people and mobilizing society.
8.5 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

The study has shown that nation branding is a powerful means to achieve nation building, good governance, and competitive advantage. The aim of this study was to identify key stakeholders in the nation branding process of Zimbabwe and to come up with a conceptual model suited to the nation-branding environment of Zimbabwe.

The study identified key stakeholders in the nation branding for Zimbabwe, and an easy to understand model that spelt the roadmap for nation branding for Zimbabwe was produced. The model adds value to the nation branding literature, as it is unique in the sense that it brings together many industries across the Zimbabwean economy. The model has taken a holistic approach in nation branding by identifying unique nation branding attributes for Zimbabwe. The study has invoked the impact of nation branding as a tool for nation building, good governance and competitive advantage, specifically, for the Zimbabwean situation. This study also recommended strategies for implementation of nation branding attributes such as tourist attractions, entertainment events, and hospitality, which can provide guidance to the Zimbabwean government, relevant stakeholders and other developing countries.

8.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND FUTURE RESEARCH

In Zimbabwe nation branding was being regarded with suspicion, most people regarded it as a political process where the study was suspected to be a politician gimmick or campaign to get to people, thereby denying access to the people in some organisations that were approached. One of the limitations was lack of commitment in regard of senior personnel approached, as they were reluctant to complete the questionnaires. The other limitation of the study was the lack of indiscriminate validity of some of the vital dimensions used in the study. Some of the items used as instruments to measure these dimensions did not measure what they were expected to measure.

Further research is to investigate the impact and benefits of the identified nation branding attributes in Zimbabwe. Also, a comparative study regarding nation branding among countries within the SADC region to achieve global competitiveness.
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230


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FACULTY: BUSINESS AND ECONOMIC SCIENCES

SCHOOL/DEPARTMENT: DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS MANAGEMENT

I, (surname and initials of supervisor) Mazibuko, N.E. and Tait, M. the promoter and co-promoter for (surname and initials of candidate) Sena S. (student number) 210247363

a candidate for the degree of

Ph. D

with a treatise entitled (full title of treatise):

Nation Branding: A case study for Zimbabwe

considering the following ethics criteria (please tick the appropriate block):

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<tr>
<td>1. Is there any risk of harm, embarrassment of offence, however slight or temporary, to the participant, third parties or to the communities at large?</td>
<td>X</td>
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<td>2. Is the study based on a research population defined as ‘vulnerable’ in terms of age (e.g children of school going age, students, and the aged), physical characteristics and/or disease status?</td>
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<td>3. Does the research / data that will be collected require an ethics clearance number in order to obtain institutional authority for this study?</td>
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4. Will the participant’s privacy, anonymity and confidentiality be compromised?  X

5. Will official feedback on the outcome of the research be required by the Institutional Authority?  X

Please note that if any of the questions above have been answered in the affirmative the student will need to complete the full ethics clearance form and submit to the Faculty Ethics Co-ordinator.

hereby certify that the student has given his/her research ethical consideration and full ethics approval is not required.

14 August 2012

SUPERVISOR / PROMOTER  DATE

14 August 2012

HEAD OF DEPARTMENT  DATE

14 August 2012

STUDENT  DATE

Please ensure that the research methodology section from the proposal is attached to this form.
Dear Participant

RESEARCH PROJECT: NATION BRANDING - CASE STUDY OF ZIMBABWE

Mr S. Sena is a registered PhD student in the Department of Business Management at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University Port Elizabeth, South Africa. He is currently busy with an empirical study investigating the perceptions of stakeholders regarding ‘Nation Branding’ for Zimbabwe. It is envisaged that this study will provide useful insights into identifying key aspects related to the branding of the country. Previous research has shown that nation branding in various countries has been characterised by tourism, sport, and direct investment from foreign traders.

The purpose of this study is to develop a workable conceptual framework for nation branding that will involve all stakeholders in Zimbabwe with the intention of building the nation and attracting foreign investors to boost the economy. The questionnaire comprises two sections. Section A investigates stakeholders perceptions regarding nation branding. Section B solicits the biographical data of respondents.

All data sources will be treated as confidential and would be used for research purposes only. The data will be reported in statistical form and no individual respondents will be identified. You may complete the questionnaire anonymously.

Thank you for your kindly willingness and time to complete this questionnaire.

Regards

Prof NE Mazibuko and Prof M. Tait
Research coordinators

Mr S. Sena
Researcher
The Permanent Secretary  
MINISTRY OF ECONOMIC PLANNING AND INVESTMENT PROMOTION

Dear Sir/Madam

RESEARCH PROJECT: NATION BRANDING: CASE STUDY OF ZIMBABWE

I am a registered PhD student in the Department of Business Management at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University in Port Elizabeth, South Africa. I am investigating the perceptions of management regarding Nation branding for Zimbabwe. It is envisaged that this study will provide useful insight in identifying key aspects related to the branding of the country. Previous research has shown that nation branding in various countries has been characterised by tourism, sport, and direct investment from foreign traders.

The purpose of this study is to develop a workable conceptual framework for nation branding that will involve all stakeholders in Zimbabwe with the intention of building the nation and attracting foreign investors to boost the economy. All data sources will be treated as confidential and would be used for research purposes only. The data will be reported in statistical form and no individual respondents will be identified. Attached is a questionnaire, which I intend to use for data, gathering.

I therefore request permission to carry out the empirical study in state owned organisations which will be sampled for this study.

Yours Faithfully

Prof NE Mazibuko and Prof M. Tait  
Research coordinators

Mr S. Sena  
Researcher
Dear Sir/Madam

RESEARCH PROJECT: NATION BRANDING: CASE STUDY OF ZIMBABWE

I am a registered PhD student in the Department of Business Management at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University in Port Elizabeth, South Africa. I am investigating the perceptions of stakeholders regarding Nation branding for Zimbabwe. Your organisation was identified as one of the key stakeholders in this regard.

I therefore request for permission to carry out the empirical study in your organisation.
Please find the attached copy of the questionnaire which I intend to use for data gathering.

Yours Faithfully

Mr S. Sena
Researcher
Cell: 0773 925 408
### APPENDIX C: QUESTIONNAIRE

**QUESTIONNAIRE**

**NATION BRANDING: A CASE STUDY OF ZIMBABWE**

This questionnaire comprises two sections. Section A investigates perceptions regarding nation branding on a five-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree). Please indicate the extent to which you agree with these statements by means of a cross (X) in the appropriate block. Section B seeks to solicit biographical information from respondents. Please indicate your response to the options provided by making a cross (X) in the appropriate block.

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<th>Strongly disagree (1)</th>
<th>Disagree (2)</th>
<th>Indifferent (3)</th>
<th>Agree (4)</th>
<th>Strongly agree (5)</th>
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<tr>
<td>1. In Zimbabwe foreign investors attract talent and expertise into the country</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>2. In Zimbabwe foreign investors foster successful linkages between international and local firms.</td>
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<td>3. The practise of 51% partial ownership of foreign business by Zimbabwean nationals attracts foreign business partnerships.</td>
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<td>4. The media informs and educates the inhabitants of Zimbabwe about the availability of services in the country.</td>
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<td>5. Absence of economic sanctions in Zimbabwe allows access to international trade and lines of credit for locals.</td>
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<td>6. Zimbabwean inhabitants have are very competent in the use of languages to communicate with foreigners.</td>
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<td>7. I rate Zimbabwean brands highly in terms of worldwide brand awareness.</td>
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8. Local media promotes the image of Zimbabwe worldwide.  

9. Zimbabwean private individuals are experts in trading through sharing of technology transfer with foreign partners.  

10. In Zimbabwe religion plays a major role in the running of the country.  

11. In my view Zimbabwean brands represent the values, which are compatible with the wishes of consumers  

12. Zimbabwe promotes a favourable environment for peace, equal opportunity and economic viability for all the inhabitants of the country.  

13. Zimbabwean inhabitants always strive to be a united society in the eyes of international trading.  

14. In Zimbabwe foreign investors boost the image of the country.  

15. In Zimbabwe private individuals attract successful strategic business alliances through international trading.  

16. Zimbabwe has a pleasant climate all year round for tourists and visitors.  

17. The presence of sophisticated infrastructure and technology in Zimbabwe’s tertiary institutions boost the image of the country.  

18. National policies regarding taxation on foreign businesses and
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<tr>
<td>19. Zimbabwe as a nation has a good reciprocal understanding with foreign trading partners.</td>
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<td>20. I can readily recall the symbols and logos attached to Zimbabwean brands.</td>
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<td>21. Zimbabwe has world class hotel accommodation to make tourists, visitors and investors feel at home.</td>
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<td>22. In Zimbabwe private individuals attract and sell competitive brands globally.</td>
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<td>23. Zimbabwe is capable of attracting cultural tourists to the country.</td>
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<td>24. Presence of trading partnerships between government and NGOs boost national efforts in a country</td>
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<td>25. Media limits exaggeration of the political situation in Zimbabwe.</td>
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<td>26. Cultural tourism is a means of economic support for traditional activities.</td>
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<td>27. Knowledge of foreign languages gives Zimbabwe as a nation a competitive advantage</td>
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<tr>
<td>28. Zimbabwean brands bring pleasant memories to my mind</td>
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<td>29. National identity has a direct implication on nation branding.</td>
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<td>30. I regard products produced in Zimbabwe to be different from the products of other countries in the same</td>
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<tr>
<td>31. Hosting of mega events attract foreign investors in our country.</td>
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<td>32. I have a liking of the Zimbabwean products wherever I travel</td>
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<td>33. Zimbabwe has transport services capable of hosting and conveying tourists from one point to another.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>34. In Zimbabwe religion plays a major role in the educational system.</td>
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<td>35. The absence of seizing of assets by authority without compensation attracts foreign investors.</td>
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<td>36. The media plays a pivotal role in sharing ideas with the inhabitants on how to promote protection of social justice in a country.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>37. The economic environment in Zimbabwe promotes foreign investment and local growth.</td>
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<td>4</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. In Zimbabwe no one becomes better off without making someone else worse off</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. In Zimbabwe political stability helps to boost the country’s image, e.g. by attracting tourists to the country.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>40. Zimbabwean brands highly satisfy my needs</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41. Zimbabwean brands are capable of satisfying customers</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. In Zimbabwe we have a world class infrastructure for hosting international events.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. In Zimbabwe people</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>observe their own tradition and culture in harmony with others.</td>
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<tr>
<td>44.</td>
<td>The inhabitants of Zimbabwe observe their religion in harmony with others.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45.</td>
<td>Zimbabwe inhabitants believe in buying only things they need.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46.</td>
<td>I can easily recognise Zimbabwean brands among other competitive brands</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47.</td>
<td>Zimbabweans believe in sharing their belongings with the underprivileged by creating charity organisations.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48.</td>
<td>Zimbabwe as a nation excels in promoting the growth of exports and imports of local products to the global market.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49.</td>
<td>Education plays an important role in training professionals.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50.</td>
<td>In Zimbabwe we have competent human capital.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51.</td>
<td>In Zimbabwe consistency in implementing the rules of the country attracts international trading partners.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52.</td>
<td>I would like to own Zimbabwean products more than foreign products.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>53.</td>
<td>Cross-cultural communication plays an important role in nation branding.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54.</td>
<td>Cultural tourism is a basis for preserving a nation's heritage that is important for the purpose of nation branding.</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>55.</td>
<td>In Zimbabwe it is easy to</td>
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<tr>
<td>communicate important information to foreign investors, tourists and visitors.</td>
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<tr>
<td>56. The political stability in our country attracts foreign investors.</td>
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<tr>
<td>57. In Zimbabwe there is adequate infrastructure to enhance the education system.</td>
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<td>58. In Zimbabwe private individuals boost the economy of the country by creating job opportunities.</td>
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<tr>
<td>59. I am confident that Zimbabwean brands are associated with high quality</td>
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<tr>
<td>60. Education plays an important role in boosting the image of a nation</td>
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<td>61. In Zimbabwe religion dictates the functioning of business transactions.</td>
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<tr>
<td>62. Zimbabwe gets acknowledgement in the international trading arena through the membership of foreign trading partners.</td>
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<tr>
<td>63. I would consider buying Zimbabwean products over others from other countries</td>
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<tr>
<td>64. The absence of limitations by authority on proceeds e.g. profit, generated by foreign investors in our country enhances strategic alliances with foreign business investors.</td>
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<td>65. In Zimbabwe use of advanced technology for the impaired, enhances communication among and within the</td>
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<tr>
<td>66. Winning of mega sports events like World Cups will help Zimbabwe as a nation to gain nation branding awareness.</td>
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<td>67. My attitude is favourable towards Zimbabwean products</td>
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<tr>
<td>68. Successful hosting of major events such as African Cup of Nations (soccer) will help to boost the image of the country</td>
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<tr>
<td>69. I am familiar with the products which are produced by Zimbabwean companies</td>
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<tr>
<td>70. Zimbabwe as a nation always creates hope, confidence and pride in the nation’s capabilities, e.g. professionals, trading, tourism, etc.</td>
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<tr>
<td>71. In Zimbabwe private individuals produce a variety of brands to meet the demands of the society.</td>
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<td>72. I regularly purchase Zimbabwean products instead of foreign products</td>
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<tr>
<td>73. The media can play a diagnostic role in pointing out and suggesting control measures regarding corruption, crime, poverty, and other social conditions.</td>
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<tr>
<td>74. The Zimbabwean cultural events such as the Harare International Festival of the Arts (HIFA) attracts people from various countries into the country.</td>
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<td>75. Zimbabwe has</td>
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<tr>
<td>established attractions like holiday resorts, shopping malls, etc., capable of hosting world events.</td>
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<tr>
<td>76. The Zimbabwean cultural events such as music galas attract people from various countries.</td>
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<tr>
<td>77. Zimbabwe is transforming from being an underdeveloped to a developing country.</td>
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<tr>
<td>78. In Zimbabwe local, regional and global reconciliation and integration are always promoted.</td>
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<tr>
<td>79. Zimbabwe takes pride in being a member state of the regional and global communities.</td>
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<tr>
<td>80. Respect for the elderly, visitors, tourists and foreign investors will boost the image of the country.</td>
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<tr>
<td>81. In Zimbabwe people enjoy basic human rights.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>82. The education system in Zimbabwe is capable of producing workforce with e.g. high entrepreneurial skills and professionals.</td>
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<tr>
<td>83. In Zimbabwe religion helps inhabitants to be less materialistic.</td>
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<tr>
<td>84. Zimbabwean inhabitants believe that some of the important achievements in life include acquiring material possessions.</td>
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<tr>
<td>85. Zimbambwe inhabitants believe that they do not have everything they need to enjoy life.</td>
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<tr>
<td>86. Community involvement</td>
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<tr>
<td>87. Absence of nationalisation of assets in Zimbabwe attracts foreign investors.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>88. Zimbabwe has one of the best education system in Africa.</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>89. Good governance of global firms is the most important pre-condition for successful negotiation process for strategic foreign business alliances.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>90. In Zimbabwe people expect foreigners to embrace their local languages for communication purposes.</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>91. In Zimbabwe various languages are used on brands labels that attract traders and tourists.</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>92. Through Zimbabwe’s education system, the inhabitants become better ambassadors for their country.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>93. In Zimbabwe, the inhabitants always strive to own assets of high value like the elite, even if they cannot afford it.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>94. Zimbabwe has attractions for example climate, scenic beauty, wildlife, etc. that can be put to good use in nation branding.</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## SECTION B
### BIOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Please indicate your position in the organisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ministry officer</th>
<th>Chief Executive Officer</th>
<th>Manager</th>
<th>Assistant Managers</th>
<th>Supervisor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Please indicate your gender

- Female 1
- Male 2

3. Please indicate your age group (years)

| 30 – 41 | 1 | 42 – 53 | 2 | 54 – 65 | 3 | Over 65 | 4 |

4. Please indicate your highest educational qualification(s)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>‘O’ Level</th>
<th>Diploma</th>
<th>Bachelor’s degree</th>
<th>Post graduate degree/diploma</th>
<th>Other (please specify)</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Please indicate your period of current employment (years)

| 1 – 5 | 1 | 6 – 10 | 2 | 11 – 15 | 3 | 16 - 20 | 4 | 21 and above | 5 |

6. Please indicate in which sector (industry type) your organisation operates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education and Culture</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>Mining</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tourism and Hospitality</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>SMEs</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Media</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International trade and integration</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Information, Science and Communication Technology (ICT)</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade and Commerce</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Private individuals and other (Please specify)</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. Please indicate the number of employees in your organisation

| 50 - 99 | 1 | 100 - 149 | 2 | 150 - 199 | 3 | 200 - 249 | 4 | Above 250 | 5 |

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND COOPERATION