

**UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL**

**Developing a nation brand measurement framework for Zimbabwe**

**By**

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**School of Management, IT and Governance**

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29 September 2021

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## **Abstract and Key Words**

The study sought to develop a nation branding measurement framework for Zimbabwe. The problem is that there is no objective measure that is used to assess the strength of a country brand, and Zimbabwe is not spared in this regard. The study adopted the post-positivism philosophy whose factor or cause-driven deterministic view falls in line with the objective of this research whose thrust was to determine the critical determinants of nation branding that may be incorporated in the nation branding measurement framework for Zimbabwe. The study used a mixed-method research design which combines quantitative and qualitative methods. Probability and non-probability sampling methods were used, as well as the stratified random sampling approach. The respondents were put into three strata, being drawn from key ministries, parastatals, and stakeholders. The purposive sampling approach was used, which in this study targeted respondents who had the requisite knowledge on nation branding in Zimbabwe. The research found that the strategic issues that were needed to improve Zimbabwe are sound economic reforms, political stability, the attraction of foreign direct investment, revision of policies, infrastructural development, and good governance. The other findings revealed that the critical dimensions needed in the development of Zimbabwe's nation branding measurement framework, included people, tourism, investment and immigration, culture and heritage, governance, and exports. It emerged that the Zimbabwe government needed to make urgent efforts to address the issue of its negative image to avoid remaining side-lined by the international financial institutions such as the IMF and the World Bank. Political reforms were thus viewed as being necessary for fruitful re-engagement with the UK, USA, and the EU. Another noted observation was that the people dimension was a powerful element in branding Zimbabwe. It was thus recommended that to brand Zimbabwe, the country should utilise prominent personalities in the business and academic worlds. In considering the country's high literacy rate, the exportation of skilled professionals like medical doctors, teachers, and other tradesmen to the

Southern Africa region and beyond was recommended as a rewarding strategy that can help market the country. A need to conscientise policymakers on the benefits of nation branding to a country that has a negative image was also recommended. The study concludes that Zimbabwe needs both economic and political reforms before any nation branding exercise can be done because without such reforms re-engagement with the western countries would be a futile exercise.

**Key Words:** *Branding; Country image; Measurement framework; Nation branding; Zimbabwe.*

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## **Abbreviations**

<b>AIPPA</b>	Access to Information and Protection of Privacy Act
<b>AICD</b>	Agency for Integrated Community Development
<b>APRM</b>	Africa Peer Review Mechanism
<b>AU</b>	African Union
<b>BACOSSI</b>	Basic Commodities Supply Side Intervention
<b>BAV</b>	Brand Asset Valuation
<b>BKB</b>	Brand Kenya Board
<b>CBI</b>	Country Brand Index
<b>CBN</b>	Christian Broadcasting Network
<b>CBR</b>	Country Brand Ranking
<b>CBS</b>	Columbia Broadcasting System
<b>CBSI</b>	Country Brand Strength Index
<b>CEE</b>	Central and Eastern Europe
<b>CI</b>	Country Image
<b>CNN</b>	Cable News Network
<b>COBBE</b>	Company Based Brand Equity
<b>COO</b>	Country of Origin
<b>CPI</b>	Corruption Perception Index
<b>CPIA</b>	Country Policy and Institutional Assessment
<b>CRI</b>	Country Reputation Index

<b>CUBBE</b>	Customer Based Brand Equity
<b>CUCOBBE</b>	Customer Company Based Brand Equity
<b>CZI</b>	Confederation of Zimbabwean Industries
<b>DCF</b>	Discounted Cash Flow
<b>DRC</b>	Democratic Republic of Congo
<b>ESAP</b>	Economic Structural Adjustment Programme
<b>EU</b>	European Union
<b>FDI</b>	Foreign Direct Investment
<b>FSI</b>	Fragile States Index
<b>FTLR</b>	Fast-Track Land Reform
<b>GCI</b>	Global Competitive Index
<b>GDP</b>	Gross Domestic Product
<b>GII</b>	Global Innovation Index
<b>GMB</b>	Grain Marketing Board
<b>GMCI</b>	Global Manufacturing Competitiveness Index
<b>GNU</b>	Government of National Unity
<b>GPA</b>	Global Political Agreement
<b>HDI</b>	Human Development Index
<b>HIV</b>	Human Immuno-Deficiency Virus
<b>HIFA</b>	Harare International Festival of the Arts
<b>ICCPR</b>	International Convention on Civil and Political Rights

<b>ICT</b>	Information and Communication Technology
<b>IEEA</b>	Indigenisation Economic Empowerment Act
<b>IMC</b>	International Marketing Council
<b>IMF</b>	International Monetary Fund
<b>KIPPRA</b>	Kenya Institute for Public Policy Research and Analysis
<b>MDC</b>	Movement for Democratic Change
<b>MDC-M</b>	Movement for Democratic Change Mutambara
<b>MDC-T</b>	Movement for Democratic Change Tsvangirai
<b>NBI</b>	Nation Brand Index
<b>NBMF</b>	Nation Brand Measurement Framework
<b>NBSI</b>	Nation Brand Strength Index
<b>NCA</b>	National Constitutional Assembly
<b>NOCZIM</b>	National Oil Company of Zimbabwe
<b>NRZ</b>	National Railways of Zimbabwe
<b>OECD</b>	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
<b>OPC</b>	Office of President and Cabinet
<b>POSA</b>	Public Order and Security Act
<b>RBZ</b>	Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe
<b>RBVBE</b>	Resource Based View Brand Equity
<b>SOBE</b>	Stakeholder Oriented Brand Equity
<b>SPI</b>	Social Progress Index

<b>SSA</b>	Sub-Saharan Africa
<b>STERP</b>	Short-Term Emergency Recovery Programme
<b>TTCI</b>	Travel and Tourism Competitive Index
<b>UDHR</b>	Universal Declaration of Human Rights
<b>UK</b>	United Kingdom
<b>UKZN</b>	University of KwaZulu-Natal
<b>UN</b>	United Nations
<b>UNHCR</b>	United Nations High Commission for Refugees
<b>UNICEF</b>	United Nations Children’s Fund
<b>USA/US</b>	United States of America
<b>WB</b>	World Bank
<b>WCS/Y</b>	World Competitiveness Scoreboard/Yearbook
<b>WEF</b>	World Economic Forum
<b>WGI</b>	Worldwide Governance Indicators
<b>WIPO</b>	World Intellectual Property Organisation
<b>WTO</b>	World Trade Organisation
<b>ZANU-PF</b>	Zimbabwe African National Union Patriotic Front
<b>ZBC</b>	Zimbabwe Broadcasting Corporation
<b>ZESA</b>	Zimbabwe Electricity Supply Authority
<b>ZIA</b>	Zimbabwe Investment Authority
<b>ZiFM</b>	Zimbabwe Frequency Modulation

<b>ZIMPREST</b>	Zimbabwe Programme for Economic and Social Transformation
<b>ZIMSTAT</b>	Zimbabwe Statistical Agency
<b>ZINARA</b>	Zimbabwe National Road Administration
<b>ZRP</b>	Zimbabwe Republic Police
<b>ZTA</b>	Zimbabwe Tourism Authority
<b>ZUPCO</b>	Zimbabwe United Passenger Company
<b>ZWD</b>	Zimbabwe Dollar

# CHAPTER 1

## The Scope and Background to the Study

### 1.1. Introduction

Nation branding is a new phenomenon in both developing and developed countries. This new concept has become particularly topical, especially in Africa, where the continent is regarded as backward. The continent is misconceived in this way by many people and thus suffers the effects of being misunderstood and considered under-researched (Matiza & Oni, 2013). Accordingly, Africa has been labelled as underdeveloped and a hub of corruption and poverty (Osei & Gbadamosi, 2011), thereby making the branding of many African countries difficult. African countries are therefore trying to rebrand themselves to shrug off their past-colonial identity and to differentiate themselves from other countries in the region and beyond, as well as to showcase their strengths.

African countries recognise the threats and opportunities surrounding them as they embark on nation branding initiatives that deliberately create a new identity devoid of negative past-colonial underpinning forces. These nation branding initiatives are meant to capture the opportunities or benefits that are obtained when a country undertakes nation branding. The benefits include attracting overseas tourists and investors and hosting major international events, some of which largely depend on former colonisers, and are explicitly being carried out to raise funds to improve the lives of the African populace. An example is Sir Bob Geldof, who in 2014 brought musicians together under Band Aid 30 to fight the Ebola epidemic, and yet many African countries are endowed with natural resources, but remain poor. This is supported by Ibidunni et al., (2019) who assert that sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) is the poorest and worst-performing region even amongst the developing world. More than 84% of people

in SSA live on the equivalent of less than US\$1 a day (Winters & Martuscelli, 2014). However, the labelling of African countries as “underdeveloped” instead of “developing” and as “emerging or transition economies”, has created a “continent brand effect”, which gives all countries in Africa a negative image (Papadopoulos & Hamzaoui-Essoussi, 2015). Prevailing factors such as political turmoil and economic meltdown also affect the economy (Hall, 2012).

Zimbabwe is not spared from the above-cited adverse effects, which ultimately deny its nation branding efforts the opportunity to create a competitive advantage to improve its economic performance. During the period 2000-2008, Zimbabwe experienced serious negative publicity that affected all sectors of its economy. In 2000, the land issue that saw President Mugabe’s government embarking on the Fast-Track Land Reform Programme dubbed ‘The Third Chimurenga / Jambanja War’, plunged the country into negative publicity, especially from the Western media. The violence that followed, made the tourism and hospitality industry collapse, and caused many professionals to migrate to neighbouring and overseas countries (Dzingirai et al., 2015). In response, the United Kingdom (UK) and other European Union (EU) countries imposed targeted economic sanctions on members of the ruling ZANU-PF party, a situation which denied Zimbabwe an opportunity to access credit lines from multilateral institutions like the World Bank (WB) and the International Monetary Fund (IMF).

The political violence in the run-up to the 2002 Presidential elections also contributed to the negative publicity of the Zimbabwean Brand, where human rights were violated as people were harassed and detained without trial, leading to a high-profile socio-political humanitarian crisis. The resultant breakdown of the rule of law adversely soured the relationship between Zimbabwe and the powerful Western European countries. The non-availability of money in banks, travel bans into Western countries, the subsequent emergence of the parallel market in

the country, and the shortage and unaffordability of foodstuffs to the general population became the order of the day. All these factors contributed to the negative image of Zimbabwe.

With its overall thrust to develop a nation branding framework applicable to Zimbabwe, this present study endeavours to examine the extent to which the above-exposed factors have influenced the negative image of Zimbabwe. This first chapter will thus detail and unpack the research problem and its general setting and background. The delimitations of the research boundaries will also be exposed as this will help in specifying the demarcations of the research, thereby formulating a robust foundation for the chapters which follow.

## **1.2. Research Contribution**

The contribution of this research is viewed in four ways. Firstly, there is little successful research done on nation branding in developing countries, Zimbabwe included. This research gap is shared by many authors, including Dinnie (2016), Anholt (2007), Wang et al., (2012), and Cedolin (2015). Kotler and Gertner (2010) go further to note that the measurement of how countries perform to overcome the differences between the nation's realities and the citizens' perceptions should be done from a strategic managerial position.

The second contribution is that this research takes a holistic approach which enhances foreign investment and broadens export activities as it considers all the components or elements of nation branding. In contrast, many nation-branding campaigns dwell on one aspect of nation branding like tourism or foreign direct investment. The present study will pivot on the Nation Brand Hexagon (NBH) by Anholt (2007), who asserts that a nation can understand, measure, and resultantly formulate a strong national image and reputation by using all six dimensions of the NBH, which are: people, tourism, exports, governance, immigration, and investment as well as heritage. The views of Groen and Lee (2013), who emphasise the relevance of the

holistic and dynamic approach in developing a nation branding model, are also infused into this study.

Thirdly, this study will seek to fill the gap among the nation branding measurement models by evaluating the nation branding measuring models, as well as identify the strengths and weaknesses of each model in highlighting the image of a country or nation.

Lastly, the study will seek to add value by formulating a comprehensive nation brand measurement framework for Zimbabwe.

### **1.3. Background to the Study**

Competition amongst many countries and the impact of globalisation has brought about country branding strategies. The literature on nation branding notes that countries worldwide are using nation branding to compete against each other (Dinnie, 2015). Nation branding has the potential to bring smaller, less-developed, and less-wealthy Nation States such as Zimbabwe onto the international stage, as it offers them an opportunity to present their strengths rather than weaknesses. According to Dinnie (2015), the three primary reasons why nations brand are: to boost exports, to stimulate inward investment, and to attract tourism. The annual number of tourists received by a country is thus a good measure of its popularity or image, people's confidence in investing in it, and its economic stability. In contrast, the global demand for a country's exports gives it a positive image.

Nation branding, which according to Allen (2016) builds, manages, and improves a country's image, is practised by many countries such as the United States of America (USA), France, South Korea, South Africa, Canada, UK, New Zealand, and Israel, where it is officially referred to as public diplomacy. Developing countries like Columbia and Tanzania are generating

nation branding programmes to spruce up their overall image. The improving of the image of these countries lures tourists, enhances capital investment, boosts tourism receipts, increases exports, and attracts a talented and creative workforce. Therefore, the goal of nation branding is to stimulate a country's standing reputation, help restore international credibility, influence inward investment, stimulate stronger international partnerships, increase currency stability, foster investor confidence, increase international political influence, reverse international rating downgrades, and enhance nation-building (Browning, 2016; Fan, 2010).

Countries depend on their name, reputation, or brand image to encourage direct foreign investment, attract tourism, generate trade and exports, and create a better internal and international image. Placing symbolic importance on exports of products and services to trade, forming political alliances, and encouraging foreign direct investments are critical tourism promotion campaign strategies that countries should exploit to create a better country image. Although not easy to control, such aspects as the country's history, the general behaviour of citizens, and the country's media play a decisive role when formulating nation branding campaign strategies.

On Zimbabwe's Independence Day, 18 April 1980, Robert Gabriel Mugabe, then Prime Minister of Zimbabwe, delivered a reconciliatory Independence Day speech. In his remarks, he asked people of different racial groups and people of different political persuasions to forgive one another and let bygones be bygones. The speech was well-received by the international community as it gave hope for a peaceful country in the foreseeable future. This was the first attempt made to fix the image of Zimbabwe in the post-colonial era. As such, the economy which enjoyed a currency that was more powerful than the US\$ was generally stable. Hence as a brand, Zimbabwe was the envy of many countries worldwide. The country had

inherited from its colonial masters a well-developed, highly-diversified, and prosperous agricultural industry, and lucrative mining sector.

After attaining Independence in 1980, the country went through a process to correct the colonial imbalances to spruce-up the nation brand and create a favourable country image in the international community. The Zimbabwean government had to ensure that Black, indigenous Zimbabweans learned the jobs done previously by Whites so that they could take over when Whites eventually retired. Unfortunately, from the second decade onwards, the economic situation began to degenerate, as sliding economic tendencies started to unfold. In 2000, the country embarked on the Fast-Track Land Reform Programme which pushed the sliding economy to a pathetic level. White-owned farms were invaded and grabbed by landless peasants, war veterans and unemployed youths. This programme, whose objective was to redress the land ownership imbalances between the Whites and Blacks, earned the ruling party, ZANU-PF, the much-needed political mileage to beat the new but popular opposition political party, the Movement for Democratic Change (MDC) and resoundingly win national elections. Unfortunately, the exercise proved retrogressive as its effects made the economy to almost bleed to a lifeless state. Because of the land invasions, the majority of White Zimbabweans who were in control of the economy, packed their bags and migrated to other countries. Subsequently, the agricultural sector, which was the backbone of the country's economy, collapsed, ushering the birth of chronic food shortages and the ultimate closure of the industrial fabric of the country. Land reform thus became the turning point in the perception of Zimbabwe by the international community. Hence, by the end of the third decade, there was a total paralysis of all the economic sectors of the country. The economy had deplorably crumbled and made the country's image shift from being labelled as the 'breadbasket' of Southern Africa, to being considered as the 'basket case' of Southern Africa.

Some 40 years after gaining Independence, the country had become a net importer of almost all essential commodities from cereals to simple accessories. Very few products found their way into the export market in the SSA region and beyond. Instead, a sharp decline in maize production was witnessed, causing the country to import its grain needs from countries in the region like South Africa and Zambia.

Generally, Zimbabwe's agricultural performance as measured per capita declined from its highest level in 2001 to half that level in 2006, and the unemployment rate shot up. On the other hand, Zimbabwe's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) shrank by 40% between 1998 and 2006 and the investment and tourism situation ground to a halt, because of the blotted image of the country. In response to the adverse economic landscape, many skilled people migrated to economically and politically stable countries.

Given the general slowing global economic growth, Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) has underperformed across Africa. In the case of Zimbabwe, the level is much lower than most countries in the region. For example, according to UNCTAD (2016), Zambia and Mozambique's FDI were pegged at US\$ 1.6 billion and US\$ 3.7 billion respectively, whereas Zimbabwe's FDI stood at a way much lower peg of US\$ 421 million. Due to its negative publicity, Zimbabwe began exporting less than it was importing, making it to stand at 167 out of 180 countries on the World Economic Forum's Global Competitive Index (GCI). The GCI is an instrument used to measure policies of institutions to establish their levels of economic prosperity. The decline of Zimbabwe's GCI meant that Zimbabwe's products did not compete favourably with its competitors in the region and that Zimbabwe was not fully utilising its agricultural endowments to produce products for the export market.

Zimbabwe as a preferred tourism destination faced a downturn in its international reputation mainly due to political instability and other socio-economic challenges that occurred from 1999 onwards. The negative political and socio-economic publicity the country received on the international stage, downgraded its destination brand value. The country has thus experienced a marked decline in tourist arrivals from traditional western markets such as the UK (Zibanai, 2018). The sector was estimated to be worth half a billion US dollars in 2016, and was projected to contribute US\$ 5 billion to the Zimbabwe economy by 2020. Due to the politically-inflicted disturbances, the traffic flows of international tourists thus decreased and foreign currency receipts dipped to about US\$ 176 million (ZTA, 2017). Economists stress that tourism has far-reaching multiplier effects on national economies reflected in the increase in personal incomes, central government revenues, support in balance of payments, and the promotion of downstream industries directly and indirectly linked to the sector (Zibanai, 2018).

Prior to the land reform programme Zimbabwe hosted several cultural events. Among these were the All-Africa Games in 1995, the Harare International Festival of the Arts (HIFA), the International Book Fair, as well as many international music artists coming to Zimbabwe during this period. Following the land reform process, the number of international artists coming to Zimbabwe dropped sharply, most citing that it was unsafe to travel to Zimbabwe. Culture and heritage play a pivotal role in giving the nation its identity which is important in the nation branding context. The national emblem of the stone-carved Zimbabwe bird, the ancient conical granary tower and circular wall of The Great Zimbabwe, as well as motifs associated with Chiremba / Epworth Balancing Rocks build heritage, thereby form key visual elements in the country's branding enterprise (Thondhlana et al., 2021).

Upon receiving negative publicity from western countries such as the UK, Zimbabwe engaged its people as brand ambassadors. Their task was to market the country using word of mouth. The literature review notes that nation brand ambassadors are the face of the brand and must have a positive impact on other stakeholders and audiences, both internally and externally. Dinnie (2015) asserts that brand ambassadors can have the potential of being a cost-effective way of promoting a nation. Accordingly, the country mooted well-known Zimbabweans such as the late Oliver Mtukudzi, and business mogul, Strive Masiyiwa, as possible brand ambassadors of Zimbabwe because of their positive reputation globally.

During the past decade, Zimbabwe has been affected by many issues relating to bad publicity and perception. Such issues include land reform disputes, bad economic policies, human rights abuses, and corruption. This is supported by Matamanda et al., (2019), who view the Zimbabwean situation in the past decade as a “perfect storm” in which Zimbabwe has experienced a severe economic crisis and a political and environmental meltdown that has affected the image of Zimbabwe as a choice tourist destination.

In this study, the researcher intends to find out the reasons behind Zimbabwe’s negative publicity and their effect on Zimbabwe as a brand. The study will go further to establish why the country had become a pale shadow of its former self, and yet it once had leverage over other countries in the region. The research will also seek to establish how the negative publicity of a nation brand has affected the ranking of the country.

In conclusion, the sections to follow in this chapter will address the problem definition, research objectives, research questions, the significance of the study, and the theoretical framework that guides the research.

## **1.4 Problem Statement**

Although the improvement of the nation's brand is a top priority for the Zimbabwe government, the country has experienced a negative nation brand. This negative perception has affected all sectors of the economy, including manufacturing, tourism, and banking systems. Even its international relations with several regional and international countries are not at ease. Hence, improving the country's nation brand is a top priority for the Zimbabwe government in its efforts to address emerging challenges associated with an inferior nation brand. To develop policies meant to improve the nation brand, there is a need to measure the extent to which negative publicity has affected the nation brand of Zimbabwe. The literature review reveals that there is no objective measure that is used to assess the strength of a country brand (Fetscherin, 2010). This is also supported by Buhmann and Ingenhoff (2015: 103) who lament the lack of comprehensive conceptual models and appropriate measurement instruments to examine and compare the effects of country images in different contexts. Zimbabwe is not spared in this regard. Developing such a measure would thus assist countries in assessing their competitive positions.

Despite the importance of nation branding to the socio-economic development of a country, Zimbabwe suffers from a negative brand image as evidenced by low levels of foreign direct investment and tourist arrivals, among other challenges. The development of a positive brand depends on knowing and understanding the factors that influence a nation's brand. Unfortunately, as the literature search reveals, there appears to be little or no research studies that identify and test such drivers in Zimbabwe. The purpose of this study is therefore to determine the critical dimensions that need to be included in developing Zimbabwe's nation brand measuring framework.

At a global level, the questions that this study endeavoured to address were as follows:

- i. Why does Zimbabwe need a nation brand measurement framework?
- ii. Which elements should be used to formulate Zimbabwe's nation brand measurement framework?
- iii. What key factors of Zimbabwe's nation brand index should be used to develop a nation's brand measurement framework?

The nation brand measurement framework is a strategic model that is ideal for policy makers and heads of states when implementing their nation branding initiatives in their respective countries.

## **1.5. Research Objectives**

### **1.5.1. Main Objective / Primary Research**

The main objective of the study was to develop a suitable measurement framework to determine Zimbabwe's NBI.

### **1.5.2. Specific Objectives**

This study was guided by the following specific objectives:

- i. To examine the strategic issues that need to be addressed to improve Zimbabwe's brand.
- ii. To determine the key factors that influence Zimbabwe's brand image.
- iii. To evaluate the dimensions of nation brand measurement indexes.
- iv. To establish the commonly used indexes for measuring nation brand image.
- v. To determine the critical dimensions to be included in developing Zimbabwe's nation brand measurement framework.

## **1.6. Research Questions**

The following research questions were addressed:

- i. What are the strategic issues that need to be addressed to improve Zimbabwe's brand?
- ii. What are the key factors that influence Zimbabwe's brand image?
- iii. How are the dimensions of nation brand measurement indexes evaluated?
- iv. What is the commonly used index for measuring nation brand image?
- v. What critical dimensions should be included in developing Zimbabwe's nation brand measurement framework?

## **1.7. Significance of the Study**

The study is of great importance to the following stakeholders.

### **1.7.1. The State**

The nation branding framework will guide the development of policies to develop a nation brand. It can also be used as an evaluation tool to check on the effectiveness of policies used to build nation brand. And lastly, it can also be used as a guide in the allocation of resources towards improving nation branding.

### **1.7.2. The Economy**

By implementing the nation branding framework, stakeholders in the economy may experience meaningful growth. This will reduce poverty, unemployment, corruption, and other social ills associated with underdevelopment. In addition, it will enable every sector to contribute meaningfully to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Finally, the research will form part of

critical secondary data which other students may refer to when pursuing research in related areas.

### 1.7.3. The Researcher

The researcher's analytical and writing skills will be improved. The researcher will contribute meaningfully to the existing body of knowledge on the literature on nation branding.

## 1.8. The Research Hypothesis

### 1.8.1. Main Hypothesis

**H<sub>1</sub>:** There is a relationship between a nation brand measurement framework and the six elements of nation branding.

**H<sub>0</sub>:** There is no relationship between a nation brand measurement framework and the six elements of nation branding.

The literature indicates that the six elements which constitute nation branding are: people, tourism, investment and immigration, culture and heritage, exports, and governance. To test or examine whether these six elements should constitute a measurement framework, the main hypothesis is further developed into sub-hypothesis informed by these six elements.

### 1.8.2. Sub-Hypotheses

**H<sub>0</sub>:** (Null Hypothesis)

**H<sub>1</sub>:** (Alternative Hypothesis)

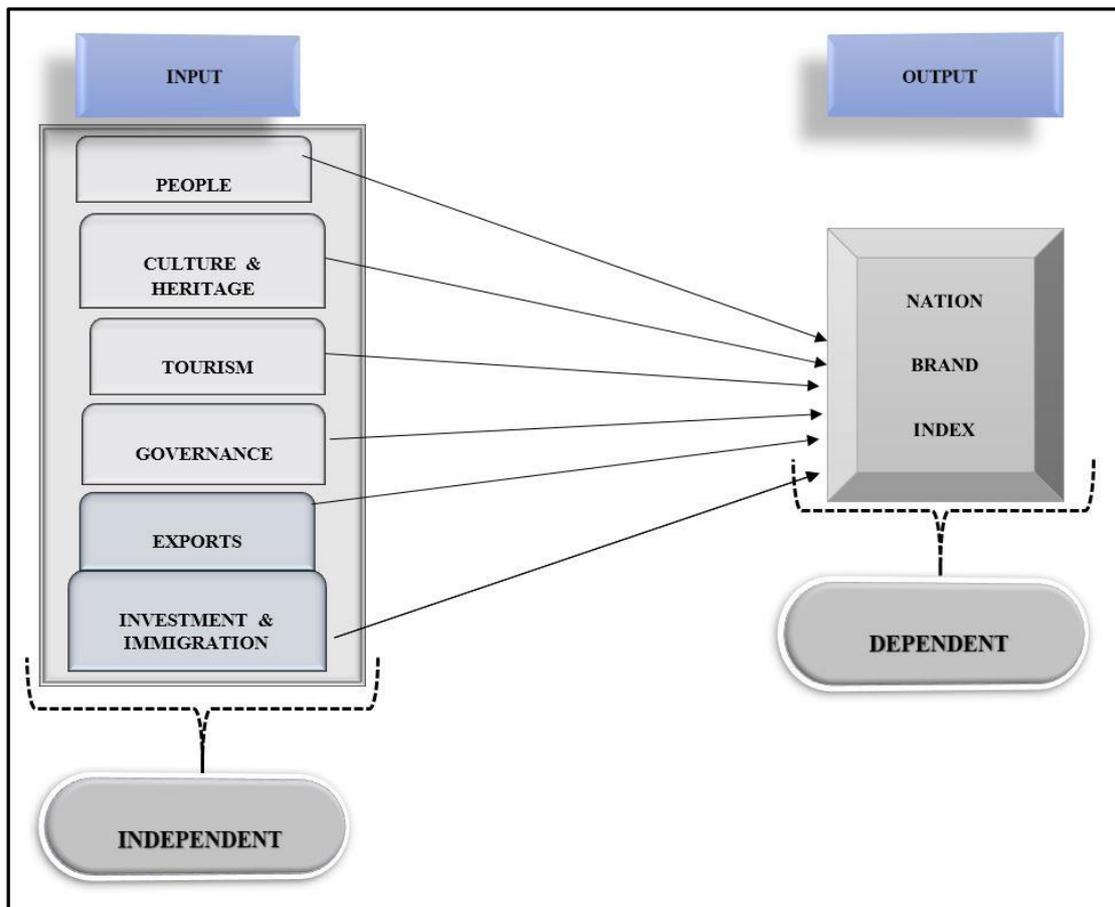
**H<sub>01</sub>:** There is no relationship between people element and brand measurement framework.

- H1<sub>1</sub>:** There is relationship between people element and brand measurement framework.
- H0<sub>2</sub>:** There is no a relationship between culture and heritage element and nation brand measurement framework.
- H1<sub>2</sub>:** There is relationship between culture and heritage element and nation brand measurement framework.
- H0<sub>3</sub>:** There is no relationship between tourism element and nation brand measurement framework.
- H1<sub>3</sub>:** There is a relationship between tourism element and nation brand measurement framework.
- H0<sub>4</sub>:** There is a no relationship between exports element and nation brand measurement framework.
- H1<sub>4</sub>:** There is a relationship between exports element and nation brand measurement framework.
- H0<sub>5</sub>:** There is no relationship between investment and immigration and nation brand measurement framework.
- H1<sub>5</sub>:** There is a relationship investment and immigration and nation brand measurement framework.
- H0<sub>6</sub>:** There is no a relationship between governance element and nation brand measurement framework.
- H1<sub>6</sub>:** There is a relationship between governance element and nation brand measurement framework.
- H0<sub>6</sub>:** There is no relationship between investment and immigration and nation brand measurement framework.

**H1<sub>6</sub>:** There is a relationship investment and immigration and nation brand measurement framework.

### 1.9. Conceptual Framework

Figure 1.1 presents a conceptual frame for the study showing the dependent and independent variables.



**Figure 1.1. Conceptual Framework**

Source: Author

A conceptual framework is a visual presentation of critical variables, factors or concepts and their relationships among each other which must be studied in the research graphically or in another narrative (Antonenko, 2015). Furthermore, a conceptual framework consists of

concepts and definitions related to a scholarly study (Crook et al., 2008). The present study sought to develop a nation brand measurement framework for Zimbabwe. The country has different competencies as represented by the six dimensions: people, governance, investment and immigration, tourism, exports and culture and heritage (Anholt, 2007). These competencies need to be managed for the country to have a positive image globally. Each of the six competencies contribute in a different way to the nation's image, and each dimension is perceived differently by global stakeholders. The present study would like to ascertain the contribution of each dimension in the formulation of Zimbabwe's brand measurement framework. The rank order of the dimensions is crucial in the development of the measurement framework. In this study, the independent variables are: people, governance, investment and immigration, tourism, exports and culture and heritage, where the dependent variable is nation brand index (measurement framework).

## **1.10. Delimitations of the Study**

### 1.10.1. Theoretical Delimitations

The literature search focused on the origins of nation branding, the emergence of country branding, theories of nation branding, the concept of nation branding, and nation branding measuring models. Since the research sought to develop a nation branding measurement framework for Zimbabwe, it was essential to understand the concept of branding. Such had to take place before it was necessary to go deeper into theories of nation branding and models of measuring nation branding. Nation branding models by Anholt (2007) and other scholars, were critiqued to close the gaps in the literature. Since the nation branding concept is relatively new, the historical literature on branding was also consulted to give depth to the research.

### 1.10.2. Geographical Boundary

The research mainly targeted companies, organisations and institutions that are associated with nation branding. The respondents were drawn from three major towns of the country and line ministries, parastatals and stakeholders in the tourism and hospitality industry located in Harare. Government ministries also participated in the research because of their involvement in policymaking. The major towns/cities in Zimbabwe were Harare, Bulawayo, and Gweru. The justification for using these towns/cities was that they formed the administrative centres for nation branding organisations and institutions.

## **1.11. Research Assumptions**

### 1.11.1. Assumption #1

The macro-economic environment obtaining in the country should continue to prevail, as this gives a conducive atmosphere upon which to carry research on nation branding. The nation's image can be adequately and accurately measured. The findings will depict what is happening on the ground.

### 1.11.2. Assumption #2

The second assumption involves the successful engagement of executives and ministers to partake in the research, given their busy schedules. It was thus hoped that these respondents would co-operate and create time from their busy schedules.

## **1.12. Limitations of the Research**

### 1.12.1. Limitation #1

The primary limitation is that the research was concentrated in three major cities when, in fact, issues concerning nation branding affect every area in the country. However, this limitation was minimised by using sampling methods that ensure broad representation of the population.

### 1.12.1. Limitation #2

The second limitation was related to the financial constraints of carrying out the research. This limitation was minimised by securing a research grant at the researcher's workplace.

## **1.13. Structure of the Study**

This study is structured into eight chapters as follows:

**Chapter 1: The Scope and Background to the Study.** This introductory chapter outlines the background to the study, statement of the problem, research objectives, research questions, and conceptual framework.

**Chapter 2: Overview of Zimbabwean Business Environment.** This chapter covers an overview of the business environment in Zimbabwe. It shows the phases through which the economic environment went through, from 1980-1990 to the crisis period 1998-2008. The crisis period was characterised by high inflation, shortages of essential commodities, high unemployment, and political unrest. Finally, the third phase covers the recovering period 2009-2013, which shows the economic recovery because of the Government of National Unity (GNU). The current phase which covers 2013-present mirrors to some extent the crisis period based on the shortage of money in banks.

**Chapter 3: Literature Review.** This chapter traces the origins of branding and how the concept gained prominence.

**Part A: Branding and Nation Branding.** In this part, the emergence of country branding or nation branding will be analysed. Theories of nation branding will also be outlined. The chapter concludes by looking at how a country or a nation brand can be measured and nation brand measurement models developed.

**Part B: Nation Branding Case Studies.** This part of the chapter looks at different countries that have carried out nation branding campaigns and provides an analysis of the methods they have used.

**Part C: Measuring Nation Brand Equity Approaches/Macro Models.** This part of the chapter examines the primary approaches used in measuring brand equity. These include: customer-based brand equity (CUBBE), company-based brand equity (COBBE), customer and company-based equity (CUCOBBE), the resource-based view (RBVBE) and stakeholder-oriented brand equity (SOBE).

**Part D: Micro-Nation Branding Measurement Indexes.** This final part of the chapter unpacks the different micro indexes that are used to measure nation branding efforts. Some of the indexes have indirect effects on nation branding, and as such cannot be ignored as their impact may eventually affect the image of the country. The indexes discussed in this chapter include: The Mo Ibrahim Foundation Index of African Governance; Social Progress Index (SPI); Corruption Perception Index (CPI); Human Development Index (HDI); Nation Brand Index (NBIF); World Competitiveness Scoreboard/Yearbook (WCS/Y); Global Competitiveness Index (GCI); Doing Business; Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index (TTCI); Modified Fombrun-RI

Country Reputation Index (CRI); Global Manufacturing Competitiveness Index (GMCI); Fragile States Index; and Country Brand Ranking (CBR).

**Chapter 4: Conceptualising Zimbabwe's Nation Branding Experiences and Challenges.** This chapter provides an overview of Zimbabwe's nation branding, the approach that the country has taken in formulating its nation branding efforts, and the models that are used in measuring nation branding. The challenges that Zimbabwe has faced in formulating and implementing nation branding and the possible interventions will also be discussed.

**Chapter 5: Research Methodology.** The chapter sequentially looks at the research philosophy, research design, research strategy, population of the study, sampling frame, and sampling techniques and procedure. The chapter goes further to look at sample size, data sources, research instruments, data collection, validity and reliability, ethical considerations, and data analysis and presentation.

**Chapter 6: Data Analysis and Presentation.** This chapter presents and analyses data collected from 510 respondents in different ministries in Zimbabwe and discusses it accordingly. Data is explored and presented in the form of tables and charts. The researcher addresses critical questions and hypotheses by collecting data using a structured questionnaire. A stratified random sample of 510 respondents was selected, and the questionnaire was administered. A Likert Scale based on a scale of 1-5 was used to determine the significance of factors that influence the nation brand index.

**Chapter 7: Discussion of Findings.** This chapter covers a discussion of the results that were obtained from the research based on the objectives of the study. The main objective of the study was to develop a nation brand measurement framework for

Zimbabwe. Sub-objectives were also developed. The first three objectives are covered by the interview guide, and the last two objectives by the questionnaire as well as the interview guide. All the objectives of the study were achieved, and the chapter discusses the findings and compares them with previous research studies that were done in other parts of the world on the measurement of nation brand.

**Chapter 8: Summary, Conclusions and Managerial Implications.** This final chapter summarises the significant findings of the research, provides conclusions, and makes managerial recommendations. The conclusions are made regarding the research objectives. It is from the conclusions that implications to management are identified, and recommendations are made in the development of a nation brand measurement framework for Zimbabwe. Suggested areas for further study are also given.

#### **1.14. Chapter Summary**

This chapter outlines the background to the study, the motivation of carrying this research (research contribution), problem statement, research objectives, and research questions, significance of the study, delimitations, and limitations of the study and structure of the thesis.

The next chapter will provide an overview of the Zimbabwean business environment.

## Chapter 2

### The Zimbabwean Business Environment

#### 2.1. Introduction

Zimbabwe's business environment has changed over time following the business cycle fluctuation patterns. Dekimpe and Deleersnyder (2017) define the business cycle as the natural fluctuation of the economy between periods of expansion (growth) and contraction (recession). Many factors have influenced the fluctuating periods of growth and contraction experienced in the business fraternity in Zimbabwe during the five phases through which the Zimbabwean business environment has passed. These periods were: 1980-1990; 1991-2000; 2001-2008; 2009-2013 and 2014-present.

At Independence in 1980, Zimbabwe inherited a sound and vibrant economy from the government of then Prime Minister Ian Douglas Smith, resulting in the country experiencing high growth rates of 10.7% and 9.7% in 1980 and 1981 respectively. However, a paradigm shift emerged during the 1990s when Zimbabwe adopted the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP). The ESAP was a fiscal policy put in place to liberalise the economy (Nyabereka, 2017). The policy established a one-stop investment centre and commercialised parastatals, but also resulted in economic challenges to the general population, an example of which was the introduction of outsourcing of services resulting in job losses.

The period 2001-2008 dubbed 'the crisis' was indeed a time of economic crisis. The awarding a pay out of Z\$50 000 to every ex-combatant and the sending of Zimbabwe troops to the Democratic Republic of Congo, were unbudgeted burdens, which ultimately set the tone for the crushing of the local currency (Nyabereka, 2017).

In contrast, the period 2009-2013 is viewed as a recovery period. During this period, the nation benefitted from the Government of National Unity (GNU) which was formed as a solution to the 2008 disputed elections. The Zimbabwean dollar was abandoned in favour of the multi-currency regime, specifically the United States Dollar, the South African Rand and to a lesser extent, the Botswana Pula to stabilise inflation (Mukuhlani, 2014).

## **2.2. The Overview of the Business Environment**

The business environment is an unpredictable dynamic ‘creature’ that keeps changing because of the prevailing economic, socio-political, and institutional climate. The business environment incorporates outside factors which may bring opportunities or threats to companies. These factors include prevailing legal conditions, and socio-economic forces, as well as the impact of technology, suppliers, competitors, and government (Jibril & Odua, 2013). Kotler and Armstrong (2010) are of the view that the business environment is the totality of all forces which affect the organisation and its business operations.

## **2.3. The Importance of the Business Environment**

Knowledge of the business environment enables institutions and companies to ascertain opportunities and threats inherent in the environment. It also makes the manager’s task of solving business challenges easy (Gurel, 2017). Environmental analysis thus provides companies with the opportunity to offer alternative solutions to both the organisation and its customers, thereby creating new possibilities for growth and expansion. It also makes companies acquire requisite skills to analyse their competitors’ strategies and to ascertain the company’s strengths and weaknesses.

The economic environment is shaped by the industrial, fiscal, monetary, and investment policy of a country (Ghazinoory et al., 2011). A sound economic environment ensures that a company meets the competitive demands of the industry. At the same time, the foreign investment policy regulates the inflow of foreign direct investment into the country, thereby speeding up its industrial development.

The cultural and social environment is an essential aspect of any business environment. In contrast, the demographic environment which consists of population and age distribution is a crucial environment where labour and the market are found. The cultural and social environment influences all the 4 'P's' of marketing, (price, product, promotion, and place), and play a crucial role in the success of a business. However, the key to a successful business life in a country heavily relies on how the economic environment is managed. In Zimbabwe, during the 1990s and 2000s, economic mismanagement sparked hyperinflation, which in-turn sparked a massive migration of Zimbabweans into the diaspora and within the SSA region (Pufall et al., 2015). All sectors of the agro-based Zimbabwean economy sank and collapsed and caused hardships up and down the value chain. The collapse was triggered by government's decision in 1997 to ignore fiscal constraints in making large payments to war veterans. Another controversial decision was the Fast-Track Land Reform scheme which led to the decline in the productivity and output in agriculture (Anseeuw et al., 2012). The real GDP has thus declined by an estimated 52% since the Fast-Track Land Reform Programme was launched. While the coming in of Mnangagwa's new government gave business confidence and optimism, the country has nevertheless remained uncompetitive (Ndakaziva, 2018).

The political environment in a country positively or negatively affects the performance of business organisations (Mark & Nwaiwu, 2015). When the government changes rules and

regulations, the business environment may be affected, particularly in the case of businesses that operate internationally. The lack of political stability in any country can thus negatively impact its business operations.

#### **2.4. An Overview of the Zimbabwean Economy during the Period: 1980-1990**

When Zimbabwe attained Independence in 1980, it inherited the economic policies that were instituted to mitigate the effects of the economic and political sanctions imposed in 1965 on Ian Smith’s government because of its Unilateral Declaration of Independence (UDI) from the UK, its colonial power. These policies promoted self-sufficiency and economic independence. Several economic and social policies, including the capping of interest rates, foreign exchange controls and trade restrictions were also instituted. The economy of Zimbabwe was thus characterised by robust economic linkages which stimulated growth and development (Zimudzi, 2010). While the government heavily supported the agricultural sector to provide much-needed food and raw materials to the manufacturing industry, the manufacturing industry was the chief economic growth driver, followed by agriculture, retail and hotel industries. The average sectoral contribution to the GDP for the period 1985-1990 is presented in Table 2.1.

**Table 2.1. Average Sectoral Contribution to Gross Domestic Product**

Sector	Average GDP (%)
Agriculture	13
Manufacturing	32
Distribution & Hotels	9
Transport & Communications	4
Mining	3

*Source: ZIMSTAT (2017)*

The real economic growth rates during this period ranged between 3-4% with the highest growth rate of 7.6% being recorded in 1988. The economic growth after 1990, which averaged 32% was accompanied by the adoption of a series of major market-oriented economic reforms, chief of them being the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) of 1997. The ESAP allowed for an open market economy driven by a strong export base (Kawewe & Dibie, 2017). The main goals of the programme were to:

- i. Achieve GDP growth of 5% during 1991 to 1995.
- ii. Raise savings to 25% of GDP.
- iii. Reduce budget deficit to 5% of GDP by 1995.
- iv. Reduce inflation from 17.7% to 10% by 1995 (Hawkins, et al., 2010).

However, the ESAP failed to prop-up business and had disastrous consequences. Many companies closed, leading to the loss of jobs (Nyemba & Mbohwa, 2017). The government was unable to implement fiscal stabilisation measures and continued increasing government expenditure. As such, the deficit increased to 8% as compared to a target of 5% and GDP growth was 0.8% compared to the target of 5% (Hawkins, et al., 2010).

The failure of the ESAP led to the introduction of the Zimbabwe Programme for Economic and Social Transformation (ZIMPREST) in the period 1991-1997. This was a home-grown fiscal policy that was meant to address the shortcomings of the ESAP. However, the blueprint also failed due to the government's fiscal indiscipline, whereby the government did not conform to its macro-economic fundamentals. This led to high inflation, depleted foreign currency reserves, disequilibrium in the balance of payment (BOP) and declining economic growth (UNDP, 2008). This period cascaded into the period known as the crisis period (1997-2008).

#### 2.4.1. The Crisis Period (1997-2008)

This era is characterised by the events of 14 November 1997, called Black Friday. This was the day when the Zimbabwean dollar plummeted because of the unplanned and unbudgeted Z\$ 50 000 once-off payment to every ex-combatant, plus a monthly pension of Z\$ 2 000, (Hawkins et al., 2008). To raise the money for the unbudgeted expense, the government tried to introduce a war veterans' levy, but that faced much opposition by the general populace. The cost of agricultural inputs soared and undermined the viability of the producers who in turn demanded that the producer price of cereals be raised. In reaction, millers then increased prices by 24% in January 1998, and this triggered nation-wide riots. The government intervened by introducing price controls on all essential commodities (Hawkins et al., 2010).

Another factor that contributed to the economic decline of Zimbabwe was the country's involvement in the war in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) in 1998. The cost of funding the DRC war was estimated at US\$ 3 million per day, and analysts estimate that the government spent ZW\$ 6 billion in unbudgeted expenditure. Many economists maintain that the emergence of increased unbudgeted expenditure marked the beginning of the downfall of the Zimbabwean economy (Mlambo, 2017).

The next factor that contributed to the downfall of the economy was the Fast-Track Land Reform Programme which was initiated in a hurriedly and disorderly manner by President Mugabe's government in the year 2000, to redistribute land to the Black majority (Munyoro et al., 2018). Since the Lancaster House Agreement, signed on 21 December 1979, which technically protected White farmers had expired at the end of 1990, the land was unceremoniously taken from White farmers without compensation. Also, the distribution process lacked transparency as it favoured ruling ZANU-PF party loyalists, among them

influential government ministers. In addition to receiving large pieces of land, some of them ended up owning more than one farm. The redistribution process was viewed by many critics as unruly because it was not done within the judicial framework. For example, some White farmers were given a one-day ultimatum to vacate their farms without any prior warning. The many shortcomings of this programme contributed to the dramatic decrease in agricultural production and ultimately to the collapse of the economy. To make the situation worse, the government increased civil servants' salaries, despite a marked drop in revenue collection. This made the budget deficit to worsen from 5.5% of GDP in 1998 to 24.1% by the end of 2000 (Makina, 2010). By 2003, Zimbabwe had the fastest declining economy in the world, shrinking at an average of 18% per year.

The country was thus in crisis, as everything was in short supply, from fuel to essential consumer goods. The health facilities such as significant referral hospitals were also in a poor state of disrepair, without vital drugs, and doctors and nurses were always on strike. Civil servants' salaries were eroded by inflation. Some three to four million Zimbabweans migrated to overseas and neighbouring countries (Chagonda, 2016). Quasi-fiscal policies such as the Basic Commodities Supply Side Intervention (BACOSI) programme and price controls that were introduced by the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe (RBZ) failed to solve the economic problem, resulting in the banks experiencing severe cash shortages. According to Cuneo et al. (2017), in 2008, some 4 287 people died because of a cholera outbreak, thereby worsening the economic situation which was already bad. The hyper-inflation levels could be likened to that of the hyperinflation crisis of the Weimar Republic of Germany in 1923. Politically, the situation was very volatile as there was tension among the major political parties, ZANU-PF, and the MDC-T, where violence and hate speech were the order of the day. Some people were butchered and their houses burnt. Zimbabwe was no longer a safe place to live.

#### 2.4.2. The Recovery Era (2009-2013)

This period is when the Government of National Unity (GNU) was operationalised. Parties to this government included ZANU-PF, MDC-T and MDC-M. The Zimbabwe dollar was abandoned in favour of the multicurrency regime. The major currencies which were adopted included the US dollar, the South African Rand, the Botswana Pula, and lastly, the British Pound. The multicurrency regime stabilised the hyperinflationary environment, leading to enhanced policy credibility, macroeconomic stability, and growth of GDP. Bonga (2014) acknowledges the successes scored by the GNU and praises the introduction of the Short-Term Recovery Programme (STERP), for successfully stabilising hyperinflation and bringing economic stability in the country. On average, the Zimbabwe GDP grew by 10% between 2009-2012, while essential commodities were imported into the country from South Africa such as bread, milk, and cooking oil, and made available to the general population.

The key highlights of the GNU are significant reforms in the opening of the media space. This gave birth to independent newspapers and radio stations. Newspapers such as *The News Day* and *The Daily News* and radio stations like Zi FM and Star FM were launched (Sachikonye, 2011). Schools and universities were reopened, and UNICEF donated books to schools. Civil servants started receiving their salaries in US dollars. Some Zimbabweans who were in neighbouring countries began coming back home (Mukuhlani, 2014).

Although the GNU recorded some successes, there were some significant failures, including the failure to reform the security sector, which was notorious for arbitrary arrests, torture, and violation of various forms of human rights. The security personnel committed these human rights violations with impunity as the ZANU-PF party had no desire for liberal democracy (Jonas et al., 2013). The abuses took place unabated because the ground was technically not

even, as the ZANU-PF party had the upper hand in the GNU. This resulted in no significant review of presidential powers and such laws as the draconian Access to Information and Protection of Privacy Act (AIPPA) and Public Order and Security Act (POSA) (Mhandara & Poee, 2013).

#### 2.4.3. The Post-Government of National Unity Era to Present (2020)

The economy following the GNU suffered from underproduction across all sectors. The underperforming economy defied the strengths and opportunities in agriculture, manufacturing, mining, and tourism, arising out of diverse natural resource endowment, conducive climatic conditions and trained human resources, (Government of Zimbabwe, 2016). The Zimbabwean economy has undergone some structural changes which reflect the following structural regression trends:

- i. Increased dependence on primary commodities;
- ii. De-industrialisation and informalisation of the economy;
- iii. Infrastructural deficits and weak institutions, and
- iv. Weak budget, unsustainable expenditure, rising domestic debt and debt overhang.

### **2.5. Increased Dependence on Primary Commodities**

The two primary commodities, mining, and agriculture, have been at the forefront of the economic recovery plan in Zimbabwe since 2009, the leading export earner being the mining sector which benefited from the high mineral prices on the world market. It is risky however to rely on the export of primary commodities as it subjects the economy to the mercy of the international market and weather patterns (Chitiyo et al., 2016). The mining and agriculture sectors accounted for 93.5% of export earnings in the period 2009-2013, diamonds and

platinum being the primary drivers of Zimbabwe's export earnings. The manufacturing sector contributed the balance of 28.3%.

## **2.6. De-Industrialisation and Informalisation of the Economy**

A survey conducted by the Confederation of Zimbabwe Industries (CZI, 2015) revealed that manufacturing industries in Zimbabwe are under serious threat, as deindustrialisation has reached catastrophic levels. Significant causal factors of this deindustrialisation were low local demand, the high cost of materials, limited access to capital, the use of antiquated machinery and machine breakdown, competition from imports, the high cost of doing business, shortages of raw materials, power outages and water shortages.

As a result of persistent deindustrialisation and decline, the economy has become increasingly informalized. The share of informal employment has increased from 80% to 84.2% in 2011 and 94.5% in 2014. The growth of the informal sector of the economy was due to the closure of most manufacturing industries because of their non-viability and high cost of production. Between 2011-2014, 4 610 companies closed, retrenching 55 443 workers (Makina, 2010). Most informal economy workers are at the bottom of the economy and the social ladder and often work under precarious conditions.

## **2.7. Dis-Saving and Depressed Investment Levels**

The hyperinflation has greatly affected the average person in Zimbabwe. People can no longer save money in banks because numerous charges will erode their balances. Zimbabwe's domestic savings were estimated at -11% of GDP in 2015. Domestic and foreign investment has been depressed since 2000. The recommended savings and investment ratio levels of above 25% are considered optimum (World Bank, 2018).

The indigenisation laws also lacked clarity, causing a low level of FDI across the country. According to the RBZ, during the period 2002-2012, the average FDI for Zimbabwe was US\$88 million as compared to US\$ 800 million for Zambia and US\$ 586 for Mozambique (World Bank, 2018). The dollarization of the economy during the GNU stabilised the economy, while at the same time, bringing a high-cost structure to the economy. The use of the US \$ in the economy made Zimbabwe's exports more expensive and less competitive, while imports from other countries became cheaper (Buigut, 2015). According to the RBZ, Zimbabwe was a costly tourist destination because the US\$ was overvalued by 45%.

## **2.8. Infrastructural Deficits and Weak Institutions**

Infrastructure is a crucial enabler of economic growth and minimises the cost of doing business (Chitiyo et al., 2019). Unfortunately, the once vibrant Zimbabwe's infrastructure in the 1990s is now (in 2020) dilapidated because of lack of maintenance and mismanagement. The deterioration of the infrastructure is attributed to insufficient levels of public expenditure and lack of routine maintenance. The decline of the physical infrastructure is aggravated by the failure to form institutional capabilities for management and regulation of the primary network services.

## **2.9. Economic Sector Overview**

This section analyses the agricultural, manufacturing, tourism, education, transport, and communication sectors of the Zimbabwean economy.

### **2.9.1. Agriculture**

Agricultural production has been greatly affected by the land reform agenda. Agricultural production has been low and on the decline. The country's grain requirement stands at 1.95

million tonnes, while sugar production has been on the decrease substantially (Government of Zimbabwe, 2010). The production levels of most crops are below the national demand levels. As a result, the government is importing maize and wheat.

Funding for agricultural activities has been a significant challenge as the farmers cannot access loans from banks because they do not have collateral. The ninety-nine-year lease letters from the State are not accepted as collateral by banks, making farmers enter into agreements with large corporations who finance their cotton and tobacco, resulting in no gain to farmers as all proceeds go to those who provided the finance and the producers remain indebted to contractors.

#### 2.9.2. The Manufacturing Sector

The manufacturing sector is pivotal in economic development of any nation, being the key to employment creation and poverty alleviation (Lavopa & Szirmai, 2012). During the past three decades, Zimbabwe's manufacturing sector has however declined along with the economy due to among other things, a hyperinflationary environment (*Financial Gazette*, 2012). The manufacturing sector declined from employing 10% of the labour force to only 4%. Many companies have closed and some have relocated to their parent countries or to countries with more viable economies.

In Zimbabwe, the manufacturing sector's share of the GDP has halved from earlier peaks in the 1990s, whereby its industries have been exposed to intensive competition from developed economies. Most economies in Africa face challenges in terms of power infrastructure, critical shortage of skills, and limited foreign direct investment to the extent that it has culminated in a sharp decline in the scale of the industrial sector that operates with obsolete equipment and

an underutilised capacity which yields higher output costs compared to the developed world and emerging economies of Asia (Mazikana, 2017).

The manufacturing sector has been affected by a variety of challenges, including a lack of working capital support, a shrinking domestic market, high utility tariffs, a higher than regional tax structure, high wages, and the liquidity crunch. There are also a variety of supply-side bottlenecks which include fuel, electricity, imported inputs and skills. The demand for local products has also declined due to the availability of cheaper imports (Damiyano et al., 2012).

From being the second most industrialised country in sub-Saharan Africa after South Africa at Independence in 1980, Zimbabwe's economy has declined rapidly to the point where the country ranks among the poorest economic performers in the region (Mlambo, 2017). The three pillars of agriculture, mining, and manufacturing which had erstwhile underpinned the country's vibrant economy have suffered greatly from poor government policy choices resulting in the near collapse of the sector and massive unemployment. As a result, an estimated 90% of the Zimbabwean population has been forced to turn to the informal sector to survive.

According to a United Nations Report, since 1995 Zimbabwe has suffered large-scale de-industrialisation that has rendered its population to that of communal subsistence farmers. Zimbabwe's de-industrialisation has been caused by many factors, including poor economic policies set by the government, political instability, unbalanced productivity growth, the liquidity crunch, low domestic demand, lack or unavailability of adequate funding, excessively high and unsustainable wages, a fall in output, hyperinflation, obsolete machinery, massive power outages, and a decline in capacity utilisation partly due to an erratic power supply, the influx of cheap imported goods, antiquated machinery, and high labour costs (Mazikana, 2017).

### 2.9.3. Finance and Insurance

The economic meltdown has not spared the finance and insurance sector. Insurance claims were eroded by hyperinflation. Although this sector operated well in the 1990s, the hyperinflation problem started from 2005-2008 and from 2018 to date (Mpofu & Matsika, 2013).

Banks operated in the same manner as the informal traders during the crisis period, where they demanded coupons for cash. Banks felt the liquidity crisis, and there were shortages of cash, resulting in long queues for cash. At the introduction of the multicurrency regimen, banks again suffered as they had no hard currency to transact with (Chinjova & Zinhumwe, 2019). New minimum capital thresholds were set, and the RBZ gave banks until the 31 December 2010 as the deadline to meet those minimum capital requirements.

### 2.9.4. The Education Sector

The pre-Independence education system was both racist and discriminatory, where more resources were channelled towards White children than for Black children (Mapolisa & Tshabalala, 2013). At Independence, the ZANU-PF government sought to reverse such prejudicial policies by providing equal and free education for all through the rapid expansion of education resources to keep up with demand. Accordingly, there was a substantial increase in budget allocation to the education sector making it one of the most funded sectors of the economy. Education was consistently the single largest item of budgetary expenditure accounting for an average of 18% of total government expenditure in the 1980s (Mapolisa & Tshabalala, 2013). Mapolisa and Tshabalala (2013) further state that the share of GDP allocated to education increased by 3% between 1980 and 1985 and was one of the highest

levels of investment in education in the developing world. This saw an improvement in the literacy levels of the country raising to over 80%.

The second decade witnessed the real spending on individual students falling due to poor economic performance. Expenditure per student in primary school fell by 40% during the period 1990-1995, to the lowest level since the early 1980s. Since that period, the real spending per child never improved again following the economic meltdown (Mapolisa & Tshabalala, 2013). Furniture in most educational institutions was also quite a challenge, where desks, chairs, tables, and stools were in a poor state of repair. The poor state of the buildings was even more deplorable. Classrooms and other teaching/learning rooms were also inadequate, those available being in a dilapidated condition and in an abject state of disrepair. From 1999, the share of the budget allocated to primary, secondary, and tertiary education received a considerable cut, from 82% in 1997 to 79% for primary and secondary education, and from 7% to 4% for universities (Mapolisa & Tshabalala, 2013).

Public expenditure in education as a percentage of GDP in Zimbabwe is amongst the highest in the world. But the allocation of such resources across different functional areas suggests that more attention was given to administrators' salaries than to the salaries of teachers and conditions of service of the teachers and that of teaching materials. Because of poor working conditions, many Zimbabwean teachers subsequently emigrated to neighbouring countries and overseas.

Regarding university education, in 2006 the government scrapped the grants and loans scheme which paid in full the fees for students from poor backgrounds, in addition allocating to them a stipend to cover transportation and food costs. This was replaced with cadetship schemes

which paid three quarters of student fees. But that scheme has since become dysfunctional due to lack of funding (Mushawatu, 2017).

#### 2.9.5. Tourism

This sector suffered a decrease in tourist arrivals in 2014, due to fluctuations in the exchange rate pertaining at that time. Tourists from Zimbabwe's source markets had stopped coming to this previous prime tourist destination because of travel warnings given by their respective countries. Between the period 1980-2003, there was a steady increase in tourists visiting Zimbabwe before the trend began to decrease again in 2004. For example, in 1995, the receipts figure stood at US\$ 144.6 million, but had dropped to US\$ 124.7 million by 2004 (ZTA, 2014). With the reduction in tourist arrivals from Europe, Africa was the major contributor during 2009, followed by Europe, Oceanic, Middle East and America (Abel & Roux, 2017). In the 2008-2009 period, there was a percentage increase of tourists from Africa in absolute figures. The capital contribution was 8.6% in 2005, which rose to 9.7% in 2008, but fell again to 8.9% in 2009. The sector recorded two FDI projects in 2005 and 2008 (Abel & Roux, 2017).

#### 2.9.6. Transport and Communication

The condition of roads and rail facilities has deteriorated due to lack of maintenance and inadequate funding. Zimbabwe has a road network of 88 300 kms of which 15 000 kms of roads are paved, 56 000 km are weather roads, and the remainder are earth roads. The service capacity has since decreased. In 2000, it was 53%, and in 2009 it fell to 15% (Government of Zimbabwe, 2010; African Development Bank, 2019).

### 2.9.7. Culture and Heritage

The land reform programme affected the tourism sector in Zimbabwe. However, the country can grow the tourism sector through the marketing of its culture and heritage sites to the world. Consequently, the development of cultural tourism is relatively cost-effective as it does not require infrastructural and supra-structural investments. Accordingly, the sector has the potential to improve the competitiveness and attractiveness of tourism (Liu et al., 2014: 498). Cultural heritage sites have been very crucial in the construction of national and regional identities (Landers, 2010), where cultural heritage always play a critical role in the sustenance and revival of traditional tourist destinations.

Due to the land reform exercise, the reliance on wildlife as the drawcard for Zimbabwean tourism is no longer viable (Manwa, 2007) as tourists are seeking newer tourism experiences. In circumstances where traditional industries have declined, cultural tourism has been found to be an effective alternative source of revenue for cities and regions, and Zimbabwe is no exception. As tourism destinations go through difficult times of change, the development of cultural and heritage tourism is considered a viable option that could help local communities (Slabbert & Viviers, 2012). With Zimbabwe's economy being on the decline since the turn of the new millennium (Woyo & Woyo, 2017), the development of cultural and heritage tourism could benefit the country in terms of increasing the attractiveness of the country as an international tourist destination. Zimbabwe has remarkably rich, tangible, and intangible cultural and heritage resources which are under the National Museums and Monuments of Zimbabwe. These include the Victoria Falls, The Great Zimbabwe, The Mana Pools National Park and The Khami Ruins which are all listed as World Heritage Sites by UNESCO. The development of cultural and heritage tourism has tangible outcomes such as job creation, tax

revenues, economic regeneration, inward investments, and improved quality of life (Macheka, 2016). Cultural tourism development has been identified as a key economic development tool for South Africa's key growth areas (Ivanovic & Saayman, 2013). Also in Namibia, cultural tourism is placed as a critical component of development for enhancing community involvement and poverty reduction (Lapeyre & Luran, 2017; Kavita & Saarinen, 2016). Although the prospects of cultural tourism are very important, Zimbabwe as a country is greatly neglecting this important sector.

#### 2.9.8. People

Zimbabwe boasts of having the one of the highest literacy rates in Africa. The literacy rate is derived by calculating the number of people over 15 years of age who can read and write. Hence, the country has one of the highest adult literacy rates in Africa, with 89% of the adult population literate (World Bank, 2014). The political and economic crisis which affected much of the skilled human capital, resulted in many skilled people migrating to those countries offering better opportunities and better living conditions. It is estimated that almost three to seven million Zimbabweans, the majority of whom are professionals are living outside the country (UNDP, 2010). These emigrants are highly qualified and are therefore critical to the development of the country. This human flight capital has thus affected many sectors of the Zimbabwean economy, including primary, secondary, and tertiary education, the health sector, manufacturing, construction, and civil engineering.

The people aspect is thus important in formulating the image of the country. It is thus important for the government of Zimbabwe to create a conducive environment to curb the migration of this critical human resource. Zimbabweans are needed in most countries as they considered to

be hard working, welcoming, and do not discriminate, human traits which make them good 'export material' to the diaspora.

## **2.10. Chapter Summary**

As with other developing and developed economies, the Zimbabwean business environment has been characterised by business cycle fluctuations. The business cycle goes through boom, recession, depression and recovery and the process is continuous. The business environment in Zimbabwe has been affected by the fiscal policies that were adopted since Independence. These policies have been divided into five phases: 1980-1990, 1991-2000, 2001-2008, 2009-2013 and 2014 to date. The major sectors of the Zimbabwean economy are agriculture, mining, manufacturing, distribution and transport and communication, among others. The phases that the Zimbabwean economy has gone through trace how the image of Zimbabwe as a brand has changed over time.

The next chapter discusses the nature of nation branding. It traces the origin of the word 'brand', the branding process, the components of a good brand, and the place and/or nation branding terminology.

## **Chapter 3**

### **Literature Review**

#### **Part A: Branding and Nation Branding**

##### **3.1. Introduction**

The literature on branding and nation branding is reviewed in this chapter. The literature helps to establish the theoretical roots of the study, clarify the researcher's ideas, and develop research methodology and thereby serving to enhance and consolidate the researcher's body of knowledge (Kumar, 2011). This chapter reviews the literature on the origins of branding, definitions of branding, elements of branding and formulation of brand architecture, along with the contributions of brand elements to reinforce brand equity. The first part of the literature review concludes by examining the methods used to evaluate brand and brand equity. The second part of the chapter examines the emergence of nation branding, shows the distinction among place, nation, and destination branding, as well as the reasons why nation brand will be investigated. The chapter concludes by examining the different frameworks used to measure nation branding.

##### **3.2. The Origins of Branding/Concept of Branding**

The word 'brand' originated in the ancient times when livestock, criminals or slaves were permanently marked with a branding iron to identify ownership of property or goods. The word 'brand' is taken from the Old Norse word 'brandr', meaning 'to burn'. The owners of livestock used to brand their livestock with a hot iron as an ownership identification mark to differentiate their herd from those of other livestock owners (Müller, 2017). This practice dates to 2000 BCE. The modern ideas of brand commenced in the late nineteenth-century with the introduction of trademarks and attractive packaging (Usunier & Shaner, 2017) as a guarantee

of genuineness (Feldwick, 1996). Branding as a concept is of vital importance as it represents ownership of items of value.

During ancient times, the Chinese, Indians, and Romans used engravings to identify the ceramic type, as well as the origin of the material and date manufactured. Roman builders thus stamped their bricks and tiles to show the source of raw materials and to identify the person who made the object or built the house. Fugitives, slaves, gypsies, the homeless, and thugs and hooligans were marked with different “symbols of shame” (Rajaram & Shelly, 2012), while criminals were branded as a form of punishment.

The inception of international marketing in the fourteenth-century inspired owners of products, goods, and services to develop symbols and signs to differentiate and promote their brands. The signatures on Leonardo da Vinci’s paintings are thus seen as early signs of branding tools (Rajaram & Shelly, 2012). Medieval stores and mansions in Germany had individualised markings meant to differentiate them. Bricks and tiles from Mesopotamia and Egypt had engravings showing the name of the monarch who had commissioned the structure or the one who was in power during the time of construction.

Industrialisation in the nineteenth-century championed the mass production of household goods, and hence branding was a necessary device to differentiate these products. The first branded products were from Coca-Cola, Quaker Oats, and Campbell Soup (Rajaram & Shelly, 2012). The branding process encountered three different stages in the twentieth-century:

- i. The prevalence of commercialised brands (1915-1929);
- ii. The challenges for brand producers (1930-1945);
- iii. The formation of standard regarding the brand management (1946-1985) (Müller, 2017).

Branding practice has moved from branding products and commodities to branding places, nations, and destinations. In the section which follows, further discussion will be given to the different definitions of a brand, as provided by other authors.

### **3.3. Definitions of a Brand**

Aaker et al. (2013) defines a brand as a mark, name or symbol that differentiates companies from one another. Schwarzkopf (2010) likens the brand to a trademark or a label that describes the variety and grade of goods. Ries and Ries (2000) view a brand as a special word with the power to influence purchasing behaviour in the mind of the consumer. The American Marketing Association (AMA) defines a brand as a name, term, sign, symbol or design, or a combination of the same, intended to identify the goods or services of one seller or group and differentiate them from those of their competitors (AMA, 2018). For Kotler and Armstrong (2015), a brand is more than a product because it can have dimensions that differentiate it in some ways other than as products designed to satisfy the same needs. According to Geerts, (2013), a brand exists when it has the power to influence the market acquired by its sources of cumulative brand experience.

Kotler and Armstrong (2015) argue that a brand is a promise to the consumer for which the brand has formed, as a set of perceptions about a product, service, or business. It thus holds a distinctive influential position in the consumer's mind. A brand is often described (in relation to a product or service), as an idea related to an emotion, mental construct, concept, perceptions, and feelings in the customer's psyche (Tretjakova & Nurkkala, 2012). A brand should therefore differentiate, reduce complexity, and simplify the decision-making process. A branded product does not only satisfy the customer's rational need, but also provides certain benefits that fulfil the customer's emotional needs (Rajini & Prabha, 2017).

### **3.4. Elements of Branding**

Brand elements are also referred to as brand identities. These are devices or trademarks used to distinguish a brand from competing brands (Kotler & Armstrong, 2015). The leading brand elements include: names, uniform resource locators (URL), logos, symbols, characters, slogans, jingles, packages, and signage (Keller & Swaminathan, 2020).

Brand elements are chosen to improve brand awareness and enable the formation or development of robust, favourable, and distinctive brand associations (Keller & Swaminathan, 2020). The essential criteria that are used in choosing and developing brand elements include: memorability, meaningfulness, aesthetics appeal, adaptability, flexibility, protectability, legal, competitiveness, and transferability within and across geographical and cultural boundaries, (2020).

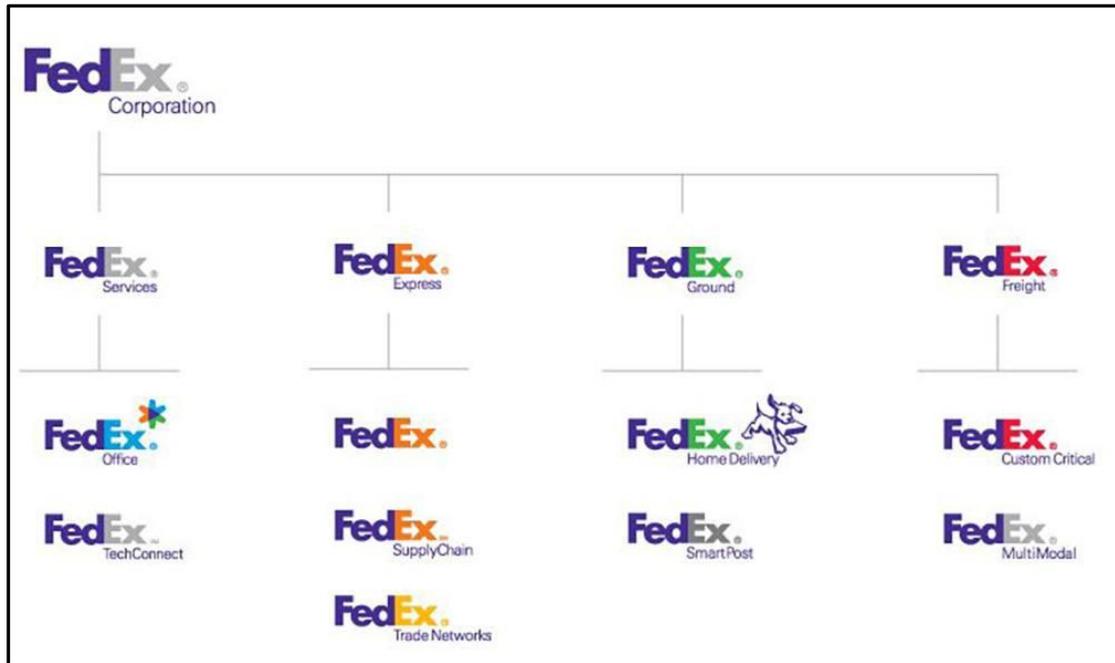
Brand elements can either assume an offensive or defensive role. Under the offensive position, brand elements should be memorable, distinctive, and easy to recognise and recall. The brand elements should be meaningful to convey to the customer the descriptive or persuasive content that makes her or him identify the right product as well as the credibility of the product. The descriptive dimension is a determinant of brand awareness and salience. Persuasive content is an element of brand image and positioning, which reflects the brand personality the last offensive criteria. Likeability reflects the aesthetical appeal of the brand style and brand themes (Keller & Swaminathan, 2020).

The defensive role of brand elements to maintain brand equity should be transferable to the extent that they should cover more than one product line, market segment, geographic boundaries, markets, and cultures. Brand elements also need to be adaptable and flexible in time to remain relevant. Protectability is the last defensive criterion that considers the legal

and unauthorised competitive infringement of the brand (Keller & Swaminathan, 2020). The elements of the brand include: brand equity, brand name, logos and symbols, characters, packaging, slogans, and jingles. The entire set of brand elements makes up the brand identity and image. The cohesiveness of the brand identity depends on the extent to which the brand elements are consistent. Some strong brands have several brand elements that directly reinforce each other.

### **3.5. The Formulation of Brand Architecture**

Brand architecture is the system that a company uses to develop, manage, and promote their brand portfolios (Muda et al., 2014), while Martín-Santana and Beerli-Palacio (2013) view it as a method a company uses to manage its brand portfolio. It deals with the structure and design of brands which are constantly influenced by the changing environment. Alternatively, brand architecture refers to how firm structures and organises its products in terms of naming, positioning, and marketing. Brand architecture is thus the blueprint that guides brand building, development, and marketing. It identifies supra-brands and sub-brands based on geographical and product differentiation. It also establishes a hierarchical relationship among a company's brands and is important to an organisation as it gives structure to the parent brands and sub-brands of the company.



**Figure 3.1. Brand architecture of FedEx**

Source: Smith (2018)

As depicted in Figure 3.1., the brand architecture of FedEx reflects the various products under the FedEx brand.

Tourist destinations are establishing the brand architecture of their destinations to give tourists clarity regarding its products and brands. In destination, marketing brand architecture enables destinations to stay ahead of competitors. Hence, if the destination is a country, then cities, states and union territories act as sub-brands and country is the parent brand. For example, the UK as a destination is a supra-brand and all countries which are part of the UK, with England, Scotland, Northern Ireland, and Wales as sub-brands. Brand architecture helps in the revival, retention, or merger of brands that have a low-market impact. It is also used for overcoming any conflicts, reviving the weak or dominant brand, and launching new brands.

Developing a brand architecture helps marketers determine which products and services to introduce and which brand names, logos, symbols to apply to new and existing products. Brand

architecture plays two roles, the first being to clarify brand awareness, improve consumer understanding and communicate similarity and differences between individual products and services. The second role is to enhance brand image, maximise transfer equity between the brand and individual products and services to improve trial and repeat purchase (Hsu, Fournier, & Srinivasan, 2016).

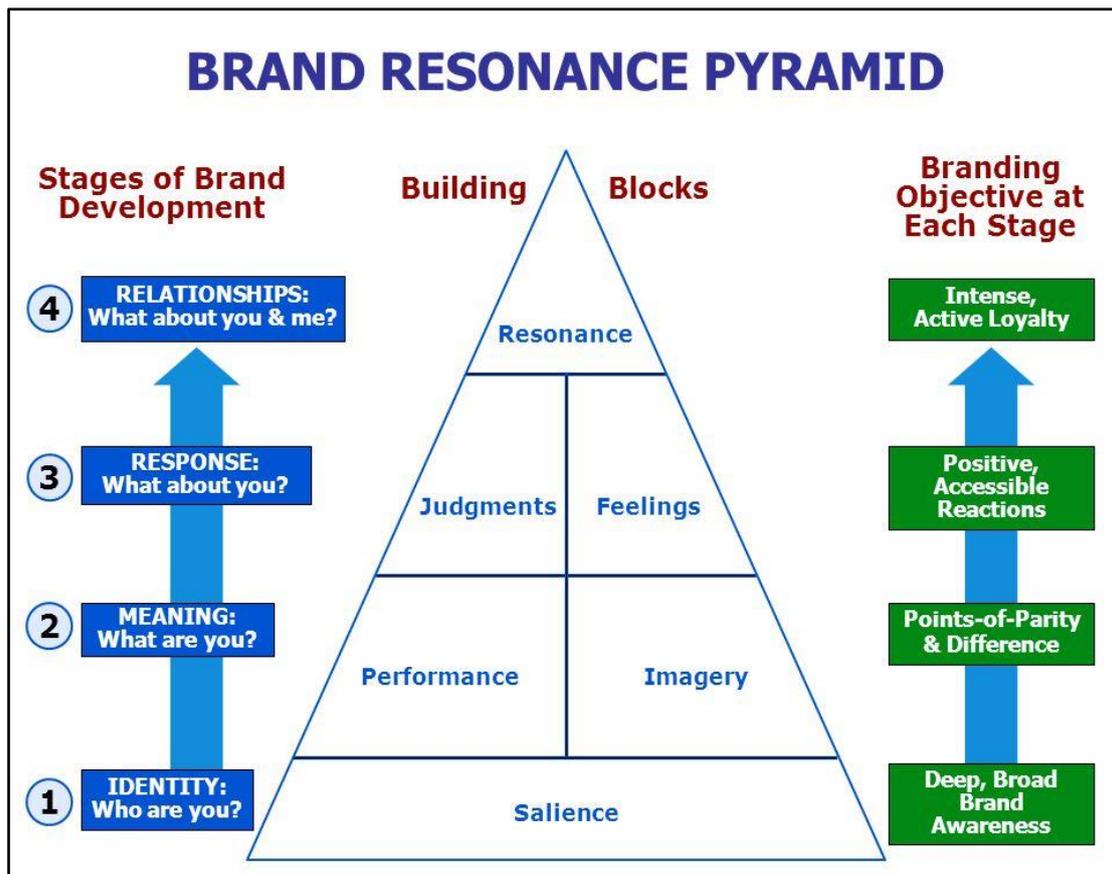
Developing a brand architecture thus requires three key steps:

- i. Defining the potential of a brand in terms of a 'market footprint';
- ii. Identifying the product and service extension that will allow the brand to achieve potential;
- iii. Specifying the brand elements and positioning associated with specific products and services for the brand (Keller & Swaminathan, 2020).

### **3.6. Building a Strong Brand**

The brand resonance model is used in building a strong brand. This model consists of three sequential steps:

- i. Ensure identification of the brand with customer and association of the brand in customers' minds with specific product class, product benefits or customer need;
- ii. Firmly establish the totality of brand meaning in the minds of customers by strategically linking a host of tangible and intangible brand associations;
- iii. Convert brand respondents to create brand resonance and an intense, active loyalty relationship between customers and the brand.



**Figure 3.2. Brand Resonance Pyramid**

Source: <https://www.qualtrics.com/experience-management/brand/customer-based-brand-equity/>

Customers often ask four questions regarding brands. These questions are as follows:

- i. Who are you? (Brand identity);
- ii. What are you? (Brand meaning);
- iii. What about you? (What do I think or feel about you? (Brand responses);
- iv. What about you and me? What kind of association and how much of connection would I like to have with you? (Brand relationships).

These steps assist in building a strong brand as well as those in the brand resonance pyramid depicted in Figure 3.2. Brand resonance is the connection between the consumer and the brand,

or the degree to which the consumer and the brand is connected, or the degree to which the consumer senses the brand (Keller & Swaminathan, 2020).

The pinnacle of the brand resonance pyramid resembles significant brand equity, and occurs only if the right building blocks are put into place. These include:

- i. Brand salience is how easily and often customers think of the brand under various purchase or consumption situations.
- ii. Brand performance is how well this product or service meets customer functional needs.
- iii. Brand imagery describes the extrinsic properties of the product or service, including the ways in which the brand attempts to meet customers' psychological or social needs.
- iv. Brand judgements focus on customers' own personal opinions and evaluation.
- v. Brand feelings are customers' emotional responses and reactions with respect to the brand.
- vi. Brand resonance refers to the nature of relationship customers have with the brand and the extent to which they feel they are synchronised with the brand.

Resonance reflects the intensity or depth of the psychological bond that customers have with the brand, as well as the level of activity that has given rise by this loyalty. Specific product or service categories potentially allow for more resonance because they have inherently high levels of interest and activities. Some brands in the USA with high resonance include Harley-Davidson, Apple, and eBay.

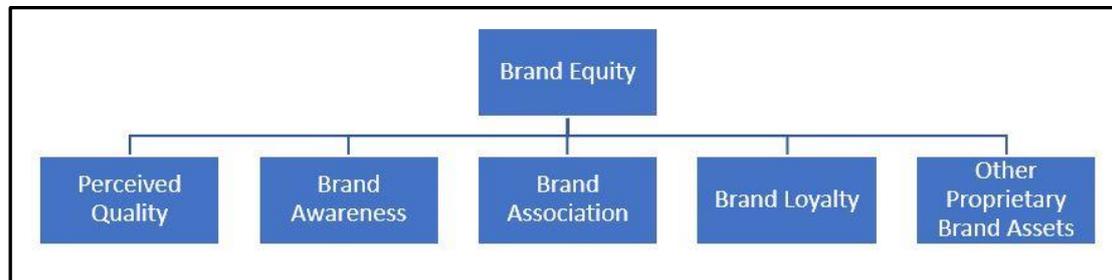
Brand resonance has four dimensions which each captures several different aspects of brand loyalty. These dimensions are as follows:

- i. Behavioural loyalty. Customers' repeat purchase and the amount or share of category volume attributed to the brand. How often do customers purchase the brand? How much does the customer purchase the brand?
- ii. Attitudinal attachment. When customers' view the brand as being something special in a broader context. Do customers love the brand? Do customers describe the brand as one of their favourable possessions? Do customers view the brand as 'little pleasure' they look forward to?
- iii. Sense of community. When customers feel a kinship or affiliation with the brand. Do customers interact with fellow brand users or employees or representatives of the company?
- iv. Active engagement. When customers are willing to invest personal resources on the brand—time, energy, money beyond those resources expended during the purchase or consumption of the brand. Do customers choose to join a club centred on the brand? Do customers receive updates, exchange correspondence with other brand users or formal or informal representative of the brand itself? Do customers visit brand-related websites, participate in chat rooms and so on? (Kotler & Armstrong, 2015).

To create brand resonance, marketers must first create a foundation upon which resonance can be built. According to the customer-based brand equity model, resonance is most likely to result when marketers are first able to create:

- i. Proper salience and breadth and depth of awareness;
- ii. Firmly established points-of-parity and points-of-difference, and
- iii. Positive judgement and feeling that appeals to the head and the heart.

Therefore, to maximise brand resonance levels of both the intensity and activity of loyalty, relationships must be increased (Kotler, 2006; Kotler & Armstrong, 2015).



**Figure 3.3. Brand Equity Model**

Source: (Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000)

Brand equity is a set of brand assets and liabilities connected to a brand, its name and symbol that add to or subtract the value given by a product or service. It is understood as a value and responsibility related to the brand, its name and symbol (Aaker et al., 2013). Aaker (2012) defines brand equity as additional value customers give to goods and services. This value can be reflected by the things the consumer thinks about the commodity, what the consumer feels to about it, and how the consumer behaves.

Aaker et al., (2013) distinguishes five factors or dimensions, alternatively known as assets and liabilities. These are grouped into five specific categories: brand loyalty, name recognition, perceived quality, brand association and other brand assets such as patents, trademarks, and relationships with distribution channels:

- i. Brand loyalty of a basic group of customers is the core of a brand's value. Such loyalty is expressed by repeated buying by users of the brand. Accordingly, permanent income to the owner of the brand is ensured.
- ii. Recognition of a brand requires a minimum level of brand awareness. The spontaneous recall is more complicated than recognition and its position. Therefore, a good slogan

or jingle can help a brand to be noticed and remembered. The customer will keep this brand in her or his mind.

- iii. Perceived quality is based on product features such as reliability and performance, and it is an intangible feeling about a brand.
- iv. An association of a brand is any link to a brand in line with the buyer's memory, and it will be stronger if it is based on more experience and exposure to communication. Therefore, associations can be critical factors in differentiating and positioning, creating a reason to buy to those potential customers who are looking for specific associated physical or emotional features. When a brand is well-positioned on a particular attribute, any counter-attack by a competitor using the same attribute is bound to fail. A strong association may also be the basis of brand extension provision providing a significant competitive advantage in the targeted area.
- v. Other proprietary brand assets relate to patents, trademarks, and channel relationship, which can provide a strong competitive advantage. A trademark protects brand equity from competitors who might want to confuse customers by using a similar name, symbol, or package (Aaker et al., 2013).

Both the Aaker and Keller models recognise that brand equity represents the 'added value' endowed to a product due to past investments in marketing for the brand. Both rely on an associative network model of memory, whereby the ease of recalling favourable brand association is a prime determinant of brand equity. Brand awareness and brand association are critical components of brand assets (Keller & Swaminathan, 2020). However, the two models have been developed from different perspectives. The Aaker et al, (2013) model includes a focus on the benefits to the organisation, whereas the Keller model focuses on consumer benefits.

### **3.7. Measuring of Brand Equity**

Customer-Based Brand Equity (CBBE) relates to feelings consumers exhibit towards a particular product due to associations that are not necessarily related to specific product characteristics that exist independent of the product itself (Keller, 2016). The consumer assigns levels of value to a brand they purchase, which include: What they buy? How they buy, when they buy? Why they buy? Consequently, consumers tend to favour one brand over another.

Brand equity from the consumer's perspective is the attraction or repulsion from a product (Keller, 2016). This view enables marketing managers to apply an effective strategy in understanding and influencing attitudes and behaviour. Brands can be measured using financial and non-financial based perspectives (Aaker et al., 2013).

#### **3.7.1. Financial-Based Perspectives**

The financial-based perspectives view brands as assets that can be bought and sold for a specific price; that price is the financial worth of a brand. Alhaddad (2014) defines brand equity as the incremental cash flows, which accrue to branded products over and above the cash flow, which would result from the sale of unbranded products. The financial market value of the company is used as the base to extract the company's brand equity from the value of the company's other tangible and intangible assets. This results in the estimate of the company's future cash flow. According to Abratt and Kleyn (2012), brand equity is the ability of a company's brands to create value by accelerating growth and enhancing prices. Brands are an essential driver of cash flow. The three methods used to measure brand equity are direct, indirect methods, and industry models.

### 3.7.1.1. *Direct Methods*

The direct methods measure a 'brand-specific effect' (brand equity). The model quantifies the difference between overall preference and the preference estimate into a monetary scale (Baalbaki, 2012). Aaker (1996) developed a scale measure of brand equity within a single product category. The model (scale) measures brand equity at the individual level by analysing two components: the attribute-based (consumer evaluations of physical characteristics of a brand); and non-attribute-based evaluations of the brand based on symbolic associations. The method, however, considers the non-brand component of brand equity as a single set of associations barring the possibility for a deeper understanding of how consumers assess brands.

For Christodoulides & De Chernatony (2010), instead of leaving out specific factors, it consists of the complete value attached to a brand. They argue that a brand equity measure should include its total utility. As a result, Christodoulides & De Chernatony (2010) propose Equalisation Price (EP) as a measure of Consumer Based Brand Equity. Equalisation Price measures the differentiation of a brand's implicit market value in a market void of brand differentiation. Their method calculates CBBE at an individual level, identifies the history of brand associations, and determines the weighted importance of each history in terms of consumer utility. However, the model's weakness is that it assumes that all consumers have similar preferences and is only appropriate for testing specific market segments.

Christodoulides & De Chernatony (2010) use a segment-wise logic model to estimate brand value. They identify two sources of equity "brand value" which serves as a diagnostic for brand competitiveness and intangible brand value which isolates the utility associated with subjective perceptual factors. Their method has a limitation in that it only evaluates consumer-based brand equity at the aggregate level. Fayrene and Lee (2011) assume that personal

evaluations of brands are biased, given consumers' predisposition or psychological "halo effect" as the basis of brand equity. Not only is it difficult to use, but this method is limited as it does not indicate the underlying dimensions of consumer-based equity at an aggregate level.

According to Shanker et al., (2008), brand equity measurement is based on both consumer and financial measures relative to the brand. They combine consumer factors such as brand association, brand reputation, brand fit, brand trust, brand fame, brand innovation, brand regard and brand uniqueness with a model estimating, tracking, and managing brand equity for multi-category brands. This model's limitation is that it does not consider this brand level financial measure, but only measures relative importance at the individual level.

Alhaddad (2014) has established that brand equity can be measured according to the financial market value of the company's other assets. Similarly, Keller and Swaminathan (2020) suggest that financial-based measures can assess brand equity either through the asset valuation of the balance sheet, or by using a subjective multiplier of brand profit based on the performance of the brand along the following six dimensions: stability, leadership, market stability, internationality, brand support and protection. Christodoulides and De Chernatony (2010) further propose that brand equity can be measured from two different perspectives, i.e., from financial and customer-based measures. The financial perspective of brand equity is based on the financial asset value the brand creates to the business franchise. Wanjala (2013) points out that traditional financial measures, such as sales, cost, margins, profit, and return on assets, are usually dominated by brand objectives and performance measures.

### 3.7.2. Indirect Approaches

Christodoulides and De Chernatony (2010) suggest performance value, social image, trustworthiness, and commitment as CBBE dimensions, and test their scale using consumer

survey data from two product categories: watches and television. Christodoulides and De Chernatony (2010) define consumer-based brand equity as the “overall utility” that the consumer associates to the use and consumption of the brand, including associations expressing both functional and symbolic utilities. The authors used their functional utility and product symbolic utility as CBBE and tested their scale using data obtained from the Spain sports category.

### 3.7.3. Industry Models

Companies use different models in measuring brand value, such as Young and Rubicam’s Brand Asset Valuator (BAV), Millward Brown Optimor’s Brand Z and the Interbrand model (Schultz, 2020). The Brand Asset Valuator Model analyses brands in respect to four essential elements:

- i. Differentiation. Differentiation is concerned with a brand’s capability to build a sustainable competitive advantage, and it is the core of the brand.
- ii. Relevance. Relevance relates to bringing meaning to the brand itself.
- iii. Esteem. Esteem is the scope to which consumers like and respect a brand. It measures loyalty and how well a brand fulfils its undertaking.
- iv. Knowledge. Knowledge measures the level of closeness a consumer has with the brand (Khan, 2009).

Two elements of the model, differentiation and relevance form a measure of brand strength which is a leading pointer of future growth value, whereas esteem and knowledge measure brand stature.

Another model is the Millward Brown Optimor Brand. This model defines brand value as being equal to the branded intangible earnings multiplied by brand contribution multiplied by the brand multiple. What the company does summarises the strength of a brand's relationship with consumers using the two key measures of presence and voltage. Presence measures how many people know about a brand and what it offers; while voltage is used as a measure of how efficiently a brand converts people from presence to high levels of loyalty. The model plots brands according to these two key measures to build a map of brand equity. The total brand value is estimated by focusing on the strength of a brand's relationship with consumers, making it possible to put a value on the current and future contribution that branding makes to a company's profitability (Keller, 2016).

The Interbrand Group (2010) developed another model to formally estimate the dollar value of a brand. Their approach is consistent with the notion that brand equity is the discounted cash flow from the future earnings stream of the brand. There are three aspects that are vital to their assessment:

- i. The financial performance of the branded products or services;
- ii. The role of brand in the purchase decision process;
- iii. The strength of the brand (Interbrand, 2010).

Financial performance measures the organisation's financial return to its investors. Interbrand (2010) calculates economic profit (i.e., operating profit minus taxes). The model evaluates the strength of the brand by using the following ten dimensions of brand activation:

- i. Commitment. This is the extent to which the brand receives support in terms of time, influence on investment.
- ii. Protection. This is how secure a brand is across several dimensions.

- iii. Clarity. This is attached to a brand's value;
- iv. Responsiveness. This looks at a brand's ability to adapt to market changes and opportunities.
- v. Authenticity. This is how soundly a brand is based on an internal capability.
- vi. Relevance. This estimates how well a brand fits with customer needs, desires, and decision criteria.
- vii. Understanding. This is what customers recognise, and have an in-depth understanding of the distinctive qualities and characteristics of the brand and its owner.
- viii. Consistency. This measures the degree to which a brand is experienced without fail across all touch points and formats.
- ix. Presence. This measures the degree to which a brand feels ever-present and how positively consumers, customers and opinion formers discuss it in both traditional and social media.
- x. Differentiation. This is the degree to which customers perceive the brand to have a positioning that is distinct from competition (Interbrand, 2010).

Interbrand (2010) calculates economic profit and then multiplies it by the role of the brand to arrive at the amount of branded earnings which are then multiplied by a brand strength discount rate to arrive at a final brand value (Interbrand, 2010).

Pike et al. (2010) have developed a measure for measuring the brand equity of tourist destinations. They propose Destination Brand Awareness (DBA), Destination Brand Image (DBI), Destination Brand Quality (DBQ), Destination Brand Value (DBV), and Destination Brand Loyalty (DBL) as CBBE dimensions. They test their scale using two destinations that must be considered for measuring destinations brand equity.

Most of the brand valuation models make guesses on the dimensions that they assume consumers use to judge the value of a product or service. They do not ask consumers themselves on the aspects or dimensions they consider in valuing a product or service. Consequently, there is a need for a practically oriented method that considers experiences and broad comparative research to judge the validity and usefulness of the brand valuation methods (Omar & Ali, 2010).

### **3.8. Emergence of Country Branding/Origins of Nation Branding**

The concept of country branding, which has its roots in marketing literature, is strongly represented in the field of marketing (Kaneva, 2011). Country of origin, country image, country or product image and country identity are the marketing areas from which nation branding is underpinned, (Kotler & Armstrong, 2015). Nation branding has a larger scope than marketing in that it encompasses disciplines like international relations and public diplomacy (Anholt, 2007).

Although the area of nation branding is becoming topical, it is still in its formative stage; hence, there is no agreed definition of nation branding. Among the few scholars interested in this discipline, Kotler, Caldwell, and Freire were among the first to open the area for discussion and ultimate implementation. According to Anholt (2007), who relates nation branding to competitive identity, it is an orderly way of positioning the deeds, behaviours, investments, innovations, and communications of a country around a transparent ploy for achieving robust country identity. Having reviewed about 186 works on country branding, Kaneva (2011) discovered that there are three clear ways to country branding, viz., cultural way, technical-economic way, and political way. The technical-economic way is underpinned by three marketing and management-oriented suppositions:

- i. The global market place is similar and characterised by global competition amongst nations;
- ii. Country welfare is the capability of a country to obtain economic competitive edge with branding taking the role of an instrument used by a country to lure investments, tourists, human capital, or trade;
- iii. There are identifiable differences between countries and brands.

The suppositions made by Kaneva (2011) are essential as they spell out the necessity for countries to offer distinctive characteristics to enable them to compete in the global marketplace. Nations use their various endowments such as resources, competencies to differentiate themselves from their competitors. This is because they have shown some financial management prowess.

The technical-economic way relates to differentiation and how a nation does in the global market place using a particular technical attribute. Accordingly, this approach assists in establishing how to measure the competitiveness of a nation brand. The differentiation variables that nations use to differentiate themselves thus forms the framework that this study sought to develop. The technical-economic way is significant to this study as it outlines possible strategies that nations can proactively adapt to remain competitive globally.

### **3.9. Theoretical Framework**

#### **3.9.1. Theories of Nation Branding**

This research is based on Anholt's (2007) Nation Brand Hexagon (NBH). The NBH is made up of six different sectors of the economy: tourism, exports, governance, investment and

immigration, culture, and people. The model proposes that a nation can understand, measure, and ultimately build national image and reputation by using these six dimensions.

The research consulted other nation branding theories by Aaker (2013), Fan (2010), Dinnie (2015), and Kotler and Keller (2011). Aaker's (1996) branding theory forms the foundation of the nation branding theory. The equity model by Kotler and Keller (2011) highlights that brand building equity depends on three factors:

- i. The initial choices for the brand elements making up the brand.
- ii. The way the brand is integrated into supporting the marketing programme.
- iii. The associations indirectly transferring to the brand by linking the brand to some other entity like the company, channel of distribution, or another brand could also be country of origin.

The brand evaluator embraces five elements:

- i. Differentiation measures the degree to which a brand is seen as different from others.
- ii. Energy measures the brand's sense of momentum.
- iii. Relevance measures the breadth for the brand's appeal.
- iv. Esteem measures how well the brand is regarded and respected.
- v. Knowledge measures how familiar and intimate consumers are with the brand.

The extension offering as a brand strategy has three major brand options that leverage an existing brand:

- i. An existing brand master brand with a descriptive sub-brand (a branded house).
- ii. An existing master brand with sub brand.
- iii. A new brand endorsed by an existing brand (Wanjala, 2013).

The master brand is the primary indicator of the offering, the point of reference. Visually, it will take top billing. An endorser brand serves to give credibility and substance to the offering. A master brand can have sub-brand or can be endorsed. According to Wanjala (2013), a large number of studies have confirmed that the country of origin will influence brand credibility within a certain product class.

The Nation Brand Architecture Model (NBAR) developed by Dinnie (2015) is a critical concept in brand theory and provides an organising structure of the brand portfolio that specifies the brand roles and the relationships. The extant literature in this field stipulates that the nation brand is considered as umbrella brand, comprised of functional sectors such as tourism, public diplomacy, export, and investment, which form its dimensions and image. The model is intended to stimulate the creative development of synergistic linkages between different sub-brands, for example, between tourism and talent attraction, or between exports and sports. It is also designed to prevent the proliferation of uncoordinated visual branding systems that could confuse the target audience and reduce potential synergies. When developing a nation-brand architecture, the umbrella brand is nation brand, and endorsed brands will include tourism, exports, inward investment, talent attraction and sports. Standalone brands will consist of regions, products, and services. This model is ideal when developing a nation branding framework in that it is holistic in nature and manages the image of the country starting from the name to all the related and endorsed dimensions of nation branding. The nation brand architecture helps both developed and developing countries put in place statutory bodies that are responsible for co-ordinating the strategic development of sectors such as tourism, exports, FDI, sports, education, and the arts. Also, all countries have a ministry of foreign or international relations and exchange diplomats with governments of

selected countries. Zenker and Braun (2010: 3) argue that a diverse brand architecture is required to meet a defined target audience with specific place sub-brand.

The model is also important considering the range of stakeholder groups involved at every level. Furthermore, the model helps practitioners such as policy makers and nation brand managers to conceptualise the levels at which nation brands can be managed.

However, the model has its limitations. These include no shared rules for selecting the correct brand architecture for an organisation or country brand portfolio (Dinnie, 2005: 199). Also, there are many options and experts differ on how to identify the number of existing levels at the centres of the brand architecture model. Another limitation is that the nation brand architecture cannot measure the influence of each dimension used in formulating a nation brand measurement framework. The Nation brand architecture introduces the dimensions of nation branding; however, the model does not measure the influence of each dimension on nation branding. Nation Brand Index (NBI) attaches the element of measurement on each element cited in NBAR model.

The Anholt–GfK Roper Nation Brand Hexagon (NBI) is another model that has contributed significantly to the literature on nation branding. Anholt (2007) measures the power of the appeal of each country's brand image by examining six dimensions, viz., people; tourism; exports; culture and heritage; governance; and investment and immigration. The NBI measures the power and appeal of a nation's image and reveals how people around the world see the character of that brand, and thus it measures the perceptions of people about the country. This information is important as it helps to ascertain where the nation's image is in the people's mind. It also serves to see if its image is consistent with the projected image and if there is a gap between the image and the experience. If a gap exists, the negative word-of-mouth will

jeopardise repeat visits, where tourists would become the nation brand terrorists (Zaltman & Zaltman, 2008). Anholt's Hexagon approach focuses on his conceptual terminology called Competitive Identity, which is more focused on national identity and public diplomacy. Public diplomacy, government interests and politics integrations are all thus related to the role of a brand management as a component of national policy (Dinnie, 2009: 32). Therefore, NBI provides governments and their agencies with unique research needed to more effectively manage country reputation.

The NBI has some limitations namely, the NBI survey has some entry questions concerning respondents' knowledge of and prior experience with the country they are requested to evaluate (Csaba & Stöber, 2011: 15), which means the NBI questionnaire has 360 to 600 600 questions, the large number of questions that respondents are flooded with makes it unlikely that all their answers are particularly thoughtful (2011: 15). Anholt-GfK Roper states that each dimension has a word choice that asserts to enrich the understanding of the characteristics of a nation's image. However, save for the tourism factor / dimension, the NBI being a proprietary tool does not reveal the adjectives that help to clarify each of the five remaining hexagon points. This reduces the academic value of the model as the full NBI report cannot be accessed for review.

The NBI is weakened by its use of proprietary methodologies with respect to specific questions asked and the aggregation and statistical techniques used (Fetscherin, 2010:468).

According to Rojas-Mendez (2013: 264), although the NBI has been extensively used for several country branding projects since 2005, it only shows what is being measured, but not necessarily what should be assessed in respect of a country brand.

Another limitation of the NBI is that it does not include infrastructure and FDI, drawing natural resources in its measures of nation brand, yet other researchers include them. Other researchers

justify this limitation by stating that the model was designed by a researcher from a highly industrialised country such as the UK.

The Nation Brand Hexagon (Anholt, 2007) and the Nation Brand Architecture (Dinnie, 2015) underpin this study mainly because the dimensions inherent in these two models summarise the main components of the country image.

### **3.10. The Concept of Nation Branding**

Nation branding is a course of action which spells out the most workable competitive and most compelling strategic vision for the country, region, and city. This vision must be attained and communicated. Logical, quality, and consistent communication are essential in the globalised world because every place must compete with every other place for a share of mind, income, talent, and voice (Anholt, 2007). Therefore, a place stands for something. Otherwise, it stands little chance of being remembered for long enough to compete for any special attention. Hence, the importance of inserting country of origin on the goods produced by different nations to exhibit ownership (Wang et al., 2012).

Nations should communicate among other things, the brands of products which they export, the approach the nation promotes itself from other nations, tourism, inward investment, and inward recruitment; and the methods nations use to represent and share their culture with other countries.

Place branding gives equal importance to the perception and reality because the first lesson that marketing teaches is people are often more influenced by what they believe, rather than what is true. The second lesson is that other people are less interested in you, than what you are; so, if you care about what they think, it is your responsibility to make yourself adequately

understood. Objectivity is the cardinal virtue when branding a place (Dinnie, 2015). Place relates to a much more holistic concept than the destination. The term 'place' can refer to a nation, a city, or a region, and it does not specifically relate to tourism. Place marketing and place branding are concerned with attracting people who can choose where they live, work, study or visit, in a particular place. These may be talented mobile people who bring wealthy and investment with them (Keller & Swaminathan, 2020).

The term 'destination' implies a tourism perspective, whereas place branding provides an even wider perspective that includes all interactions of place with its environment. Therefore, destination branding is related to the marketing and branding of a place in terms of its leisure and tourism (Christodoulides & De Chernatony, 2010). Place brands provide the most realistic, most compelling strategic vision for the city, country, or region.

A positive country image tends to guide consumer buying decisions, quickens the buying process, and consumers will buy the country's products without hesitation. Therefore, a strong and compelling nation brand is the most important gift any government can present to its exporters, and this gives them a favourable competitive advantage on the global marketplace (Abratt & Kleyn, 2012).

Nation branding not only boosts exports, but if properly done, it can also shape the economy, culture, and political destiny of many countries (Kaneva, 2011). Country image is an overall image that is constituted by variables like products, economic and historical events and relationships, traditions, level of industrialisation and technological development (Lisboa, 2013). Country image is the set of normative, inferred, and informational beliefs of individuals about a country (Keller & Swaminathan, 2020). Finally, country image depends on country brand.

### **3.11. Defining Nation Brand and Nation Branding**

Nation brand can be defined as marks, a name, related terms, symbols, design used by a country to differentiate it from other countries (Dinnie, 2015). Alternatively, Fan (2006) defines nation brand as the aggregate sum of perceptions of a nation in the mind of international stakeholders, which includes people, culture/language, fashion, place, history, food, and celebrities. Koteska and Poposki (2010) define nation brand as an umbrella term under which further sub-brands can be formulated on their part. Anholt (2007) defines nation brand as the sum of people's perceptions of a country across national competencies such as cultural, political, commercial, tourist appeal, investment, and human assets. Accordingly, a nation's 'brand' exists with or without any conscious efforts in nation branding as each country has a current image to its international audiences be it strong or weak, clear, or vague.

For nation branding to be effective, Fan (2010) asserts that the government is supposed to be the initiator of the nation branding exercise and should acknowledge its direct involvement and influence. Anholt (2007) argues that countries outdo each other for a share of the global marketplace. A country's brand affects its ability to export goods and services, lure potential investors, tourists, students, and qualified professionals. Until recently, globally, governments embarked on nation branding campaigns to repair their battered images. However, many governments did not appraise how these campaigns fared. Those countries that did measure their branding campaigns, normally used subjective measures, which may not adequately give an honest view of the performance of the nation branding campaigns.

The reasons why the researcher pursued this study were that nation branding has been done successfully by developed countries, especially those in Europe. Still, in Africa a smaller number of countries embarked on nation branding campaigns, some of which may not have

been successful, since there is no reliable measurement framework to ascertain the success or failure of a nation branding campaign. Currently, the literature reveals that there is no objective measure that can be reliably used to assess the strength of a country. Therefore, it is the researcher's informed opinion that a reliable and dependable measure would assist in assessing the competitiveness of developing countries on the global marketplace.

### **3.12. Measuring a Country Brand**

Country image, which some theorists view as something that comprises colours, time, art customs, clothing, artefacts, historical heritage, political systems buildings and national symbols like national flags and the stone-carved Zimbabwe Bird as its national emblem (Somborn, 2014), encompasses all the tangible and intangible activities of a country. These include products and services, the behaviour of a country's citizens, the government's domestic and foreign policies. Country perception is communicated to people, both locals and foreigners through different channels of communications. The common channels include telecommunications, rumour, politics, and entertainment (Osei & Gbadamosi, 2011).

The three key aspects that need to be clarified in a study on country image are: country of origin (COO), product image (PI), and country image (CI). Country of origin (COO) is the place where the product was designed, manufactured, or originates. Product image (PI) relates to the consumers' perceptions and attitudes towards an existing or proposed new product. Lisboa (2013) argues that the country's overall image greatly influences the country's economic and political development and historical traditions. The country image relates to a collection of beliefs and perceptions citizens have about a given nation. Kotler and Armstrong (2015) affirm that media and the entertainment industry are essential vehicles in the construction of a country image.

The associative memory model gives a thorough understanding of the dimensions of the value of country image as a brand. This model is the foundation of the country equity theory. The country equity model comprises the value of associations consumers have when hearing the name of a country.

Anholt (2007) uses six dimensions to assess the national competencies which form the NBH. When utilised, the dimensions assist in bringing positive nation brand associations by potential tourists upon hearing the name to the country. The dimensions include exports, as well as people's views on government, the extent of investment and immigration, the country's cultural heritage, the mentality of inhabitants, and the country's tourism.

According to Anholt (2007), tourism is one of the key aspects of the country image. Experts in nation branding quantify country image using figures from tourism as indicators of the country's image. A suitable indicator of country image quality is the Nation Brand Index (NBI), but its nature does not allow for quantification. Hence, it can be used for comparative analysis. Nation Brand Index (NBI) and the Country Brand Index (CBI) are the other two major indexes that are used to evaluate nation branding campaigns.

### **3.13. Nation Brand Measurement Models**

The three known models of assessing country brands are: Country Brand Strength Index (CBSI), Nation Brand Index (NBI), and the Discounted Cash Flow (DCF).

#### **3.13.1. Country Brand Strength Index (CBSI)**

Rather than surveying perception, Country Brand Strength Index (CBSI) provides an objective measurement tool. It is a tool which governments use to assess the strength of nation brand. After having identified challenges in the brand, a government can then revisit the country brand

strategy. The Country Brand Strength Index (CBSI) is important because countries need to construct, maintain, and safeguard their brand. This index assists in measuring the internal performance of the country brand.

### 3.13.2. Nation Brand Index (NBI)

The Nation Brand Index (NBI) evaluates the nation performance as observed along with the following six elements:

- i. Tourism;
- ii. Exports;
- iii. Investment and immigration;
- iv. Governance;
- v. Culture and heritage;
- vi. People.

Questions based on a 7-point Likert Scale are asked on each of the above six elements. The NBI uses Keller's Brand Equity model in surveying people and asking their views of a country (Keller & Swaminathan, 2020). Independent secondary data are used in this index to measure what is happening to determine whether one's perception or view of the country is positive or negative.

### 3.13.3. The Discounted Cash Flow (DCF) Approach

The third model is the Discounted Cash Flow (DCF) model, propounded by Roger Sinclair, Professor Emeritus at Wits University and MD of brand valuation company, BrandMetrics ([www.brandmetrics.com](http://www.brandmetrics.com)). This model factors in a monetary value on nation brand equity. In

valuing the future earnings of a nation brand, the model uses operating profits, cost of capital, inflation forecast, and capital employed as vital financial data.

The Delphi technique is used to collect expert opinion to ascertain the percentage of economic profit that is given to the nation brand as opposed to other factors. This model calculates the expected life of a specific element of a nation, in terms of tourism and foreign direct investment on the influence and success of a nation branding campaign.

### **3.14. Analysis of Nation Brand Measurement Models**

The Nation Brand Index (NBI) is concerned with measuring the views of people about a country, while the Country Brand Strength Index (CBSI) measures the country's performance on given dimensions. Each of these two models possess distinct strengths and weaknesses. For best results therefore, it is advisable to consider both indexes and to combine them to help countries establish their performance in the following dimensions: export receipts, tourism receipts, revenue from investment and immigration. Both indices may help in identifying any perceptual distortion or perception gap that may exist within a nation brand (Fetscherin, 2010). However, while these two models focus on the perception of country's image, they do not include the financial performance of the country.

The Discounted Cash Flow (DCF) model is rather objective in that it assesses the impact of nation branding activities by calculating its monetary value across categories. Therefore, countries can evaluate the effectiveness of nation branding in terms of financial performance. However, this model does not clarify whether the results of positive or negative changes to performance are connected to perception changes or not.

### **3.15. Developing a Country Brand Strength Index**

Both a consumer-based brand equity model and the company-based brand equity approach can be adopted to assess and formulate a country brand. These two models stress the brand's meaning and the importance that consumers place upon it (Atilgan et al., 2005). A consumer-based equity model is a bottom-up approach which analyses how a brand is conceptualised by consumers when collecting primary data (Zeugner-Roth et al., 2008). The company-based brand equity approach—also known as the financial approach—is a top-down approach of measurement which views the overall value of a brand as a separate asset uses information on the overall performance of a company (Atilgan et al., 2005). However, for this approach to be effective, it relies on past secondary data.

### **3.16. Performance in Nation Branding**

In theory, performance measures are relevant to the understanding of causal relations between/among strategic resources, operational capabilities, and financial outcomes (Papadopoulos & Heslop, 2014). Performance measures gauge the success of a brand-building activity or branding campaigns based on brand investment (inputs) through to business impact (outputs) (Aaker, 2012). Performance is about evaluating the effectiveness of objectives on outcomes (Keller & Swaminathan, 2020). Performance in nation branding is, therefore, a way that is required to evaluate the effectiveness of nation branding campaigns for the achievement of sustainable competitive advantage of a nation.

### **3.17. Empirical Studies on Frameworks of Measuring Country Brands**

A study undertaken by Brand Finance (2014) in partnership with academic researchers undertook the difficult task of determining the brand value of 32 countries by analysing the

GDP of each country. To arrive at the country's value, they compared each of the country's branding elements. The 'royal relief' approach, which attempts to ascertain how much a country should pay if it forgoes the use of its brand name and instead hires this asset was used. Brand values were computed using available secondary economic data by administering Anholt's NBH image survey checklist.

While the Nation Brand Index (NBI) is an ideal indicator of country image quality, it does not quantify the various elements or dimensions used to measure country image. Nevertheless, it can be used for the purposes of comparative analysis. The European Brand Institute conducted a survey involving 300 brands from 16 industries across 24 countries and found that the top positions were earned by the largest countries such as France, Germany, and the UK (Somborn, 2014). It was thus found that the brand's power of a country may determine the nation's brand power.

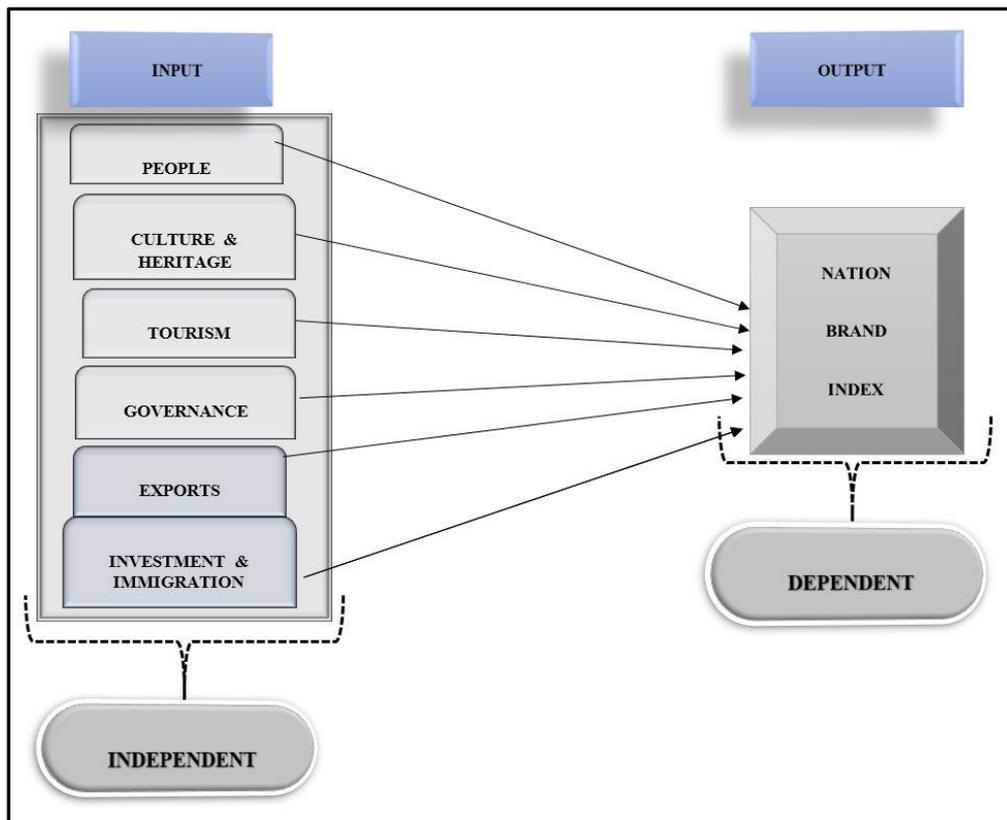
In studies that were conducted over a period to measure country brands of selected countries using the Country Brand Strength Index (CBSI), Croatia emerged as a shining rising star. For example, in 2005 Croatia was considered one of the top ten rising stars, and a year later moved up to second place, and by 2007, moved up to first place, as its brand awareness reached the 95% mark (FutureBrand, 2013). In the overall ranking of world country brands in 2012, Croatia was at position 41 among 118 world country brands (FutureBrand, 2013), and was rated as the strongest brand of all country brands in the region and placed among the top 50% of world country brands.

Another method that can be used to measure a country brand image is personality-based positioning. Brand personality is central to brand image, as well as the nation brand image (Asadollahi et al., 2015) since it captures the increasingly important emotional and affective

side of the image construct (Lee et al., 2011). This method was once used to explore the personality-based positioning of Canada, the US, and China. Using a two-stage approach, a multi-country qualitative exploratory study was carried out first to generate a list of nation brand personality traits, to reduce the culture-bound problems. This was followed by the main study, in which these traits were applied to samples of consumers through surveys.

### **3.18. Conceptual Framework**

This research used an adaptation of Anholt's NBH as the conceptual framework. Variables such as people, tourism, governance, investment and immigration, exports and culture and heritage were analysed to ascertain their influence on developing a nation branding measuring framework for Zimbabwe.



**Figure 3.4. Conceptual Framework**

Source: Author

### **3.19. The Influence of People on Nation Branding**

The people of a country are quite influential if properly used in the formulation of nation branding campaigns, as they can become a powerful communication tool in nation branding (Fan, 2010). Consumers may possess preconceived ideas about the quality of products from a specific country (Šapić et al., 2021), or they may have the tendency to buy products that are produced in countries that are economically, socially, and politically like their own (Ku & Chen, 2021). Visitors can determine the country image, investors, or local inhabitants, who may positively or negatively express their widespread perceptions of the place (Qu et al., 2011).

### **3.20. The Influence of Tourism on Nation Branding**

Many authors agree that tourism is the world's fastest-growing industry and can aid in building national identities (Tubic et al., 2014; Dinnie, 2015; Jeder, 2014). Tourism can be a powerful national brand communicator. Due to globalisation, many countries are competing for tourists, where each country desires to be a strong brand (Geppert & Hollinshead, 2014). Zimbabwe's image as a tourist destination became negative following the violent land reform programme instigated by the Mugabe administration in the 2000 (Woyo & Slabbert, 2019). Because of the political and economic crises, tourist arrivals were subsequently affected and fell between 2000 and 2008 (Woyo & Slabbert, 2019).

### **3.21. The Influence of Culture and Heritage on Nation Branding**

Culture, being the national identity of a country, is a vital brand element in country branding (Anholt, 2006b); Anderson, 1991; Stahl, 2017). It is thus an initial contact point for linking people's interest in a country and *vice versa* (Anholt, 2006a). Also, culture is regarded as the social glue that draws and binds people to one another (Warner, 2014). Culture and heritage are also seen as instruments of competitive advantage, as they are dimensions considered by investors or buyers (Fan, 2010; Anderson, 2016). Culture and heritage play an essential role in branding a nation's image. Since culture is unique and distinctive, a nation with a very rich cultural life is an attractive tourist destination (Anholt, 2006b). A country's history and heritage will shape how citizens perceive themselves and their relationships with other countries. Culture permeates every aspect of how citizens behave and act in a given situation.

### **3.22. The Influence of Investment and Immigration on Nation Branding**

Globally, because many countries are jostling for investors and migrants, countries must therefore create favourable conditions to win investors. Lim (2018) affirm that in some circumstances, potential investors decide not to invest in a country because of an unfavourable image being exhibited by the country. Accordingly, countries perceived to be less hospitable demotivate travel and affect investment. Wach and Wojciechowski (2016) put forward the following factors that investors consider when intending to invest: prevailing macro-economic conditions such as inflation, fiscal and external deficits; market size; the prevailing situation concerning infrastructure, and transport and communication costs; reliability of the FDI legal framework, flexibility, and bureaucratic complexity procedures.

### **3.23. The Influence of Governance on Nation Branding**

Governance has a very great influence upon investment, as it plays a pivotal role in the luring of migrants into a country. It is the one which influences a country's socio-economic and political tone, embracing such crucial issues as: bureaucratic procedures, property rights and financial regulations. The more foreign business-friendly the nation is perceived, the more favourable it may be perceived by investors.

### **3.24. The Influence of Exports on Nation Branding**

A country should have strong products or brands to attract the export market for the products. A strong country of origin gives the country a positive image to the extent that consumers will associate the country with the brand. For example, Germany is known for its engineering prowess. Switzerland for chocolates, and safety in the financial services sector. Regarding

reliability, quality, status and other stereotypes and efficiency, the market-seeking investor may prefer to locate and invest in a friendly country to exploit the nation's marketability.

## **Chapter 3**

### **Literature Review**

#### **Part B: Nation Branding Case Studies**

##### **3.25. Introduction**

This second part of the literature review looks at different case studies of nation branding. The primary focus of this presentation is upon Central and Eastern Europe (CEE), where the emphasis will be on the nation branding endeavours that have taken place in the transitional States and the former Communist Bloc countries including Romania, Ukraine, and Georgia. In Africa, the presentation will look at Kenya and South Africa.

After a decade of armed conflict and geopolitical isolation, the former republics of Yugoslavia now find themselves competing for their place in the global tourism market, not with guns and militias, but with newly created brands that recall the pre-war attractions and ambience, as well as the educational and volunteer opportunities available for today's independent eco-oriented traveller (Chang & Chang, 2014).

##### **3.26. Romania**

Upon switching from being a communist country to a free economy, Romania started to market itself using different campaigns, among them being: "The conscious and planned practice of signification and representation" (O'Malley & Lichrou, 2016). While the country's image and identity were exploited in developing the strategic plan, various challenges crept in as the country attempted to develop a worthwhile nation branding framework (Laroche et al., 2013). It has been observed that Romania has been greatly affected by political instability and upheavals of the past. The situation has been aggravated by the Romanian leaders' actions

which are not in tandem with the expectations of the globalisation era, and are hindering the country's fulfilment of its socio-economic and political objectives (Kaneva & Popescu, 2011).

### 3.26.1. Nation Branding Campaigns

Romania has had several campaigns, consisting of different approaches, styles, and outcomes. In 1989, the country came up with a new flag, a new national anthem, and a new country name: Romania. This marked the beginning of several nation branding campaigns, among them being, Project Fabricat in Romania (Made in Romania); Eterna si fascinanta Romania (The Eternal and Fascinating Romania).

### 3.26.2. Project Fabricat in Romania (Made in Romania)

Economic experts, local authorities and the media helped in marketing Romanian products. The thrust of the campaign was to encourage local Romanians to use Romanian products and to remove negative stereotypes and myths related to Romanian products. Hence, both foreigners and Romanians were encouraged to embrace the products (Innerbody Research, 2018; Sepi, 2013). Unfortunately, the campaign failed because Romanians refused to appreciate locally made products because of their high prices and low quality and thus opted for cheaper Western products.

### 3.26.3. Eterna si fascinanta Romania (The Eternal and Fascinating Romania)

During President Iliescu's governance, another nation branding campaign called Eterna si fascinanta Romania was undertaken to lure investors and foreign tourists. An expensive photo album was produced at a cost of US\$ 6 million. Only 10 000 copies were printed instead of the targeted 97 000. The high publishing costs for the campaign became a worrisome issue to many citizens. The original version of the album was printed in French, and it was later

translated into Arabic, German, Spanish, Italian and Romanian. The albums were supposed to be distributed in 96 countries, Zimbabwe being among them, but the number of the distributed albums and whether they reached their destination remains unknown until today (Popescu & Corbos, 2010). In addition, the photo albums had no other elements. Instead, they had slogans meant to lure tourists into exploring the advantages of Romania, including essential elements like geographical sites, national cultures, or economic potential, were however missing.

#### 3.26.4. Romaniae Mereusurprinzatoare

This campaign had a logo and slogan meant to promote Romanian tourism as the first destination. The logo and slogan were widely used in Romanian tourism brochures, internet pages, embassies, consulates, and diplomatic missions. The campaign began in 2004 during the governance of the Social Democrats. The country's television slogan, "Romania: Simply Surprising", was criticised on the grounds that it was not representative of Romania. The campaign was also severely criticised due to its high cost (estimated at US\$ 20 million) and because of its connections with the Social Democratic Party government. The objective of the campaign was to change foreigners' perception of Romania and to announce that things had improved in Romania. However, the campaign was abandoned without the publication of the final results (Andrei, 2017).

#### 3.26.5. Romania, Land of Choice

This campaign was launched to create a positive image of Romania as a tourist destination (Ilovan et al., 2016), and was endorsed by Romanian athletes Nadia Comaneci, Gheorghii Hagi and Ilie Nastasi. The project was funded to the tune € 75 million, and the target increase of tourist arrivals was 10% (Zaman et al., 2010). The campaign was registered at the State Office of Trademarks by a person who later demanded compensation for the use of his slogan in

commercials without his permission. Evaluation of the campaign was not done just like other campaigns. Instead of increasing the number of international tourist arrivals, they decreased from 1 465 891 to 1 346 343 (Jordan et al., 2016)

### 3.26.6. Challenges of Romania campaigns on Nation Branding

Romania's nation branding campaigns were launched to fight the negative perception derived from being labelled as part of the Soviet bloc, but other people saw the campaigns as a way of covering up Romania's image during the time it was part of Soviet bloc. The nation branding campaigns were not properly planned, funds were not managed correctly, and communication between stakeholders was not established. All campaigns were not supported by a holistic branding system, and prioritisation of crucial branding issues was also not done (Nagy & Segui, 2019). As a result, there was a gap in what the branding campaigns sought to achieve and the perceptions on the ground of the outside world. The nation branding efforts concentrated on tourism promotion at the expense of destination branding (Asker et al., 2010), leaving other critical dimensions such as exports and investment (Iorio & Corsale, 2014). Another weakness was that Romanian authorities used conflicting tactics and strategies in their attempts to develop a strong tourism brand.

Romania has been struggling with nation brand development since its transition from communism, and contrary to the image it tries to instil in the western mind, it still projects an image of darkness and backwardness. An autonomous haphazard approach to the promotion of the various aspects such as tourism, products, and others, was implemented without the participation of the different organisers and implementers. Each ministry promoted its own activities at its best by itself, and the country image campaigns lacked overall coordination (Andrei, 2017). This was contrary to Anholt (2007), who advocates for nation branding

management to be part of national policy, and not a separate campaign of government programmes.

### **3.27. Ukraine**

Ukraine had an unenviable task of overturning almost seven decades of Soviet hegemony and replacing it with a new identity of Ukrainian national identity (Kulyk, 2016). Therefore, as the country transitioned from being a communist State to a free-market economy, the need was identified to address issues pertaining to image and perception of the country which was bedevilled with corruption, tax evasion, constrained access to financing, and government bureaucracy (World Economic Forum, 2012). Several campaigns to mitigate the image issue were thus formulated and launched. These campaigns involved multiple stakeholders, some of which included local governments and others originated from citizens. The focus of the campaigns differed in that some had political, while others had touristic and sports orientations.

Nation brand campaigns that embraced traditional folklore, architectural, natural, economic, urban, and social elements were lined up. Many projects were used to promote the image of Ukraine, including internet portals such as: “Welcome to Ukraine”, “Travel to Ukraine” and “Ukraine Beautifully Yours”, flighted to dispel notions of Ukraine as an immoral and corrupt tourism destination. Modern talented, self-sufficient, and successful women like Tina Karol and Ani Lorak, campaigned for the country’s tourism cultural potentials and succeeded in minimising negative image and stereotypes. The State Agency for Investments and Management of National Project launched “Invest Ukraine”, to promote the country’s investment projects. These projects included LNG Terminal “Energy of Nature”, wind farm and solar plants. The objective of lining up such investment campaigns was to increase to investment to US\$ 72 million (Zinko et al., 2019).

### 3.27.1. The Shortcomings of Ukraine's Branding Efforts

Ukraine has many strong competitive advantages. However, these have not been adequately communicated and summed up into a coherent national story. The country's image is tarnished with prejudice associated with its Soviet past. Therefore, there is a need to show that Ukraine has changed to a new role in the world and explain why it is worth visiting and what to expect from the country. National branding requires the involvement of professionals from all occupations. Accordingly, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs must attract the support of Ukrainians, foreign businesses, Ukrainian diaspora think tanks, NGOs and the art and culture community. To address the image issue, Ukraine authorities need to declare what the country stands for, and how it wants to associate itself with the global community. Finally, Ukraine needs a permanent managerial and coordination framework for building its brand. Yet, like most nation branding campaigns, Ukraine suffers from budgetary constraints.

### **3.28. Georgia**

Nation branding presented the former Soviet Republics the chance to rejuvenate themselves from the gloomy communist past and present themselves with new images (Fan, 2010). Most of these countries were seeking entry into the EU (European Union). Membership of the EU gave these countries a positive image among its citizens and other member states like France and Germany. The former Soviet nations used the Anholt-GfK Roper Nation Brand Index (NBI), the best-known index for developing nation branding campaigns, and achieved democratisation after re-joining the Euro-Atlantic family. Georgia offers a rich cultural heritage and has strategic, beautiful locations. Yet, no comprehensive Georgian national branding strategy exists. Instead, foreigners remember Georgia because of it being the cradle of great wine and the birthplace of Joseph Stalin. The components of the Anholt-GfK Roper

NBI (Anholt (2007) were exploited to publicise Georgia's efforts towards nation branding. These components included: tourism, exports, investment and immigration, culture and heritage, people, and governance.

### 3.28.1. Tourism

According to Georgia's GNTA, tourism is the strongest component of Georgia's brand. The agency plays an important role in the development of Georgia brand. Online and TV advertising were used. The social media agency accounts, Georgia travel or Georgia and Travel on Instagram, Facebook and Pinterest were also successfully implemented. However, it is likely that they only attract the attention of people who have already been to the country or who are doing online research in anticipation of their visit. Georgia's National Tourism Administration (GNTA) also utilised well-known travel bloggers to promote international tourism (<http://www.adweek.com/brand-marketing>).

### 3.28.2. Exports

The Anholt-GfK Roper Nation Brand Index (NBI) considers the export component to be a reputation asset that takes years to build and is susceptible to changes based on events and activities (Tampubolon, 2019). The 2016 top exports of Georgia include: copper ore, nuts, Ferro-alloys, automobiles, and wine.

According to the GfK NBI, fashion exports are some of the most important products to global consumers. Georgia should therefore take note of the global consumers that like their clothing pieces. The Georgian government needs therefore to capitalise on the fashion industry as strengthening the relationship between politics and the fashion industry provides the perfect opportunity to benefit from such international print media as *Vogue Magazine*.

### 3.28.3. Investment and Immigration

This component gives the country the power to lure people into residing, working, or embarking on some studies in the country. It also helps in giving the visitors a positive perception of the country. The country's quality of life encourages investors into the country as it paints a healthy picture of the business environment. Georgia is ranked ninth by the World Bank in the Doing Business 2018 Report, alongside the UK, USA, and Norway. It is the highest-ranked middle-income country which is in the top 20, because it implements major business regulations (World Bank, 2018).

As noted by the Georgian National Investment Agency, Georgia attracts investors because of the following reasons:

- i. The country has 12.4% unemployment rate, with 50% between 20-34 years old.
- ii. There are no minimum wage regulations, no work permit requirements, and relatively low monthly salaries, among others.
- iii. Georgia remains attractive to investors as it gives one-year visa-free regime for citizens of 94 countries and no work permit is required for its foreign employees (<https://investinggeorgia.org/en/georgia/labour>).

### 3.28.4. Culture and Heritage

Georgia has three important monuments: the historical monuments of Mtskheta, Upper Svaneti, Bagrati Cathedral and Gelati. These are all UNESCO World Heritage Sites. In addition, Georgia has three elements registered in the Representative List of the Intangible Cultural Heritage of Humanity: Georgian polyphonic singing, the ancient Georgian traditional Qvevri winemaking method, and the living culture of three writing systems of the Georgian

alphabet. The country has its documentary heritage acknowledged by UNESCO in its Memory World Register (<https://en.unesco.org/programme/mow/register>).

Although the country has UNESCO recognised heritage sites, the government does not promote them. Despite its rich cultural heritage, Georgia's cultural ranking stands at an unfavourable position of 90 out of 162 (<https://en.unesco.org/programme/mow/register>)

#### 3.28.5. People

The people component of the hexagon stresses people to people interactions. Soft power emanates from people's reputation for openness, friendliness, competence, and tolerance. The people element thus plays an essential part in building a nation brand. Most countries are stereotyped by the way their people behave and interact with other nationalities. For example, the Germans are labelled as the most hardworking people, while the Italians are labelled as lazy Italians. Georgians however are known for their hospitality, which dates back to time immemorial. The hospitality of the Georgians is depicted in their folklore, national poetry, and even paintings of the artist Niko Pirosmani. The Georgian proverb sums up the country's hospitality as it says "every guest is God sent" (<https://www.advantour.com/traditions/hospitality.htm>).

#### 3.28.6. Governance

Governance denotes the public view on the national government's competency and equality on a country's perceived commitment to matters of a global nature. This aspect is subject to change as it is affected by global trends, changes in power, and philosophies followed by leaders in different countries worldwide.

The international community applauds Georgia for the peaceful ending of conflicts, especially with its breakaway states. The peaceful ending of conflicts is a well-deserved reputational asset for Georgia. Georgia is also known for upholding democracy, freedom of expression, and human rights. However, Human Rights Watch and Amnesty International are concerned with the way the country has dealt with rights to privacy, abuses committed by law enforcement entities, and freedom of the media, women, and the LGBTIQ+ community.

### 3.28.7. The Challenges of the Georgian Nation Branding

There is no comprehensive strategy hinged on managing the international Georgia brand that presently exists. Although the GNTA has made efforts in this regard, most players are needed to complement the efforts of the tourism body. Georgia is not promoting its tertiary education internationally and has no permanent slogan to promote the country. Currently, the country is using various slogans that include: “Europe started here”, “Georgia for the best moments of your life” and “Georgia is the country of life”.

### 3.28.8. The Strengths of Georgian Nation Branding

The strengths of Georgian nation branding can be noted as follows:

- i. The impressive Georgian logo should be universally used by a variety of government agents as well as the private sector.
- ii. The country has a rich but unpublicised culture which it can benefit from if properly promoted through cultural institutes globally.
- iii. Georgia is a global peacemaker, therefore, could benefit from taking up the role of conflict mediator as well as increasing the number of personnel it provides to the UN Peacekeeping missions in different parts of the world.

- iv. Georgia is a renowned exporter of wine and cheese, but the country exports products such as enamel, jewellery, artworks, wool, and clothes.
- v. On the Transparency International Perception Index, Georgia is among the impressive top five nations in the world ranking on the World Bank's Ease of Doing Business Index.

### **3.29. Kenya**

The branding of Kenya was initiated by the Kenyan government through the Brand Kenya Board (BKB) State Corporation in March 2008. Kenya needed to improve its image that has been dented by such activities as corruption, poverty, and the worst post-election violence of 2007-2008 that left 1 100 people dead and was the worst violence in the east African country since Independence. As a mitigatory measure to correct these image-tarnishing black spots, the BKB plays a key role in Kenya's development agenda by putting in place programmes that help to create a unique country identity and image that makes the country to stand out in the global arena as a wonderful destination to visit, invest, work and live.

The role of the BKB is to co-ordinate various initiatives of marketing the country within government, the private sector, and other key stakeholders. The BKB also facilitates, creates, and maintains Kenyan products and services through partnerships with other government departments and ministries to ensure that Brand Kenya informs policymaking and the implementation of the priority projects within vision 2030 (Brand Kenya Board, 2016). This was done to ensure that the country branding project takes a holistic approach.

The BKB had a two-fold mandate hinged on the country's desire to upgrade its image and to enhance international confidence in Kenya as an attractive destination for trade, investment, and international as well as internal tourism. It was mandated to develop an identity for Kenya

that enhances the citizens' pride, fosters patriotism, and cultivate social harmony (Brand Kenya Board, 2016). The BKB established the Brand Master Plan, which was designed to guide the branding strategies for Kenya. The Brand Master Plan consists of five pillars: economic, political, people, place, and product. It is the combination of these factors that help tourists, investors, purchasers, and citizens to form an opinion on a particular destination. The Master Plan outlined several branding platforms: citizenry, export, foreign direct investment, and tourism. Furthermore, the plan recommended the adoption of a "one look and feel national identity" which may be used across public service institutions to identify the Kenya Brand and enhance a pleasant country image.

The BKB acknowledges that Kenya's citizenry is of paramount importance in the country branding process on the basis that they are the unsolicited brand ambassadors. The image and reputation of Kenya are highly influenced by citizens across all social classes through what they do or not do. The board recognised that a strong nation brand is anchored around its people, a fact endorsed by the Brand Master Plan. As a result, BKB established a communication campaign to instil the virtues of good Kenyan and to encourage citizens to be patriotic. The campaign was called "Nitakuwepo" (lit: "I will be there") and consisted of a citizen engagement programme communicated through radio, television, and the print media. Based on the national anthem "Nitakuwepo", the slogan "Ni Mimi" (lit: "I am Kenya and Kenya is me"), was put in place as a device to marshall the support of all Kenyans and urge them to shun activities that would jeopardise the country's image (Brand Kenya Board, 2016).

The BKB was created with a clear mandate which has contributed to the success of the branding programme. According to Dinnie (2015), strategic place branding is about enhancing a country's position in the global marketplace. The nation branding process is concerned with

the management of the factors that affect tourists' and other stakeholders' perception about a country (Dinnie, 2015).

The Kenyan nation branding programme has some weaknesses, which range from operational delivery, political leadership, and corruption. Corruption in Kenya has also greatly affected the country's efforts in branding the country. However, on the positive side, Kenya is known for its strength in sports, education, and work ethics. If these efforts continue at the same momentum, the image of the country can be positive in the eyes of the international tourists, investors, and entrepreneurs alike.

### **3.30. South Africa**

South Africa suffered negative publicity during the apartheid era, and the country was alienated from the international arena. This meant that the country could not trade, partake in international sports, or borrow from multilateral institutions like the World Bank (WB) and the International Monetary Fund (IMF). Its racially-segregated past gave the new democratic government the incentive to establish an organisation such as Brand South Africa (Brand SA). In 2000, the South African government tried to improve its image in the international community by embarking on a nation branding project, and the International Marketing Council (IMC) was established (Brand South Africa, 2004). Its objectives were to create a united image for South Africa. The country had a strategic advantage in the competitive marketplace, especially for tourism, trade, and investment (International Marketing Council, 2019).

The IMC initiated Brand South Africa. The important step was to establish the perception of South Africa through the key stakeholders, such as trade unions, investors, fund managers, tourists, media, members of the diplomatic missions and expatriates. Brand South Africa as an

organisation founded within the scope of the South African government, falls under the Department of Communications, to further South African nation branding initiative. Within national government, Brand South Africa works with different departmental bodies such as the Office of the Presidency, the Department of Trade and Industry, Department of Home Affairs, South African Tourism, the Government Communication and Information System (GCIS), South African Airways (SAA), the South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC), and the Department of Sport Recreation, Department of Arts and Culture. These governmental stakeholders are important to the nation brand, as they ensure a strategic, holistic South African voice is put into the market place, both internally and externally.

Both Unilever and Added Value were hired to give of their brand expertise. After the re-evaluation of the history and achievement of the nation, the consultancy developed the core message: “South Africa Alive with Possibility”. Papadopoulos and Hamzaoui-Essoussi (2015) are of the view that the key to the formulation of successful nation branding is inclusiveness, and concede that the message was not only relevant to tourists and businesses, but to South Africans as well.

Other nation branding campaigns like the UK’s “Cool Britannia” campaign, sponsored by New Labour in the 1990s and inspired by the British pop-culture scene of the 1960s, failed on the basis that such efforts concentrated on developing a logo or pay-off-line, without garnering the support of different stakeholders. The participation of different stakeholders ensures inclusiveness and everyone takes the responsibility of the nation branding process. Commitment to nation branding will not occur if some stakeholders feel excluded from the process. Countries like Egypt, Russia, Iceland, and France had an inclusive approach to their nation branding campaigns as described in Dinnie (2015).

The resulting brand with the core idea of “South Africa-alive with possibility” is communicated through the IMC’s external branding efforts including advertising campaigns in broadcast, radio and print, such as CNN and *The Economist*, as well as networking through its offices in London and Washington, DC.

The findings of the research undertaken by Brand South Africa in countries like the DRC, Kenya, and Nigeria, was that the perception of South Africa varied. While there was a general consensus that South Africa plays a pivotal role in the development of Africa, South Africans at times were seen to enter African markets with a ‘know-it-all attitude’, being not fully cognisant of the foreign environment into which they had entered (Brand South Africa, 2018).

South Africa has a positive ranking according to the Mo Ibrahim Index of Africa Governance which seeks to provide an annual measure of governance efficiency of African countries. The country ranks 4<sup>th</sup> overall out of 54 countries. South Africa’s overall reputation improved by 0.17 in 2014, and since 2012 its statistical scores in each year have improved or remained stable (Brand South Africa, 2016). In terms of the global reputation, South Africa is associated most strongly with natural beauty, culture and sporting excellence, hardworking and skilful people. Overall, Brand South Africa’s initiatives are being adversely affected by such activities like corruption, the rate of crime in the country, and in some instances, the issue of service delivery and poor governance, be it in the local authorities or central government.

## **Chapter 3**

### **Literature Review**

#### **Part C: Measuring Nation Brand Equity Approaches / Macro Models**

##### **3.31. Introduction**

This third part of the chapter looks at the literature concerning approaches developed for measuring nation brand equity. There is still little evidence about the conceptualisation and measurement of the performance of place brands (Gyrd-Jones & Kornum, 2013). According to Buhmann and Ingenhoff (2014), there is a lack of ideal conceptual models and appropriate measurement instrument that are used to analyse and compare the effects of country images. Kotler and Armstrong (2015) share the same sentiment that there is no common approach used to conceptualise and assess nation brand equity.

Theorists put forward two significant approaches for measuring nation brand equity. These are: Customer-Based Brand Equity (CUBBE) and Company-Based Brand Equity (COBBE) (Atilgan et al., 2005; Dinnie, 2016; Fetscherin, 2010; Aaker, 1996). These two approaches are also known as customer and financial approaches, respectively (Dinnie, 2016; Aaker, 2012).

In addition, there are three macro theories. These are: Customer and Company-Based Brand Equity (CUCOBBE), (Sun; 2009; WEF, 2016); Resource-Based View (RBVBE) (Dinnie, 2016; Sun, 2009) and Stakeholder-Oriented Brand Equity (SOBE), also known as the behavioural school (Gyrd-Jones & Kornum, 2013).

##### **3.32. Customer-Based Brand Equity (CUBBE)**

The Customer-Based Brand Equity (CUBBE) approach measures brand equity from the perspective of customers (Atilgan et al., 2005; Dinnie, 2008). The approach aims at giving a

good relationship between the brand and its customers (Aaker, 1996). Examples of such models include the Anholt-GfK Nation Brand Index (NBI) and FutureBrand's, Country Brand Index (CBI). These models are globally used in country branding projects, but they fall short on the methodologies used (Fetscherin, 2010). Quality of life, the value system, suitable for business, tourism, heritage, government, human capital, investment, sustainability, and influence are what the CBI model uses to measure country brands. The NBI model uses the following dimensions to measure nation brands: culture, governance, people, exports, tourism, investment, and immigration. Both the NBI and CBI models do not include infrastructure and resource endowment as measures of nation brands, despite these being important measures as alluded to by Anyanwu (2012).

There is an association between a country's development level and the hierarchy rank, for example, Turkey ranked thirty-sixth in 2008 and in 2009 it was thirty-second out of fifty country brands investigated (Human Development Report, 2019). However, the index does not measure the genuine performance of the countries in the six dimensions. There are some methodological controversies associated with the NBI model (Zeinalpour et al., 2013). According to Jung et al. (2014), an accurate scale of the country image needs to specify the construct's domain and to be precise concerning the components of the country image. This applies to a nation brand image measurement that must be undertaken before nation-brand images can be accurately measured. Brand image is such a complex phenomenon that there should first be more academic research and a discussion of what dimensions a nation brand image consists of before deciding on the measurement itself. In concurrence, Dinnie (2015) and Anholt (2007) point out that the nation brand image is more complex than is acknowledged by the country-of-origin.

Nation brand image consists of several dimensions, not just products. According to Anholt (2007), nation branding consists of six dimensions. However, there seems to be no evidence that the six dimensions suggested by Anholt (2007) are indeed the right dimensions of nation brand image. There seems to be a question of the classification on how to divide the image into different dimensions and what levels they fall. 'Politics' seems to be general than 'exports' so perhaps, exports should have a more general term like 'economic' for the two dimensions to be at the same level. Or if more details are important, 'politics' should perhaps be divided into 'domestic' and 'foreign' politics.

Taking into consideration that Anholt (2007) does not include the formation of the nation brand image based on communicating nation brand identity. The conceptual model of Dinnie (2015) does not take into consideration the different dimensions of the nation brand image. There is a combined model that is ideal in the measurement, where the different dimensions should reflect the identity dimensions.

### **3.33. Company-Based Brand Equity (COBBE)**

The Company Based Brand Equity (COBBE) approach, also known as the financial approach, examines brands from a company perspective (Dinnie, 2016; Laforet, 2010). Financial brand equity is measured in monetary terms. The COBBE approach uses tourist receipts, FDI inflows, and export figures to measure brand strength. This is a top-down framework for measuring country performance (Fetscherin, 2010). The approach uses econometric formulae to measure country performance. Although the theory was not designed to cover country branding, it borrows from the theory of foreign, international or trade of FDI determinants which were developed in economics. Other operational frameworks that measure nation brand

equity include the Country Brand Strength Index (CBSI) and Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) (Fetscherin, 2010; Kalamova & Konrad, 2010).

The CBSI model uses exports, tourism, FDI, immigration and governance to measure country brands (Fetscherin, 2010). The model borrows some dimensions from the Anholt-GfK NBI and CUBBE theory. Kalamova and Konrad's (2010) model is structured around the NBI. It examines nation brands drawing from the population, set-up costs, voice and accountability, control and corruption, government effectiveness, regulatory, political stability, the rule of law, and market capitalisation. These are the same measures that are used by economists in measuring the determinants of FDI when using the theory of foreign trade (Anyanwu, 2012; Hornberger et al. 2011) Company-Based Brand Equity (COBBE) driven methodologies are superior in operational measures of country FDI on the basis that there is a connection between economic theory on FDI and the FDI determinants done by economists.

The COBBE approach has its weaknesses in that it assumes that companies belong to shareholders and as such, should be managed by them. Country brand equity under the COBBE model is measured from a shareholder value approach (Fetscherin, 2010; Kalamova & Konrad, 2010; Rojas-Mendez, 2013), where neither the interest of customers nor the shareholder is taken care of (Aaker, 1996; Fetscherin, 2010; Keller & Swaminathan, 2020). When calculating profits, the financial approach does not consider influencing factors such as behaviours of customers and competitors, sales expenditure, the efficiency of the distribution system and human resources (Laforet, 2011).

While Zimbabwe lacks a definite nation brand approach or strategy, the general perception depicts that the country follows the COBBE and RBVBE approaches (WEF, 2013). That said,

a stakeholder conference convened in November 2016, pointed towards Zimbabwe gravitating towards the stakeholder approach in its nation branding efforts (Muzondo, 2017).

### **3.34. Resource-Based View of Brand Equity (RBVBE)**

The key assumption of Resource-Based View of Brand Equity (RBVBE) is that the assets of a country are the cornerstone of its competitive advantage (Dinnie, 2016; Warren & Dinnie, 2017). This approach states that a country's assets should be audited if its sources of competitive advantage are to be correctly identified. When assessing the resource-based theory of strategic management from the viewpoint of the dimensions of Dinnie's model of asset-based nation brand equity, the 'internal buy-in' is not sufficiently inclusive as it does not explicitly include 'external buy-in', yet external stakeholders are equally important.

In the Zimbabwean context, the Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment Act (Chapter 14: 33) stipulates that at least fifty percent of the shares of any public company and any other business shall be owned by indigenous Zimbabweans. This law is inspired by the RBVBE or COBBE approaches which place host nation interests ahead of investor and other stakeholder interests, especially as it pertains to brand equity defined from the context of resources owned by a country. The need to limit foreign ownership of the business in a country is motivated by nationalism (Ghauri & Cateora, 2014).

### **3.35. Customer-and-Company Based Brand Equity (CUCOBBE)**

The Customer-and-Company Based Brand Equity (CUCOBBE) approach ensures that the interests of customers and stakeholders are primary survey data and country objective forms secondary data that can be blended to measure nation brand performance. The perspective offers a rich list of measures of equity because of its link with the theory of trade of FDI.

The CUCOBBE approach does not provide for a survey of an exhaustive list of key stakeholders in-country branding beyond customers and stakeholders. This limits its theoretical strengths considering that stakeholders of nation brands extend beyond foreign investors and national political leadership. There is limited known literature on combined customer and financial brand equity perspective at the macro theory level, although there are exceptions. The combined customer and financial model is formulated to safeguard the inadequacies that come out when using one of the two models (Dodan, 2014).

### **3.36. Asset-Based Nation Brand Equity (ABNBE)**

The Asset-Based Nation Brand Equity (ABNBE) model consists of internal and external assets and defines nation brand equity “as the tangible (like dressing, food) and intangible (e.g., customs, values and beliefs)”. The ABNBE model also divides external assets into vicarious assets, i.e., country image perceptions and external portrayal in popular culture and disseminated assets, such as brand ambassadors, the Zimbabwean Diaspora, and branded exports.

The model brings to the fore the importance of stakeholder buy-in in the development of a nation branding framework. It has three elements that are like the Nation Brand Hexagon (NBH) of Anholt (2007), these being: culture, branded exports, and brand ambassadors.

The ABNBE model is a conceptual framework and has so far hardly been interrogated in the literature. It does not include natural endowments like arable land, forestry and mineral resources that can attract resource-seeking FDI investors (Adam & Filippaios, 2007; Rojas-Mendez et al., 2013; Sun, 2009).

### **3.37. Stakeholder-Oriented Brand Equity (SOBE)**

The Stakeholder-Oriented Brand Equity (SOBE) perspective acknowledges that a detailed understanding of a country, from the viewpoint of the potential stakeholder is a requirement for successful brand management (Domer et al., 2014) The theory is a tentative answer to the calls in the literature for stakeholder involvement in place branding (Tiberghien et al., 2013). It is essential to identify the various stakeholder groups and define their interest level during the discussion process. Freeman's (2010) power and interest model may be applied to establish interest and power levels of key stakeholder group in a brand strategic planning. The SOBE approach focuses on the meaning of the brand and its value. This model facilitates improved understanding and monitoring of brand performance against each stakeholder group (Jones, 2005: 16); hence the link with Porter's value chain model.

## **Chapter 3**

### **Literature Review**

#### **Part D: Micro-Nation Branding Measurement Indexes**

##### **3.38. Introduction**

This fourth part of the chapter looks at the micro-nation branding measurement indexes. These are used in conjunction with the macro indexes in measuring the nation branding and some on their own provide insufficient information that may be meaningful. Some of the indexes discussed include the Mo Ibrahim Foundation, Index of African Governance, Social Progress Index, among others.

##### **3.39. Micro-Nation Branding Measurement Indexes**

There are numerous working models of measuring country brand equity. These models are inclined towards the shareholder value theory. Companies are interested stakeholders when carrying out nation branding initiatives. The strength of COBBE-driven micro frameworks is that they measure the actual organisational (thus company or country) performance basing on objective secondary data (Fetscherin, 2010: 468). This makes the COBBE models relevant in the formulation of a nation branding framework. The ideal COBBE micro-nation branding indexes are reviewed below citing the relevance of these to the formulation of nation branding framework.

###### **3.39.1. Ibrahim Index of African Governance (IIAG)**

The (Mo) Ibrahim Index of Africa Governance (IIAG) offers citizens, governments, institutions, and the private sector an outline for assessing the delivery of public goods and services and policy outcomes across the continent (Vuylsteke, 2016). The IIAG has four

components that are used to measure country performance and gives indicators of the country's overall Governance performance. These four key components are: safety and rule of law, participation and human rights, sustainable economic opportunity, and human development.

On safety and the rule of law, Zimbabwe is ranked 37 out of 54, and the situation is said to be a “slowing improvement” of governance. This category has four sub-categories: the rule of law, transparency and accountability, personal safety, and national security. On the rule of law sub-category, Zimbabwe is ranked 39 out of 54. On transparency and accountability, Zimbabwe ranks 38 out of 54. On personal safety, Zimbabwe ranks 42 out of 54. On national security Zimbabwe ranks 30 out of 54 (Madanhire, 2019). The general state of governance in Africa since 2011 has been considered bad, with about half of the countries in Africa having recorded the worst scores in all the four components that make up safety and the rule of law category (Mo Ibrahim Foundation, 2015; Vuylsteke, 2015).

All the elements of nation branding are affected by the ranking of Zimbabwe according to the Mo Ibrahim Index of African Governance (IIAG). Zimbabwe's score is lower than the African average in overall governance and in each of the four underlying IIAG categories. The index fails to justify the reasons for having four different bands for overall governance. Therefore, this presents a methodological weakness of the index. Governance is an element in the NBI and therefore this index plays a major contribution in the formulation of nation brand measurement for Zimbabwe.

### 3.39.2. Social Progress Index (SPI)

Social progress involves the capacity of a society to meet the basic human needs of its citizens, establish the building blocks that allow citizens and community to improve and maintain the quality of their lives, and create the conditions for all individuals to reach their full potential

(Stern et al., 2016). The Social Progress Index (SPI) combines social and environmental factors to measure social progress. It has six score clusters: Very high social progress (87-100), High social progress (75-85), Upper middle social progress (67-74), Lower Middle Social Progress (56-66), Low Social Progress (43-55) and Very Low Social Progress (0-42) (Stern et al., 2016). The SPI is essential in measuring a nation's reputation and FDI, which are essential dimensions in nation branding as depicted in the NBI. The reputation of a nation is normally that reflected by the social progress of its inhabitants or citizens.

### 3.39.3. Human Development Index (HDI)

The Human Development Index (HDI) is a pooled index from the dimensions relating to health, education, and general incomes. A higher HDI points to a higher level of socioeconomic development. It measures the opportunities that people have during their lifetime, such as life expectancy at birth (measured in years), mean years of schooling, and gross national income (GNI) per capita, which are aggregated into a sub-index that is life expectancy index, education index, and GNI per capita index with a value ranging from 0 to 1.

The HDI measures and categorises countries into four clusters that is 0-0.550, representing Low Human Development; 0.550-0.699 Medium Human Development; 0.700-0.799 representing High Human Development; 0.800-1.0 representing Very High Human Development (UNDP, 2016). Considering its dimensions, the HDI has clear implications for public policy formulation, implementation, and evaluation. The HDI is a default nation branding index, where its implications may be used in formulation, implementation, and evaluation of a nation brand measurement framework.

Investors consider the availability of critical skills (Anyanwu, 2012; Hornberger et al., 2011) and GNI or GNP (Anyanwu, 2012; FfP, 2014) in selecting a foreign investment destination.

Some of the limitations of the index are that it evaluates countries from a human development perspective and measures using secondary data. The model's reliance on secondary data means that it also has traits of the COBBE approach. In the context of country branding, the needs of policymakers and researchers are prioritised at the expense of critical stakeholders.

#### 3.39.4. Global Competitiveness Index (GCI)

The Global Competitiveness Index (GCI) assesses a country's competitiveness regarding three sub-indices: basic requirements, efficiency enhancers, and innovation and sophistication factors. The sub-indices culminate into 12 pillars of competitiveness or sub-factors. For example, basic requirements sub-index constitutes four pillars: infrastructure, macroeconomic environment and health and primary education. Countries relying on these pillars are referred to as factor-driven growth. The efficiency enhancers' sub-index is made up of: higher education and training, labour market efficiency, financial market development, technological readiness, and market size. Nations in this category are referred to as efficiency-driven economies. The innovation and sophistication factors sub-index comprise two pillars: business sophistication and innovation. Countries falling in this cluster are called innovation-driven economies.

Zimbabwe has a low ranking on all the 12 pillars, the worst being on pillar 12 innovation, where it is ranked 132 out of 137. On all the pillars, Zimbabwe is ranked 124 out of 137 (WEF, 2018).

The GCI has at least three strengths. Firstly, it blends the CUBBE and COBBE perspective in measuring country competitiveness. Secondly, GCI's basic requirements of sub-index include natural resources as one of the bases of country competitiveness. Natural resource endowment is one of the drivers of FDI, particularly in African economies. (Anyanwu, 2012). Thirdly, its

strength is that despite being a proprietary model, the WEF explains how the GCI is calculated. As the GCI is a CUCOBBE model, it makes aggregation feasible by converting its indicators to a 1-7 scale to align them with survey results.

The limitations of the GCI include, it does not provide for the full inclusion of stakeholders in the construction of the index. For example, the survey side of the index would benefit from the inclusion of a full range of stakeholders such as academics, students, foreign investors, media, and the local and central government in the competitiveness effort. Bleotu (2012) insists that the index is “misleading” and highlights several analytical, methodological, and quantitative problems of the index. Firstly, the index has validity challenges, as some country rankings have not been stable over the years, the USA’s ranking jumped from 6<sup>th</sup> in 2007 to 1<sup>st</sup> in 2008. Secondly, previous research has found that GCI cannot predict economic growth well when combined with other variables such as entrepreneurial activities (Bleotu, 2012).

Thirdly, although the index authors (Dodan, 2014) have linked GCI with economic growth, they have used past growth as the dependent variable, and so admit that there is need to prove that GCI can help account for future and past growth.

Another limitation is that many economists choose different angles to define the competitiveness of a country, some arguing that a country’s competitiveness depends on its productivity level. While some economists argue that country’s ability to export successfully shows its competitiveness, the World Competitiveness Centre calculates complex indexes including a number of aspects pertaining to the country’s economic, cultural, technological performance.

Consequently, competitiveness is not to be understood in the same manner as productivity because productivity how efficiently domestic input is used to produce a given level of output

and competitiveness cannot be fully described by the country's export abilities either because various export measure taken alone do not show either substantiality of the of the country's economy and the standard of living of its citizens. Accordingly, Busco et al. (2015) argue that productivity is important in making internal companies and industries efficient and competitive in foreign markets by reallocating resources to the most productive product and companies. On the other hand, exports are a link between a country's external and internal performance, because exports show the ability of domestic companies which use their given domestic input to export to foreign markets.

#### 3.39.5. Ease of Doing Business Index (EDBI)

The World Bank's Ease of Doing Business Index (EDBI) assesses about 190 countries worldwide yearly using ten areas of business regulation, processes, and property rights protection. These include: starting a business, registering property, trading across borders, dealing with construction permits, getting credit, enforcing contracts, getting electricity, protecting investors, resolving insolvency, and paying taxes (World Bank, 2016).

The EDBI measures an economy's strengths using the concept known as distance frontier. The distance to the frontier score is a measure of best practice across the entire set of indicators (World Bank, 2016). Investors are cautious of investing in countries with poor ranking in the index overall. The EDBI factors the concerns a multinational corporation can have before it decides to invest in a foreign country (Morris & Aziz, 2011). The key principle of the EDBI is that economic activity needs good rules that guarantee and classify property rights and cut the cost of settling disputes.

A strength of the EDBI is that its indicators can be considered "actionable", as they measure aspects over which governments have direct control (World Bank, 2016). A limitation of the

EDBI is its restricted scope, as it neither tries to assess all costs and benefits of a given regulation, nor does it evaluate all facets of the business environment that determine the competitiveness of an economy. The EDBI also does not cover areas such as security, the prevalence of bribery and corruption, market size, macro-economic stability, state of financial system and level of training and skills of the workforce (World Bank, 2017). In addition, the EDBI does not cover areas like electricity supply, export and import tariffs, infrastructure adequacy and availability of credit to companies, among others.

Zimbabwe is currently ranked 155 out of 189 countries in the World Bank's Ease of Doing Business Index (EDBI) of 2015. The most problematic factors for doing business in Zimbabwe include: policy instability (WEF, 2016), access to financing, corruption, inefficient government, bureaucracy, inadequate supply of infrastructure, restrictive labour regulations, tax rates, foreign currency regulations, government instability and insufficient capacity to innovate (WEF, 2016). Zimbabwe's low ranking in ease of doing business calls for major reforms, as this has attracted some negative perceptions from potential investors. In Zimbabwe, it takes 61 days to satisfy the requirements of starting a new business because of a multiplicity of levies and delays in utility connections. Rwanda on the other hand, stands 41 in the EDBI rankings, having moved up 100 places in 10 years through the initiatives of the World Bank (Zimbabwe Government, 2015).

#### 3.39.6. Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index (TTCI)

The Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index (TTCI) is a multilevel and multi-dimensional model consisting of 14 pillars organised into three sub-indexes: travel and tourism (T&T) regulatory framework, T&T business environment and infrastructure, and T&T human, cultural and natural resources. The T&T regulatory framework sub-index constitute policy

rules and regulating environmental sustainability, safety and security, health and hygiene and prioritisation of travel and tourism. Air transport infrastructure, ground transport infrastructure, tourism infrastructure, information communication and technology (ICT) infrastructure and price competitiveness on the T&T industry are the four pillars in the T&T business environment and infrastructure sub-index.

Tourists prefer destinations with guaranteed safety and security and health and hygiene (WEF, 2013; Bloom Consulting, 2013), and so do foreign investors (Lopes et al., 2018). Virtually all pillars in the T&T business environment sub-index are relevant bases from which to consider the strength of a nation's FDI.

The TTCI is limited in that its natural resources pillars do not include mineral resources which is preferred by FDI investors. However, the TTCI does have some strengths. These include the TTCI enabling a more detailed exploration of the tourism dimension with frameworks such as the NBI (Roper, 2016), the CBI (FutureBrand, 2013), the CBS (Fetscherin & Stephano, 2016), and others. Zimbabwe's tourism industry is ranked 114 out of 140 economies on the World Economic Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Report (Mpofu, 2019).

### 3.39.7. Modified Fombrun-Reputation Institute Country Reputation Index (CRI)

The CRI is an instrument that enables any government to directly measure the reputation of its country (Matos et al., 2015). The CRI adapted the names of three RQ dimensions: 'Emotional Appeal', 'Financial Performance' and 'Social Responsibility' without changes. The CRI is a 10-point scale ranging from 1=No Reputation to 10=Total Reputation (Fehlmann et al., 2002). These reputation drivers are suitable for nation brands because of its foundation in the concept of managing country reputation. It has a better chance of being accepted than the alternative model grounded in the idea of managing 'country brand'. Dinnie (2015) notes that to some

extent the hostility towards the nation may be driven by the dislike of the word 'brand' hence if alternative terminology like building a nation's reputation rather than 'brand' is used there might not be the same degree of scepticism towards the idea of nation brands.

### 3.39.8. Global Manufacturing Competitiveness Index (GMCI)

The Global Manufacturing Competitiveness Index (GMCI) measures global manufacturing competitiveness according to 12 drivers: talent, cost competitiveness, workforce productivity, supplier network, legal and regulatory system, education, infrastructure, economic, trade financial tax infrastructure, energy policy, local market attractiveness and health care (Deloitte and Global & US Council on Competitiveness, 2016). The 12 drivers are mediated by two additional components of market forces and government forces. Governments are responsible for developing and passing policies that govern company operations.

Many of the drivers of Global Manufacturing Competitiveness are also consistent with the determinants of FDI studies done under the classical theory of economics (Anyanwu, 2012) and to some extent nation branding models (Kalamova & Konrad, 2010; Sun, 2009). This makes the GMCI an emerging but potentially useful CUBBE-inspired model for measuring the strength of nation brands as destinations for measuring investments.

Global Manufacturing Competitiveness is the foundation of reputable industries through reputable brands. Countries earn global reputation from "country of origin" labels (QRi Consulting, 2016; Sun, 2009).

The strengths of the index include: measuring global competitiveness by asking respondents to rate a country's position now and in the next five years (Deloitte Global & US Council on Competitiveness, 2016). This enables both country and corporate policymakers to

simultaneously address current and future policy issues underlying the country. A significant limitation of the index is that it is dominated by developed countries and emerging economies in Asia, South America, and Central Europe, where many of the top global manufacturers originate. Only three African countries: Egypt, Nigeria and South Africa are included in the GMCI sample. Zimbabwe is ranked 124 out of 137 countries in the 2017-2018 Ranking Report (WEF, 2017).

### 3.39.9. Fragile States Index (FSI)

The Failed States Index (FSI) was developed in 2005 by the Fund for Peace (FfP), an independent non-profit research and educational organisation. The index is founded on the FfP's proprietary Conflict Assessment Software Tool (CAST). Upon blending social science technology with information technology, the FfP produced the patented CAST, a content-analysis software that provides a theoretical framework and a data gathering procedure for assessing conflict risk (Ffp, 2014). Zimbabwe has the tenth highest FSI (Score 102.3) among all countries in the world (FfP, 2014). Fragility indices are used by donors, developing practitioners, and government officials to guide future action and evaluate past engagement by researchers.

The 12 key indicators of FSI are: demographic pressures, group grievance, refugees and internally displaced peoples, brain drain and human flight, uneven economic development, poverty, and economic decline, State legitimacy, public services, human rights and the rule of law, security apparatus, factionalised elites, and external intervention. A lower score indicates an improvement in the stability of the nation, while a higher score suggests growing instability. According to the results of the FSI of 2016, there were four African countries in the Very High Alert bracket: Somalia, South Sudan, Democratic Republic of Congo. In the High Alert cluster

there were four African countries: Burundi, Nigeria, Guinea, and Zimbabwe. Mauritius is the only country in a more stable category which encourage foreign investors.

#### 3.39.10. Country Branding Ranking (CBR)

The Country Branding Ranking (CBR) is a proprietary framework developed by Bloom Consulting to analyse the performance of country brands. It focuses on six dimensions of the model's Country Region and City (CRC) Branding Wheel: investors, tourism, talent, pride, public diplomacy, and exports. The current CRC Branding Wheel has five dimensions, where pride and public diplomacy have been collapsed into one dimension (Bloom Consulting, 2013). These four dimensions are: investors, tourism, talent, and exports. Each dimension of the Branding Wheel has target audiences with particular needs (Bloom Consulting, 2013). Among the audiences include: investors, tourists, workforce, nationals, the general public and companies (exporters). In the latest CRC model, the most important dimension is the general public (Bloom Consulting, 2013).

There is a similarity in the dimensions of nation branding presented by the CBR model and those presented by Anholt GfK Roper's NBI, FutureBrand's CBI, Kalamova and Konrad's (2010) nation brand, and FDI, and Sun's (2009) determinants and outcomes of nation branding.

Country characteristics are assessed using the following attributes: corruption level, infrastructure and logistics facilities, natural resources, political stability, quality of life, security and safety, social welfare, strategic location, and utilities. Sectorial expertise is measured through the following variables: advanced sciences industry, construction industry, creative industry, education sector, energy sector, food processing industry, information technology (IT) industry, and manufacturing industry, among others.

### 3.39.11. Global Innovation Index (GII)

The Global Innovation Index (GII) is a proprietary annual ranking of countries based on their capabilities for innovation. The index is part of the COBBE approach because it relies on secondary data. The GII has evolved from a 7-point to a 100-point multi-dimensional scale (Cornell University et al., 2018). Innovation is the implementation of the new significantly improved product (goods or service), a new process, and a new organisational method in business practices, workplace organisation and external relations. This definition differentiates four types of innovation: a product, process, marketing and organisational (World Bank, 2018) and is consistent with how innovation is defined in marketing (Kotler & Armstrong, 2015). Economies should design and develop innovative products and processes to remain competitive and improve their value chain. A country barely gains a competitive advantage if it is not creative and innovative (Mutana & Zinyemba, 2013). An innovation policy capable of responding timeously to current socio-economic and industrial challenges creates a motivation for strong national competitiveness and continuous economic growth (Balezentis & Balkiene, 2014).

Among the weaknesses of the GII is that it is dependent upon secondary data taken from national and international organisations. Another weakness is that it lacks a genuine country's reputation in academic literature. Zimbabwe is ranked 89 out of 127 countries on the Global Innovation Index (GII 2017 Report, 2017).

### 3.39.12. Corruption Perception Index (CPI)

The Corruption Perception Index (CPI) is a composite index, being a combination of surveys and assessments of corruption collected by a variety of reputable institutions (Transparency International, 2015). The CPI scores and ranks a country based on how corrupt a country's

public sector is perceived to be. A country's score indicates the perceived level of corruption on a scale ranging from 0 to 100, where 0 means highly corrupt, and 100 means Very Clean. Any State whose index is below 50 points has an ineffectively functioning institutional environment with inadequate capacity for opposing corruption (Transparency International, 2016). A poor score is a sign of widespread bribery, lack of punishment for corrupt and public institutions that do not respond to citizens' needs, (Transparency International, 2014). Zimbabwe, with a mean CPI global ranking of 156 in the years (2012-2017) is the second most corrupt country in the SADC region, (Transparency International, 2016). As a result, Zimbabwe is unlikely to attract foreign direct investment, as this ranking turns away potential investors, and it also gives the country a negative image. On the contrary, corrupt destinations may attract corrupt investors (Ledyeva et al., 2013).

Table 3.1 presents a summary of selected nation branding models used in the formulation of nation brand measurement framework analysed in the study. This covers the dimensions that make each model, the author of the model and the classification of the model as proprietary, conceptual, and empirical.

Nation branding models or indexes are formulated along three major classifications: proprietary models, conceptual models, and empirical models. A proprietary model or index is a model developed and owned by an organisation to address a defined problem in an area of national, regional, or international development. A conceptual model is a framework designed from a review of existing literature. Such a model is weak in that it has not been validated through primary research. An empirical model is a framework that has been validated with primary study hence its assumptions have empirical backing.

However, some authors devise default nation branding equity models or frameworks that measure one or more aspects of nation or country brand, but are designed without the theorists realising that their models have place or country branding marketing implications (Muzondo, 2017). Accordingly, when developing a nation branding framework, one should consider blending the variables from each classification as this strengthens the framework. Hence, an integrated model or framework is robust when it factors the strengths of each variable from the different classification of models.

**Table 3.1. A Summary of Selected Nation Branding Models**

<b>Model or Index</b>	<b>Author</b>	<b>Concepts, Variables or Dimensions</b>	<b>Classification</b>
1. Country Brand Strength Index (CBSI)	Mark Fetscherin	Exports, tourism, FDI, immigration.	Nation Brand measuring index. - Proprietary / Empirical
2. Nation Brand Index (NBI)	Simon Anholt	Exports, governance, cultural & heritage, people, investment & immigration, and tourism.	Nation Brand measuring model. - Proprietary
3. Discounted Cash Flow (DCF)	Roger Sinclair	Operating profit, cost of capital, inflation forecast and capital employed.	Nation Brand measuring model. - Proprietary
4. Customer-Based Brand Equity (CUBBE)	Aaker & Keller	Measures brand equity from a consumer perspective.	Nation Brand Equity model. - Empirical
5. Company-Based Brand Equity (COBBE)	Marc Fetschrin; Kalamova & Konrad; Ledyaeva	Organisational or country performance perspective, monetary terms, tourist receipts.	Nation Brand Equity model. - Empirical - Academic / Conceptual - Proprietary
6. Resource-Based View of Brand Equity (RBVBE)	Barney	Resources—tangible & intangible, heterogeneous & immobile.	Nation Brand Equity model. - Academic / Conceptual
7. Nation Brand Molecule	Rojas-Mendez	Economy, government, science & technology, society, culture & heritage, geography & nature.	- Academic / Conceptual - Empirical
8. Stakeholder-Oriented Brand Equity Theory (SOBE)	Muzondo	Stakeholders.	- Academic / Conceptual - Empirical

Source: Author

### 3.40. Chapter Summary

This chapter consisted of four parts of a comprehensive literature review:

**Part A. Branding and Nation Branding.** The word brand relates to ‘to burn’ as brands were still the means livestock owners would use to identify their livestock. The elements of the brand include: brand equity, brand name, logos and symbols, characters, packaging, slogans, and jingles. The entire set of brand elements makes up the brand identity. Brand architecture deals with the structure and design of brands which are influenced continuously by changing the environment.

**Part B. Nation Branding Case Studies.** Nation branding cases covered some Central and Eastern European countries and selected Southern Africa countries. Most of these countries are moving away from a one-party system to pluralistic and democratic societies. These transitional States are in the first instances interested in their internal affairs and later in their external image globally.

**Part C. Measuring Nation Brand Equity Approaches / Macro Models.** Approaches differ in the way they measure and the components that make them. The strengths and their weaknesses also vary, and as such, one approach is not sufficient to measure the country or nation brand, because each index looks at different variables that it assumes to be important.

**Part D. Micro-Nation Branding Measurement Indexes.** Micro-Nation Branding Measurement indexes play a significant role in measuring a nation’s brand, although they tend to borrow certain traits and characteristics from the macro indexes. A case in point is the Complex Interdependencies of Country Brands model, which is a RBVE-

inspired operational model with some traits of Stakeholder-Based Nation Brand Equity model.

The next chapter will look at conceptualising Zimbabwe's nation branding experiences and challenges.

## **Chapter 4**

### **Conceptualising Zimbabwe's Nation Branding Experiences and Challenges**

#### **4.1. Introduction**

Nation branding can enhance a nation's overall image, whereby potential tourists, investors, students, potential buyers of products and services are attracted. Nation branding is thus a tool used by a country to remain competitive. Political and economic environments also affect a nation's image. Besides the importance of the political environment in formulating nation branding campaigns, the economic environment is also very instrumental, as Anholt (2007) has indicated. Nation branding campaigns also fail because of the detrimental impact that poverty, war, corruption, crime, and terrorism have upon a country.

This chapter provides an overview of Zimbabwe's nation branding, the approach that the country has taken in formulating its nation branding efforts, and the models that are used in measuring nation branding. The challenges that Zimbabwe has faced in the formulation and implementation of nation branding and the possible interventions will also be analysed.

#### **4.2. An Overview of Zimbabwe's Nation Branding**

Efforts to brand Zimbabwe were initiated during the Government of National Unity (GNU) in 2011. The initiative was introduced by the Deputy Prime Minister, Arthur Mutambara, who wanted to have a stakeholder-related nation branding initiative following stakeholder theory. However, this was never put into practice. The momentum for this initiative died with the expiration of the GNU in September 2013. This was a first attempt to have a coordinated nation branding effort. Previous nation branding efforts were made through different sectors, like tourism and investment (Hodgkinson, 2019). The Zimbabwe Tourism Authority undertook

nation branding related to tourism, whose efforts were meant to attract both local and international tourists. Likewise, investment promotion was undertaken by ZimTrade and the Zimbabwe Investment Authority. The mandate of ZimTrade was to promote exports, whereas that of Zimbabwe Investment Authority was to promote investment into the country. Both the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority and Zimbabwe Investment Authority (ZIA) are statutory bodies that spearheaded sector-related nation branding campaigns.

### **4.3. Challenges in the Branding Campaigns**

The branding campaign “Zimbabwe: Africa’s Paradise” became marred by images of economic hardships and sanctions, political power struggles and erratically enacted and enforced regulations and laws (Ndlovu & Heath, 2013). Not only was there a mismatch of the old brand with the situation that was prevailing in Zimbabwe from 2000-2008, but the branding campaign failed to promote Zimbabwe as a tourism destination, as the country continued to portray a negative image. As a result of all these problems, the campaign was re-branded in 2011 to “Zimbabwe: A World of Wonders”. The rebranding of the destination, hosting of events such as the Sanganai / Hlanganani travel expo and the implementation of the National Tourism policy in 2012 contributed positively to the efforts of the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA) to regain its lost markets in the regional, local, and international communities. However, this did not significantly address the country image problem. Zimbabwe’s image was badly damaged and had received many adverse safety reports in various international media.

The then President of Zimbabwe, Robert Gabriel Mugabe, criticised senior officials for invading and grabbing the lucrative safari holdings in the protected wildlife conservation and wildlife park (Victoria Falls Guide, 2021).

Due to the efforts of the ZTA, tourism campaigns being greatly affected by political activities, such efforts were counterproductive to initiatives of revamping the nation's image. The resultant political pressures also affected the destination marketing of Zimbabwe. Papadopoulos (2004) identifies a significant challenge facing destination branding as politics involved in the decision-making process. The issue revolves around who decides the brand theme and how they are held accountable is critical. Dinnie (2015) confirms this challenge by describing destination branding as a highly politicised activity.

Zimbabwe's nation branding campaigns relied on tourism which is one dimension of the Nation Brand Index by Anholt (2007). FutureBrand (2013) portrayed the same view, that tourism is generally considered to be the most visible manifestation of a country brand and perhaps the most valid measurement of a brand's effectiveness. Tourism has been both commended as key to all problems and the root of all societal evils. According to Zeinalpour et al. (2013), there are multiple factors that affect a country's image, thus employing a unilateral perspective to branding by using tourism will not only be flawed, but also ill-willed.

Zimbabwe's challenges are that its documented nation branding strategic plan lacks implementation and the political-will. This is unlike both South Africa and Kenya where their respective governments fund the entities Brand South Africa and Brand Kenya Board.

The diversity of stakeholders can prove counterproductive as separate sectors may emphasise different national themes. Multiple campaigns bring mixed messages that are a common pitfall in nation branding and can be confusing. Avraham (2016) notes that one of the primary frustrations for many destination marketers is their inability to control the elements of the destination product, as well as the marketing surrounding those elements.

Dinnie (2015) asks two pertinent questions surrounding the challenges encountered in place branding:

- i. Who has the legitimacy to act as the place brand manager?
- ii. Who should decide upon the brand values that underpin the brand strategy?

Various authorities on the field of branding attempt to address the two questions. Thus, as Anholt (2005) can assert, “a place brand by nature belongs to the place and its people”.

According to Morgan et al. (2013) a criticism of place branding is that there are too many stakeholders and too little management control. While Dinnie (2015) agrees with this view and admits that since place brand stakeholders are made up of an infinite number of groups, there is a problem of getting consensus among the stakeholders. This creates a long process of consulting, co-opting, and involving stakeholders, followed by a place’s personality is probably the toughest part of nation branding. Finding agreement, Riza et al. (2012) affirm that people believe that place branding is a confusing concept due to the lack of clear ownership and control over the place brand. Although stakeholders do nation branding, it calls for a concerted effort from all those involved. Jesca et al. (2014) explain that there is a fine balance to be struck between community consensus and brand theory and that a top-down approach to destination brand implementation is likely to fail. Even though there are some challenges in the stakeholder approach to nation branding, the shortcomings outweigh the advantages. Consequently, there is a need to adopt a stakeholder approach, but how the approach is implemented makes it a success or failure. According to Koteska and Poposki (2010), some of the challenges encountered in carrying out nation branding programmes are: the lack of strategic co-ordination, the lack financial and human resources, the lack consensus among the stakeholders, a late start, politicisation of the branding programme, the involvement of too

many government agencies, and the lack of continuity from one branding exercise to the next. This was the case in the ZTA branding campaigns, where there was an absence of follow-up campaigns, and a poor transition from “Zimbabwe: Africa’s Paradise” to “Zimbabwe’s World of Wonders”.

#### **4.4. Approaches and Models Used in Formulating and Implementing Nation**

##### **Branding**

Zimbabwe has been using one element of Anholt’s NBH in the formulation, and implementation of its nation branding campaigns with respect to tourism. Some of the tourism campaigns that were fielded by Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA) were: “Zimbabwe: Africa’s Paradise”; “Zimbabwe a World of Wonders”; Miss Tourism Zimbabwe and Miss Malaika Beauty Pageants and the Sanganai / Hlanganani travel expo, where both international and local sellers converged. While these promotions generated some publicity, it was not enough to spruce-up the image of the country (Mutana & Zinyemba, 2013).

In the 2013 Expo, the ZTA embarked on a vigorous campaign of marketing Zimbabwe to Africa. This was done through a National Tourism policy that was crafted by the Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality Industry, to guide the tourism sector’s development. The policy took cognisance that Zimbabwe has the potential of being a tourism development zone. This in turn enabled new opportunities to be opened such as cultural tourism, culinary tourism, medical tourism, industrial tourism, mega-eventing, agro-tourism, sports tourism, township tourism and heritage tourism (Moyo & Woyo, 2018).

Some researchers however expressed their disdain of such branding campaigns, expressing the view that Zimbabwe was using an elitist theory, clearly revealed in the signing into law in March, 2008 of the Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment Act. The elitist approach is

when public policy is not influenced by the needs and actions of ordinary citizens, but by the ruling elites whose preferences are put into effect by public officials and agencies (Yalkin, 2018). Resource allocation decisions are frequently based on political power, score-settling, 'log rolling' and other hidden agendas that have nothing to do with the interests of different stakeholders (Tregear & Gorton, 2009).

Although the work towards building such a strategy was initiated in 2009 by the then Office of Deputy Prime Minister, Arthur Mutambara, the inclusive government's economic blueprint (Short Term Emergency Recovery Programme) had highlighted that the country's image, especially the country's tourism in the source markets needed to be improved (Garikai, 2014). This also concurred with the national budget statement that said that there was a need to rebrand the country's tourism (Government of Zimbabwe, 2012). The remarks made by the then Deputy Prime Minister's office on nation branding was an attempt to start designing a nation branding plan for Zimbabwe.

In 2018, the Office of the President and Cabinet hosted a nation branding stakeholder meeting in a bid to formulate a nation branding strategy. The department of Public Affairs and Knowledge Management headed by Ambassador Marry Mubi took over the Nation Branding project that was under the Ministry of Environment, Tourism and Hospitality. The thrust of the nation branding strategy was to lure visitors and investors to the country through government and private institutions. This initiative was critical for engagement and re-engagement of new trade and investment policies and reform with the international community. The nation branding initiative was to follow the nation branding hexagon (NBH). However, its focus had four additional areas that included: infrastructure and utilities, economic activities, programmes and schemes, education, and health. The nation branding initiative was to follow

a wider stakeholder approach. These would include: the public and private sectors, the youth, women, people with disabilities, academics, relevant professional associations, traditional leaders, church leaders and Zimbabwean Diaspora Group. The nation branding initiative was meant to use the “Zimbabwe is Open for Business” mantra ([www.pressreader.com/zimbabwe/the-herald-zimbabwe](http://www.pressreader.com/zimbabwe/the-herald-zimbabwe)). But once again, the initiative failed to be operationalised.

#### **4.5. Strategic Issues that need to be addressed in Order to Improve Zimbabwe’s Brand**

As has been noted, Zimbabwe has had challenges concerning its image, which has been negative for almost two decades. The challenges include: a failing economic system, political instability, the failure to attract foreign direct investment, policy inconsistencies, governance-related problems, and a dilapidated infrastructure. For the past two decades, the Zimbabwe situation has been marred by the political, environmental, and economic meltdown. This has led to poverty, inequality among citizens, hunger, environmental degradation, and the infrastructure lacked maintenance. This resulted in a negative perception of Zimbabwe as a nation and tourist destination.

On the tourism front, the ZTA’s “Zimbabwe: Africa’s Paradise” campaign was marred by images of economic hardships and sanctions, political power struggles and erratically enacted and enforced regulations and laws (Chibaya, 2013). Other players in destination branding felt that factors like the history of the country, its culture, language, politics and economic systems, social institutions, infrastructure, and famous people, were strategic issues that needed to be considered when branding a country such as Zimbabwe.

By acknowledging that destination branding is not merely a rational marketing activity, but also a political act that is based on issues such as local pride, dignity and sustainable

development, most governments have adopted this strategy to facilitate the growth of a country (Daszkiewicz, 2017). Zimbabwe is viewed as a magnificent tourist destination that has been caught up in a political dilemma and greed of the political leadership (Ndlovu & Heath, 2013). As Momo (2017) has also noted, governments today are tasked with the economic and political developments of their countries, and therefore, they should attempt to run the country as efficiently and effectively as possible. This was emphasised by the then German Ambassador to Zimbabwe, Dr Albrecht Conze, who pointed out that Zimbabwe needed rebranding to give it a positive image, and for this rebranding drive to succeed, the country needed to generate a positive story of itself first. This means that a positive image starts from within, and that is the Government of Zimbabwe must kick-start positive activities that might be seen by outsiders and in turn, make them report positively about Zimbabwe.

Most governments are starting to understand that no country will be able to ignore the way that other countries perceive them (Durand, 2016). In a time of political, economic, and social challenges, effective and efficient nation branding may be a panacea to these challenges. It may bring the required national economic development, social cohesion, and an improved standard of living for the country's citizens. This is supported by Eppel (2012) who opined that the signing of the Global Peace Agreement (GPA) between the Zimbabwe African National Union (ZANU-PF) and other opposition parties in Zimbabwe ushered in the Government of National Unity (GNU) in February 2009, which had the sole mandate of reviving the economy and ensuring peace and stability in the country. The chief priorities of the GNU were to rebrand the country to restore the country's relations with other countries, promote trade and investments and revitalise the economy.

The GNU period brought political stability, economic growth and the country experienced an economic recovery. During this period, there were economic reforms that included the introduction of the multi-currency regime and the cash budget. These instruments helped to restore macroeconomic stability and supported an emerging economic recovery. Under the Short-Term Emergency Recovery Programme (STERP), real GDP grew by 5.7% in 2009 and is estimated to have risen by about 8% in 2010 compared to a decline of about 14% in 2008 (Tarisayi, 2012). The tourism industry also registered its first growth in a decade. This was because of political stability that was being experienced in the country. The industry grew by an estimated 6.5% in 2009. Since the onset of the economic crisis, the performance of the sector had been adversely affected by the country's image internationally and the increase in the number of travel warnings issued against Zimbabwe.

The financial services sector also benefitted from the GNU. The general public had lost faith in the sector which resulted in many people resorting to avoiding banking their hard-earned money. Total bank industry dollar deposits grew rapidly, reaching US\$ 1.35 billion by December 2009 and US\$ 2.3 billion by September 2010 from US\$ 2976 million as at 31 January 2009 (Chigora & Guzura, 2011). There was fiscal discipline during the GNU period, which was imposed through strict adherence to a cash budget halting the RBZ's quasi-fiscal activities.

From the activities mentioned above, it can be established that politics is a strategic factor that is paramount in nation branding as it can affect every facet of the nation branding components. A country can be associated with particular benefits. These benefits act as a cue for decision-making regarding purchases (Fetscherin, 2010). The perceived value of a place is affected by

a country's commerce, politics, culture, sport, science, and tourism. Radu (2015) points out that governments are tasked with the economic and political development of their countries.

The post-GNU era has been characterised by contradictory political undertones, both inter-party and intra-party, which has harmed the image of the country and has been labelled as unfavourable by foreign potential visitors and investors alike.

The findings by Mugobo and Wakeham (2014) reveal that most Zimbabweans acknowledged that the country's image internationally was negative. Foreign visitors have attributed this perception to their personal experiences in the country, and information emanating from the media about developments in the country. Zimbabwe has been negatively portrayed in both local and international media, and this has damaged the country's reputation as a destination for tourists and inward investment. This notion concurs with the views of Kotler and Gertner (2010), who assert that the media is a heavy-weight when it comes to influencing people's image about places and countries. Mugobo and Wakeham (2014) further argue that the successful rebranding of the country should have the transformation of the country's international image as one of the critical objectives of the process. For a positive image to be attained, the media should report positively about the country.

The Zimbabwe government perceive the independent media to be hostile to the country's policies and programmes. For a positive image to be achieved, there is a need for both the local and international media to engage and formulate a mutually-beneficial relationship that is built on trust and common interests. The negative perceptions of Zimbabwe on the international market also corroborate with the results of the 2011 Country Brand Index (CBI) produced by FutureBrand (2013). This index ranked Zimbabwe at 112 globally which is the second last position on the index, while Pakistan occupies the last position. In Africa, the same

index ranks Zimbabwe at number 23 of 52 countries. Zimbabwe's position on the CBI indicates that the country is viewed negatively by an international audience and the country is classified in the same category with other "rogue and unruly" States such as Pakistan and Afghanistan (Mugobo & Wakeham, 2014). The major challenge is that Zimbabwe's political environment is polarised; the nation is divided along political, religious, and ethnic dimensions.

One other strategic factor is infrastructure. Zimbabwe's road and rail infrastructure are in a deplorable state. Infrastructure is deteriorating rapidly, thus constraining investment and eroding competitiveness. Road, air transport, the rail network, electricity, and urban water supplies need attention (Government of Zimbabwe, 2016). Over the past two decades, the technical, operational, and financial performance of the National Railways of Zimbabwe (NRZ) has been adversely affected by the instabilities in the Zimbabwean economy. There is a critical shortage of foreign currency for the procurement of essential items such as fuel and spare parts. As a State-owned enterprise, the NRZ cannot respond to market dynamics. This culminated in the loss of network capacity leading to reduced traffic, revenues, and reduced availability of funds for infrastructure maintenance. The dilapidated state of rail infrastructure has resulted in some significant accidents and derailments across the country (Government of Zimbabwe, 2016). All State-run institutions across Zimbabwe are in a deplorable state.

Legal and policy issues are strategic matters that need redress for the country to return to normalcy. In March 2008, the Zimbabwe Government enacted the Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment Act, which was meant to empower the indigenous youth and communities. The implementation of the policy and proclamation of relevant supporting legislation has prompted an unplanned economic slowdown. Many companies closed because

they could not meet the demands of the new Act. Hence, many people were rendered jobless and turned to the informal sector for survival.

The Indigenisation Economic Empowerment (IEEA) General Notice 114 of 2011 provides for indigenisation in the mining sector by requiring businesses operating in the sector to dispose of 51% equity to designated entities. The indigenisation policy, as reflected in the IEEA unambiguously insists that all foreign-owned companies with a share capital above US\$ 500 000 operating in Zimbabwe are to cede 51% of their shares to indigenous Zimbabweans. Furthermore, a number of economic sectors have been reserved for indigenous business which will be allowed to invest in the reserved sector unless under exceptional circumstances as determined by line Ministries and approved by Zimbabwe's cabinet. The implementation of the Act was left to the Minister of Youth Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment. As a result, different Ministers on this portfolio interpreted the Act differently, and thus policy inconsistencies occurred. The then Minister of Youth, Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment (2016) allegedly steadfastly objected to attracting Foreign Direct Investment in favour of promoting an exclusive indigenisation agenda. However, his pronouncements were refuted by the then Minister of Finance (2016) who stated that there was need to introduce framework templates and procedures for implementing the indigenisation policy in a manner that both promotes investment and eliminates the discretionary application of the law. Such measures will contribute immensely towards the ease of doing business in the country and will render the service sector of our country conducive for Foreign Direct Investment (Government of Zimbabwe, 2016).

The former Finance Minister's pronouncements appear to have been an attempt at reconciling differences between the government of Zimbabwe and the International Monetary Fund (IMF),

as well as the World Bank (WB) due to the implementation of the IEEA. The Finance Minister's views were then amplified by the then President Robert Mugabe's public pronouncements regarding the need to implement indigenisation laws in a manner that does not frustrate foreign investors especially those in the banking sector (*The Herald*, 2016).

The country's pieces of legislation such as POSA and AIPPA, limit the right of citizens to freedom of expression and association. Many citizens have been arrested and tortured for not complying with this legislation. Importantly therefore, there is a need to create an environment that allows citizens to freely participate and contribute to national discourse without fear of arrest by the authorities. This recommendation corroborates Anholt's (2007) view that the creation of a common purpose in the country leads to the establishment of a competitive identity for the nation brand. The presence of such an environment ultimately facilitates the democratisation of the country and provides all citizens the privilege to participate in the socio-economic and political affairs of the country.

Between June and September of 2016, Zimbabwe witnessed social unrest reminiscent of the 1998 food riots, which were characterised by a wave of demonstrations, protests, stayaways, and a national shutdown across most cities and towns. The social unrest emanated from unresolved national grievances over corruption and the deterioration of social and economic conditions. Social movements like #ThisFlag, #Occupy Africa Unity Square, National Vendors Union of Zimbabwe, #Tajamuka/Sesijikile and others, were unamused by the government's unresponsive stance to formal and informal complaint mechanisms. This resulted in the mobilisation of its citizens to make their voices heard by protesting the Government's power, poor governance, and lack of accountability (Musarurwa, 2016). The police responded by arresting the organisers and detaining them at Chikurubi Maximum

Security Prison, located on the outskirts of the country's capital, Harare, where some were tortured.

The Zimbabwe Republic Police (ZRP) has consistently shown disrespect and contempt for the law, lawyers, and judicial authorities, thereby seriously interfering with the administration of justice and the rule of law (IBAHRI, 2007). The grave abuses by the ZRP, that were noted by the International Bar Association Human Rights Institute (IBAHRI), were aggravated by a prevailing culture of impunity which made members of the police force to act as if they were above the law. They were and are still rarely prosecuted even when they commit the most serious of crimes. Thus, police officers who have been identified in court proceedings as responsible for serious violation of the law, including torture continue to occupy their positions (IBAHRI, 2007). The police repeatedly characterise government opponents, critics, and their lawyers as enemies of the State and routinely violate the rights of these persons during policing operations. Biased policing further polarises Zimbabwean society and heightens insecurity and political tensions (IBAHRI, 2007).

Bribery and corruption have become rampant. According to Transparency International's (2011) survey, Zimbabwe was ranked 154 out of 182 countries in terms of corruption. The ZRP was top on the list as the most corrupt establishment and stood out as the major recipient of bribes among service providers in Zimbabwe (Sokwanele, 2012). The increase of police roadblocks across the country has led to growing frustration among road users and has damaged the image of the police, and in turn that of the country.

The appointment of High Court judges with an allegiance to the ruling party ZANU-PF during the Fast-Track Land Reform Programme, adversely affected property rights and the administration of the rule of law, leading to the economic downfall of the country (Matondi,

2012; Kotler & Armstrong, 2015). Laws should protect property rights, but should not be applied selectively to citizens of the country. Government interference in property rights with a bias towards certain citizens affects the economy of the country. This opinion is supported by Freixanet (2012), who is of the view that if a property right is insecure, investments will fall. This discourages the investors from investing in the country. In other words, if the law is applied uniformly, secure, and stable property rights in the country will be promoted. Unfortunately, the implementation of Fast-Track Land Reform Programme resulted in lawlessness and the breakdown of the rule of law, as perpetrators were not prosecuted and the Constitution of Zimbabwe denied victims protection.

The 'breadbasket of Africa' status of Zimbabwe was also affected by the land reform. Zimbabwe is now dependent on neighbouring countries for grain and cereals from the countries that were once dependent on it prior to the agrarian reform. Munyoro et al. (2018) thus assert that Zimbabwe provides a compelling case study of the dangers of ignoring the rule of law and property rights when implementing land reforms.

Policy clarity on the Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment Act needs refinement. This will encourage investment in the country. Most investors are pulling back because of violations of property rights and the rule of law. The implementation of acts such as expropriation, confiscation, nationalisation, and domestication to deal with multinational companies felt not toeing the line, affects the business environment of the country. Thus, legal and policy reforms in Zimbabwe are also urgently required if the country is to return to normalcy. There is a need for reforms that provide citizens with adequate freedom to participate in national economic development and free and fair elections; and reforms that accord them the right to freedom of expression, freedom of association, and the free exchange of ideas, as well as reforms that

create an independent judiciary system. When these strategic factors are addressed, the country's image improves, and a climate for re-engagement with the country's former colonial countries is facilitated.

#### **4.6. Key Factors That Influence Zimbabwe's Image**

##### 4.6.1. Country Image

Lisboa (2013) describes country image as an overall image that is constituted by factors such as: products, economic and political development, historical events, relationships, traditions, and level of industrialisation and of technological development. Country image is the summation of all the activities that take place in each country as perceived by outsiders (Lisboa, 2013). Anholt (2008) views the country image as a set of normative inferred and informational beliefs of the individuals of a country. Finally, Hall (1999) considers it as a model that is used to judge the perceptions or opinions of both locals and foreigners about a country.

The people's perceptions or opinions about a country can be objective or subjective, as well as diverse and generalised. The images held by different groups of people about the same place can differ depending on the person's own needs, motivation, prior knowledge, and preference (Anholt, 2008).

##### 4.6.2. Elements of Country Image

Elements that constitute a country image include history, geography, art, culture, climate music, citizens, and personal attributes. Media and entertainment industry is arguably cited to be a significant vehicle in constructing cues of country image (Kotler & Keller, 2011). Psychological and social factors determine personal attributes. Psychological factors include

motivations, value, and personality. Social factors include the background of the person, education, and age (Riza et al., 2012).

Geographical location is crucial as it influences consumers when making decisions on destination marketing (Dobrucalı, 2019). Regarding tourist destinations, tourists in the European region are more attracted to travel to closer destinations that meet their needs than to destinations that are not easily accessible. The geopolitical atmosphere and local politics may influence the accessibility of the country, as well as the overall image of a given country or destination. For example, in Zimbabwe during the late President Robert Mugabe's era, some visitors shunned Zimbabwe as a destination because they did not accept his political views and ideology. As a result, the flow of tourists from the West declined during this period.

Political accessibility refers to immigration conditions under which foreigners (tourists) are regulated to visit the country. Complicated country accessibility in terms of tourist visa procedures, levying costly visas, and intricate procedures, contribute largely to discouraging a destination image. Zimbabwe requests visitors from the UK to obtain an entry visa before they travel to Zimbabwe. This element has affected the number of tourist arrivals from the UK.

Another element of the country image is climate and culture. People from colder climates are prone to travel to warmer and sunnier destinations. Holiday seekers from the West are venturing into the African safari to explore sites that are not common in their part of the world. Globalisation is fuelling a homogeneous culture. Many tourists are revisiting remarkable heritage sites to recapture lost culture and practices. Cases in point include Egypt and Italy that are respected for their profound heritage sites and rich history.

Distance decay is another element of the country image. This implies the tendency of inbound tourism flows to decline as default regions become further distant from the destination (Lacka,

2020). The country's politics primarily influence distance decay effects. Hence, Durand (2016) discovered in his study that the distance between home and the target market affects the international market strategy of a destination marketing organisation.

#### 4.6.3. Six Image Situations

Kotler and Armstrong (2015) describe the six image situations that need to be identified by place marketers before developing a destination marketing strategy. These image situations include positive, weak, harmful, contradictory, overly attractive, and mixed.

- i. **Positive Image.** Destinations bestowed with natural endowments usually foster a positive image. Venice in Italy and Serengeti in East Africa have natural heritage beauty. Such places do not need effort in image building as the sites have favourable images. However, failure to sustain other country image elements such as politics or crime can damage the overall image of a country.
- ii. **Weak Image.** Some destinations are less popular than others because some places are small, have fewer attractions or are ravaged with wars, crime, and other disturbances. Places with weak images need to create vibrant campaigns for increasing visibility.
- iii. **Negative Image.** Many places are hampered with negative image(s) despite the positive attributes they currently possess. For example, Columbia has been coined the city of drugs, and despite being endowed with natural beauty, South Africa is perceived as a destination of violence and crime. Zimbabwe is also perceived negatively by investors as a country rife with corruption and not embracing the rule of law and property rights. Investors therefore do not feel safe to select Zimbabwe as a safe investment destination. The city or country whose image is marred with stigma should

consider identifying and exploiting positive images in their marketing strategy (Kotler & Armstrong, 2015).

- iv. **Mixed Images.** This refers to a destination that simultaneously bears a positive and negative image. For example, while San Francisco is appealing to visitors, at the same time, it has frequent catastrophic natural disasters. Similarly, the State of New South Wales in Australia is appealing to tourists, but is prone to wild bush fires that may ravage extensive hectares of virgin land.
- v. **Contradictory Image.** These are destinations that are wrongly perceived based on misconceptions and perceptions received by an individual or group of people. For example, some perceive the State of Virginia as a safe tourist destination, while others perceive the opposite.
- vi. **Overly Attractive Image.** Some places are thought to be exceptionally attractive might indirectly hinder their tourism image. For example, the consequence of desirable destinations like Paris and Spain is that they find themselves experiencing congestion, pollution, and other crime-related factors, all of which may turn away visitors.

#### 4.6.4. Country Image Elements Related to Zimbabwe

##### 4.6.4.1. *Politics and Political Speeches*

Zimbabwe has been experiencing a negative image from the West for more than a decade. The land issue, that is, the arbitrary distribution of land, which culminated into a heated disagreement between Zimbabwe government and the UK, led to verbal attacks between the late President Robert Mugabe and then British Prime Minister, Tony Blair. This contributed to the negative image of Zimbabwe. In one of his speeches, President Mugabe once said,

“Blair, keep your little England and let me keep my Zimbabwe”. Such speeches by politicians contribute to the negative publicity of a nation.

Fujishin (2019) observes that there are three different purposes for why people use rhetoric. These include: to reinforce an already held belief, the change of an opinion, and to motivate the recipient to act. This situation is presented when the USA and the EU placed financial sanctions against Zimbabwe. Instantly, President Mugabe’s image was at risk. As the person who had created the scenario for the sanctions, he responded by making political rhetorical speeches to repair his image. In these speeches, he accused the USA and UK as the ones who created a situation that resulted in Zimbabwe being imposed with financial sanctions.

According to Mugabe, sanctions had hidden motives that were far from being motivated by the love of Africans. He alleged that the real reason was to weaken his government and further the interests of the Western governments. Again, speaking in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia on 25 February 2003 at the Non-Aligned Movement Summit, President Mugabe explicitly attacked the imperialist ideology which he perceived to be driving sanctions on Zimbabwe. President Mugabe said that colonialism now assumes a varied form and seeks to garner countries in the developing world to become globally ‘villagized’ under false economic pretences.

The Zimbabwean media is divided into public and private media. The general media is State-owned and covers views of the State favourably, whereas the independent media covers opinions of the opposition. To get balanced news, one must read both publications. Voss and Mohan (2016) stress that news is not neutral, but is a sequence of socially-manufactured messages which carry many of the culturally dominant assumptions of our society. Diers-Lawson and Tomaino (2010) attribute the lack of neutrality to institutional bindings because news is always reported from some angle. From the Zimbabwean perspective, the media has

contributed to political polarisation. All media that are public like Zimpapers and ZBC tend to follow the ruling party's ideology. Factors that affect the selection of news are the ownership of the medium, advertising concerns, the relationship targeted by the medium, and the ideologies embraced by the editorial board.

Without being personally biased, the media tend to reproduce a dominant political outlook in the way they present their news. Developed countries view smaller nations with negativity and are biased in their reporting. This is supported by Zeinalpour et al. (2013) regarding smaller nations, who point out that the expectation of international countries is negative. The news of such nations tends to conform to a model reinforcing the reasons for these countries' backwardness, crises, criminality, and corruption. The negative media publicity Zimbabwe received during the past two decades has contributed to a negative brand image of the country. This has affected tourist arrivals from the country's traditional markets, like the USA and UK (Radu, 2015).

#### 4.6.4.2. *Corruption*

Corruption is defined as the violation of formal rules governing the allocation of public resources by officials in response to offers for financial gain or political support (Aven, 2012). Chene (2015) notes that corruption has risen to unprecedented levels in Zimbabwe. Zimbabwe is among the world's top 25 most corrupt countries in the world, a fact confirmed by Transparency International (2016). In 2012, it was ranked 163 out of 176 countries surveyed. In 2011, Zimbabwe had an overall ranking of 154 out of 182 countries assessed on a scale of 0 (highly corrupt) to 10 (very clean), the Corruption Perception Index for 2012 marked 2.0. This indicates an upward trend in corruption since 1999 when the country ranked 41. Corruption issues have surfaced in the media from institutions such as education, health, sports, and

agriculture, private and civil sectors, among others. This signifies that corruption has become endemic within the political, private, and public sectors in Zimbabwe.

Corruption in Zimbabwe, whose occurrences span from the general citizens to the public office holders and private sector, comes in different forms. At the highest level there is political corruption. According to Chene (2015), corruption is the greatest threat to good governance in many dictatorships and nascent democracies as it involves the use of power by politicians and government for illegitimate purposes. The Zimbabwe National Competitiveness Report of 2015 (WEF, 2015) indicates that corruption is one of the worst problematic areas of doing business in Zimbabwe. The historical corruption cases in Zimbabwe include scandals such as ‘Willow gate’ in the early 1980s, the Grain Marketing Board (GMB) in the late 1980s and the National Oil Company of Zimbabwe (NOCZIM) in early 2000 (Mwatwara & Mujere, 2015)

The cost of corruption can be understood in four areas:

- i. Political cost in terms of affecting democracy and the rule of law;
- ii. Economic cost by depleting national wealth;
- iii. Social cost by undermining people’s trust in political systems.
- iv. Its leadership and environment costs in the form of environmental degradation (Dancikova, 2012; Hamdani et al., 2017).

The above four corruption scenarios are prevalent in Zimbabwe and have greatly affected the image of Zimbabwe. Hence, Zimbabwe’s wealth is in the hands of a few elites who are politically well-connected (Transparency International, 2015). According to the African Development Bank and the US-based think tank Global Financial Integrity, Zimbabwe has lost a cumulative US\$ 12 billion between 1980 and 2010 through illicit financial outflows ranging from secret deals and illegal commercial activities (African Development Bank, 2018).

Corruption takes a variety of forms in Zimbabwe, ranging from petty and bureaucratic to grand forms of corruption involving high-level officials. Corruption also manifests itself through a deeply entrenched system of political patronage, tight grip of the ruling party on major economic activities and the security forces, and the history of political violence, repression, and manipulation (Transparency International, 2015).

The collapse of Zimbabwe's economy since 2000 has resulted in a decline of resources for public services and administration. Low salaries in Zimbabwe, especially in the large public service, inefficient, bureaucracy and impenetrability of the overall regulatory environment are fuelling bureaucracy in the public service. Citizens and companies resort to petty and bureaucratic corrupt tendencies such as bribery and corruption, to speed up burdensome bureaucratic processes to access services. Grand corruption is practised through abuse of high-level power that benefits the few at the expense of the majority and causes serious and widespread harm to individuals and society. In Zimbabwe, some of the grand corruption cases that have been detected and exposed include an illegal housing project which built houses for senior government officials at the expense of the general populace, cases of unexplained illicit enrichment of high-ranking officials, and misuse of public assets, such as the Zimbabwe Iron and Steel Company (Anti-Corruption Trust of Southern Africa, 2019). Some State development projects are diverted into personal projects of political leadership (Saunders, 2019). In Zimbabwe, a significant number of potential investors end up investing in neighbouring countries only because of the high level of corruption locally. A case in point is the Nigerian billionaire, Aliko Dangote, who ended up investing in Zambia because of the high level of corruption in Zimbabwe.

#### 4.6.4.3. *Governance*

Governance is the exercise of economic, political, and administrative authority to manage a country's affairs at all levels. It comprises mechanisms, processes, and institutions through which groups articulate their interests, exercise their legal rights, meet their obligations, and mediate their differences (UNDP, 2016). This definition outlines legitimacy and participation and legality as essential aspects of governance. The World Bank defines governance as to how power is exercised in the management of a country's economic and social resources for development. In the modern era, governance is said to be inclined towards policy issues that are less coercive, and the State plays a significant role in establishing national goals and leading the society and economy. The aim of governance is ultimately to articulate and align the needs and interests of citizens and establish a social contract that binds different segments together for the development of the entire society (UNESCO, 2018).

The governance situation prevailing in Zimbabwe reflects a sharp contrast to the commonly agreed definitions and characteristics of governance. The government has reneged on its mandate to take care of citizens, through committing human rights violations, police brutality and lack of freedom of expression, freedom of assembly and freedom of association. These acts, which Tendi (2013) refers to as the main sociological problems, signify the existence of weaker governance systems in the country, and by extension, poor governance. Accordingly, Zimbabweans have been subjected to gross violations of property rights including State-sponsored expropriation and vandalism, corrupt politicians, restrictive business regulations, and an unjust and unfriendly monetary policy.

At Independence, the ZANU-PF government inherited a country that had a well-built infrastructure, an enviable financial sector. In the 1970s, the country had sound mining,

agriculture, and manufacturing sectors, and a thriving economy (Zamchiya, 2013). After 2000 President Mugabe's policies contributed to a lack of governance and misrule, lack of property rights, and gross human rights abuses. The implementation of the Fast-Track Land Reform Programme triggered animosity between Zimbabwe and the UK. The Fast-Track Land Reform Programme resulted in the displacement of White Zimbabwean farmers, making many farmworkers unemployed. Some of the displaced White farmers were harassed, tortured, and even killed. The flagrant violation of democratic governance principles caused the country to attain a low perception of governance matters which are commonly measured using African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM) and Worldwide Governance Indicators (WGI) instruments. The WGI comprises six clusters that include: voice and accountability; political stability and absence of violence/terrorism; government effectiveness; regulating quality; rule of law; and control of corruption. These in turn are characterised by four governance outcome dimensions: responsive governance; fair (equitable) governance; responsible governance; and accountable governance (UNDP, 2016). Zimbabwe is found wanting on each of the clusters on the WGI. The country has a bad reputation on the right to freedom of expression, freedom of association and human rights abuses emanating from security service brutality. Evidence can be seen from the August 2018 post-election violence in which demonstrators and innocent civilians were subjected to live ammunition by the army. In January 2019, again the army and the police clashed with civilians on the demonstrations that were triggered by the increase of fuel prices. Since the formation of the main opposition party, the Movement for Democratic Change (MDC) in 1999, Zimbabwe had not experienced political stability except during the GNU period when relative tranquillity prevailed. The service delivery system has been rendered ineffective because of the human capital flight of civil servants with critical skills to neighbouring countries and abroad, in search of well remunerating jobs.

The government of Zimbabwe has reasonable regulations on paper. However, the country is deemed too regulated as many people do not easily access different services because of overregulation and bureaucracy. This situation has paved the way for the emergence of corrupt tendencies which have become the order of the day, despite the existence of the Zimbabwe Anti-corruption Commission. Most Zimbabweans believe that the body is a toothless bulldog, as more high-profile cases of corruption are going unpunished, save for a few who will have fallen out of favour with the authorities.

In terms of the rule of law, the selective application of the law has made Zimbabwean government's ability to maintain the rule of law, highly questionable. Since the commonly agreed principles of good governance depend on the rule of law, responsiveness, consensus, political stability, democratic participation, government efficiency, accountability and equity, transparency and human rights, the situation prevailing in Zimbabwe resembles a country experiencing an environment that lacks good governance.

#### 4.6.4.4. *Infrastructure*

Infrastructure relates to all public capital investment to specific investment in the construction, repair and maintenance of fixed capital assets or facilities (Chirisa et al., 2014). The term infrastructure implies productivity associated with public expenditure. Infrastructure services, such as power, transport, and telecommunication, are central to economic development (Chirisa et al., 2014). Infrastructure represents, if not the 'engine', then the wheels of economic activity (Kanyenze et al., 2011).

A well-established and developed infrastructure has a high inclination towards investment. Through some virtuous cycle, investment leads to job creation and poverty reduction, hence improved quality of life for citizens. On the contrary, poor infrastructure discourages private

investment, both domestic and foreign, opening a Pandora's box of poverty (Ortega Díaz, 2011).

Infrastructure, which is considered a vital component of the investment climate, reduces the costs of doing business and enables people to access markets. Investments in infrastructure are critical to advances in agriculture and fundamental to human development, including the delivery of health and education services to poor people. Infrastructure has an enormous untapped potential for the creation of productive employment.

At Independence, Zimbabwe inherited a sound infrastructure from the colonial regime. Due however to the lack of timely maintenance, the rate of deterioration was extremely high. There was low budgetary support for infrastructural replacement, and this made it difficult for Zimbabwe to maintain and rehabilitate its existing infrastructure. The country became immersed in economic and political turmoil in the late 1990s, which led to a generalised lack of new investment in nearly all sectors.

The poor state of roads has worsened to the point that Zimbabwe has become a blockage on the North-South transport passageway (AICD, 2019). Roads in the rural areas have become impassable, leading to connectivity challenges, while electricity power has become unjustifiably expensive, inefficient, and erratic, posing significant risks to the country's economy. The maintenance and upgrade of existing power infrastructure is no longer affordable. The intermittent power supply in the mines results in loss of output and idle labour, as well as extra costs related to recommencing the mining operation when power returns are incurred. Zimbabwe's power infrastructure is starved of new investment, and there has been no generation infrastructure expansion since 1988 (African Development Bank, 2019). In addition, power transmission and distribution networks have been greatly affected by damage

and theft. A case in point is Hwange Power Station, the largest coal-fired power facility in Zimbabwe, located in Matabeleland North Province, in the western part of the country, which is operating at 35% capacity, leaving Zimbabwe depending on its neighbours for coal and electricity imports to satisfy power demand. The inadequacy of the country's electricity supply system is reflected in the frequent load-shedding programmes that have disrupted the normal functioning of industry across the country.

The problems of the deterioration and insufficiency of infrastructure in Zimbabwe are the result of bad management, corruption, and poor maintenance of investments, for example, in the case of parastatals like the Zimbabwe Electricity Supply Authority and the National Railways of Zimbabwe in the 1980s (Malinga, 2017). The vandalization of equipment, sometimes for no apparent reason, has contributed to the deterioration of infrastructure like irrigation equipment (Munyoro et al., 2018).

The decline in Zimbabwe's economy has directly or indirectly affected the state of infrastructure in Zimbabwe. The downward trend was set when 60 000 liberation war veterans were each awarded Z\$ 50 000, plus other benefits, on 14 November 1997, (Black Friday), and when Zimbabwean troops were sent to the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), in August 1998, thereby spending Z\$ 6 billion of unbudgeted public funds as a direct cost to the war effort, excluding expenditure on military equipment (Asante, 2013). The downward trend of the economy that has affected the state of infrastructure was also set in the year 2000 when the Fast-Track Land Reform Programme was initiated.

There is a need for an urgent rehabilitation and expansion of power stations and the construction of road networks and upgrades to water and sewer infrastructure. Currently, the cost of doing business is very high because of a dilapidated and ill-maintained infrastructure.

For example, manufacturing companies are incurring huge transport costs of coal to fire their plants from Hwange Power Station. The Zimbabwe railroad infrastructure has been destroyed over the years, and the rail system is grossly malfunctioning. The quality of Zimbabwe railroad and road administration was ranked by the World Economic Forum at 86 and 116 respectively out of 137 in 2018 (African Development Bank, 2019). Some of the challenges that the railways have experienced include: deteriorating tracks, obsolete signalling system, theft of operating equipment, and low locomotive and wagon availability.

Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) infrastructure is of importance to enhance ease of doing business and investment prospects. Despite the numerous benefits of ICT, Zimbabwe is lagging-behind other developing-world countries in harnessing ICT infrastructure. There is a considerable loss of opportunities for the full benefit of ICT infrastructure. This is because of inadequate utilisation, the absence of collaboration, networking, better services, efficiency, and effectiveness (Matsieli & Sooryamoorthy, 2021; Nkala & Ngulube, 2012). A robust ICT infrastructure is needed to enhance the economy. The digitalisation of the economy is needed to lure investors and new investment in the country. Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) has propelled the economies globally, making them knowledge-based. This has improved the speed at which transportation of goods and services is done, reducing transactions costs, and increasing productivity, thereby improving international competitiveness (COMESA, 2015). According to the Global Competitiveness Index, Zimbabwe is lagging-behind other developing-world countries in ICT with a ranking of 136 out of 139.

#### **4.7. Chapter Summary**

This chapter presents the nature of Zimbabwe's nation branding experiences and challenges. The branding campaigns carried by Zimbabwe to date were examined, for strategic issues that need to be addressed to improve Zimbabwe's brand include infrastructure upgrade and maintenance, policy clarity and revision, improvement in human rights and property rights. The chapter also looked at key factors that influence Zimbabwe's image.

The next chapter will examine the research methodology utilised in the research study.

## Chapter 5

### Research Methodology

#### 5.1. Introduction

This chapter covers the methodology for the research on developing a nation brand measurement framework for Zimbabwe. The five objectives of the research study were:

- i. To examine the strategic issues that need to be addressed to improve Zimbabwe's nation brand;
- ii. To determine the key factors that influence Zimbabwe's image;
- iii. To evaluate the dimensions of nation brand measurement indexes;
- iv. To establish the commonly used index for measuring nation brand image;
- v. To determine the critical dimensions to be included in developing Zimbabwe's nation brand measurement framework.

The chapter sequentially looks at the research philosophy, research design, research strategy, population of the study, sampling frame, and sampling techniques and procedure. The chapter also looks at sample size, data sources, research instruments, data collection, validity and reliability, ethical considerations, and data analysis and presentation. Lastly, the chapter provides a comprehensive summary of the key points discussed in the chapter.

#### 5.2. Research Philosophy

Kuvunja and Kuyini (2017), Saunders et al. (2016), and Creswell (2015), identify and describe four major philosophical worldviews. These are: constructivism, pragmatism, post-positivism and advocacy / participatory. This present study adopted a post-positivist epistemology approach to all interaction of external reality and internal perception / mediation. Post-

positivism holds a deterministic view where it recognises causal relationships for understanding those elements which on the one hand are unpredictable, and on the other, are uncertain (Creswell, 2015). The post-positivist epistemology is deemed appropriate in the study because of its ability to test a hypothesis, as well as to provide an in-depth understanding of how the different variables are to be included in developing Zimbabwe's nation brand measurement framework.

The research study was largely undertaken according to a value-free and etic approach where the researcher maintained an objective or neutral stance and hence was independent of the data (Wahyuni, 2021). The assumption of post-positivism epistemology was necessary as the research problem reflected the need to identify and assess the determinants of nation brand and develop a nation brand measurement framework. The development of the measurement framework further supported the assumption of the positivism philosophy which encompasses the generation of a theoretical framework. The assumption of post-positivism philosophy was necessary as the research problem reflected the need to identify and assess the determinants of nation brand, and to develop a nation brand measurement framework.

Post-positivism is reductionist as it is intended to reduce ideas into a small discrete set of ideas to test variables that comprise research questions (Creswell, 2015). The assumption of positivism was further justified by the development of numeric measures of observation as regards to the determinants of the nation brand. The use of numeric measures is a characteristic of post-positivism. There were generalisations with regards to the factors incorporated in the nation brand framework and the research study verified and refined these in the Zimbabwean context so that they could be understood by both academics and marketing practitioners alike. This is the accepted approach to post-positivist research as the research began with a

generalisation of the determinants of nation brand, collected data to support or refute the generalisation, and thus made necessary revisions to the generalisations based on the analysis done. However, as the characteristics of critical realism tend to show, the study used both quantitative and qualitative data sources to demonstrate the interrelationships between the individual, the group and the organisation are depicted in the study

### **5.3. Research Design**

A research design is an overall strategy chosen by a researcher to integrate different study components in a coherent and logical way to ensure that the research problem is effectively addressed. It is a blueprint for the collection, measurement, and analysis of data (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013). According to Creswell (2015), there are three types of research design: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed. The research study adopted a mixed research design, which is a combination of a quantitative and qualitative design. A quantitative research design involves objective measurements and statistical or numerical analysis of data collected through polls or questionnaires (Saunders et al., 2016). It consists of gathering numerical data and generalising it to explain a particular phenomenon, which in the research pertained to the role of different factors in nation branding. Quantitative research can be either descriptive or experimental. The research study adopted the descriptive quantitative research design. The quantitative design was applicable as numerically-coded data collected through a structured questionnaire and analysed using descriptive statistics.

A qualitative research design involves collecting and working with non-numerical data to interpret meaning from these data (Saunders et al., 2016). In essence, the design is concerned with answering the why and how of a phenomenon in question, with the findings written not in numerical, but word format. Methods under the qualitative research design include

observation, interviews and focus groups (Creswell, 2015). Structured interviews were used to collect data in the research. The qualitative research design was applicable as the researcher wanted in-depth information about the current state of Zimbabwe's image as a compliment to the data collected through the questionnaires. The use of open-ended questions in the interviews allowed the interviewees to freely express their opinions and give more information about Zimbabwe's image and issues surrounding that image.

#### **5.4. Research Strategy**

A research strategy of inquiry is a type of qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods design or model that provides specific direction for procedures in a research design (Creswell, 2015). Examples of quantitative research strategies are experimental designs and non-experimental designs such as survey designs (Creswell, 2015). The research study adopted a survey design since a structured questionnaire, and structured interviews were to be administered to the participants to generalise a framework for measuring nation brand. Examples of qualitative strategies are narrative research, phenomenology, ethnographies, grounded theory studies and case studies (Creswell, 2015). The research study adopted grounded theory, which is a strategy of inquiry where the researcher derives a general theory (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Gorard, 2013). In addition, the research study developed a framework for measuring nation brand based on the views of the research participants is a grounded theory research strategy.

According to Creswell (2015), a mixed-method strategy of inquiry includes the sequential strategy, concurrent strategy, and transformative strategy. The research study adopted the sequential mixed methods strategy, which involves the researcher expanding the findings of one method with another method (Creswell, 2015). The researcher began with a quantitative approach in which there was validation of the factors used for measuring a nation's brand as

advocated by theory, followed by a qualitative method involving exploration through structured interviews with a few individuals. The elements described and analysed were people, governance, tourism, exports, culture and heritage, and investment and immigration.

### 5.5. Population of the Study

A population is the totality of all the subjects that conform to a set of specifications (Green & Salkind, 2014). It includes all elements from whom the researcher is interested in obtaining information and making inferences (Saunders et al., 2016). The population comprised of 2000 individuals drawn from 12 organisations, as shown in Table 5.1.

**Table 5.1. Structure of the Population**

Group	Number	Name	Number of Respondents
Ministries	5	Ministry of Finance	300
		Ministry of Tourism and Hospitality	300
		Ministry of Industry and Commerce	300
		Ministry of Foreign Affairs and International Trade	300
		Ministry of Home Affairs and Cultural Heritage	300
		<b>Total</b>	<b>1500</b>
Parastatals	3	Zimbabwe Tourism Authority	100
		Zimbabwe Investment Authority	100
		Zimtrade	100
		<b>Total</b>	<b>300</b>
Stakeholders	4	National Arts Council of Zimbabwe	50
		Harare Publicity Office	50
		Zimbabwe Council of Tourism	50
		Hospitality Association of Zimbabwe	50
		<b>Total</b>	<b>200</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>12</b>		<b>2000</b>

Source: Research Data (2019)

The population of the study comprised of key ministries associated with nation branding. Together with parastatals, they were linked to the area of the study and major stakeholders in nation branding.

## **5.6. Sampling Frame**

A sampling frame is a list of potential respondents in a population of the study (Creswell, 2015). The sampling frame comprised of the 2000 persons from the organisations shown in Table 5.1. This included staff from ministries, parastatals, and stakeholders.

### **5.6.1. Unit of Analysis**

The unit of analysis is the major entity that is being analysed in the study. The unit of analysis of this study includes the people and organisations that were involved in the nation branding of Zimbabwe.

## **5.7. Sampling Techniques and Procedure**

Sampling is the process of selecting a representative portion of a population to become the foundation on estimating and predicting the outcome of the research (Creswell, 2015). There are two types of sampling: probability sampling and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling allows every member to have an equal opportunity to be a part of the sample. Non-probability relies on a researcher's ability to select members, making it difficult for all elements of a population to have equal opportunity to be included in a sample (Charan & Biswas, 2013). The sampling techniques which fall under probability sampling are simple random sampling, stratified sampling, systematic sampling, and cluster sampling. The researcher used stratified sampling, which is a sampling procedure where the population is divided into two or more strata, and then a random sample is drawn from each of the strata. The sample is drawn using simple systematic sampling.

The population was first stratified, according to the respondent groups shown in Table 5.1. The result is that there were 3 strata. Stratum 1 comprised of ministries, stratum 2 consists of 3

parastatals, and stratum 3 consists of 3 stakeholders. A sampling frame was then drawn for each of the strata. Stratum 1 comprised of a list of 1500 individuals, stratum 2 consists of a list of 300 individuals, and stratum 3 consists of a list of 200 individuals. Random numbers were then generated in Microsoft Excel for the selection of sample elements from each stratum. The appropriate sample size from each stratum was determined using the Krejcie and Morgan (1970) sample size determination table shown in Table 5.2.

The sampling techniques which fall under non-probability sampling are: convenience sampling, haphazard sampling, purposive sampling, quota sampling and snowball sampling (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Saunders et al., 2016). The researcher used the purposive sampling technique. Purposive sampling involves the researcher choosing a sample based on their knowledge about the population and the study itself. The participants were selected based on the study's purpose. Purposive sampling is also known as judgmental, selective, or subjective sampling (Martino et al., 2018). The researcher specifically used purposive sampling for selection of the ten interviewees, whose purpose was to provide in-depth information about Zimbabwe's image and other issues concerning nation image, such as strategic issues to be addressed to improve Zimbabwe's image, and critical factors influencing Zimbabwe's brand image.

## **5.8. Sample Size**

The researcher determined the minimum acceptable sample size from each of the four strata in Table 5.1 using the Krejcie and Morgan (1970) sample size determination table, which is shown in Table 5.2. In Table 5.2., N is the population size, and S is the sample size.

**Table 5.2. Sample Size Determination Table**

<i>Table for Determining Sample Size of a Known Population</i>									
N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	100	80	280	162	800	260	2800	338
15	14	110	86	290	165	850	265	3000	341
20	19	120	92	300	169	900	269	3500	346
25	24	130	97	320	175	950	274	4000	351
30	28	140	103	340	181	1000	278	4500	354
35	32	150	108	360	186	1100	285	5000	357
40	36	160	113	380	191	1200	291	6000	361
45	40	170	118	400	196	1300	297	7000	364
50	44	180	123	420	201	1400	302	8000	367
55	48	190	127	440	205	1500	306	9000	368
60	52	200	132	460	210	1600	310	10000	370
65	56	210	136	480	214	1700	313	15000	375
70	59	220	140	500	217	1800	317	20000	377
75	63	230	144	550	226	1900	320	30000	379
80	66	240	148	600	234	2000	322	40000	380
85	70	250	152	650	242	2200	327	50000	381
90	73	260	155	700	248	2400	331	75000	382
95	76	270	159	750	254	2600	335	100000	384

*Source:* Krejcie and Morgan (1970)

Based on Table 5.2., the recommended sample size for a population with 1500 persons is 306, and the recommended sample size for a population with 300 persons is 169. The recommended sample size for a population with 200 persons is 132. The resulting sizes for each of the stratum are shown in Table 5.3.

**Table 5.3. Sample Size**

<b>Strata</b>	<b>Size of Strata</b>
Ministries	306
Parastatals	169
Stakeholders	132
<b>Total</b>	<b>607</b>

*Source:* Research Data (2019)

## **5.9. Sources of Data**

Both primary and secondary sources of data were used in the research study.

### **5.9.1. Secondary Data Sources**

Secondary data sources comprise of existing reservoirs of data collected for prior studies, which were used to pursue certain research which is separate for the original work (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017). The secondary sources used in the study included books, published articles, journals, publications, websites, and research reports from authentic research companies. These were accessed by visiting libraries and through the Internet. The secondary sources were employed to improve the researcher's understanding of strategic issues concerning Zimbabwe's image, key factors influencing Zimbabwe's brand image and dimensions of a nation's competitive index. The secondary sources were also used to identify research gaps around nation branding, hence this study to develop Zimbabwe's nation brand measurement framework.

### 5.9.2. Primary Data Sources

According to Creswell (2015), primary data consists of information produced to meet the specific requirements of a study at hand. The primary data sources used for the research were the structured questionnaires completed by the respondents and the interview transcripts which captured responses of the interviewees. Primary data has greater validity and trustworthiness compared to secondary data as it addresses the objectives of a study at hand. The primary data collected involved strategic issues being addressed to improve Zimbabwe's image, key factors influencing Zimbabwe's brand image, dimensions of a nation's competitive index and how to establish the commonly used indexes for measuring nation brand image.

### 5.9.3. Triangulation of Data Sources

A mixed methods research study design involves the collection and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data in the context of a single study. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) underscore the need for data collection and analysis of qualitative and quantitative data to be done concurrently for the purpose of achieving analytical convergence, confirmation, and corroboration in the study. Triangulation aligns multiple perspectives and leads to a more comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon of interest. The literature supports the use of the use of triangulation due to the richness of the findings created through the complementary process where one method's weaknesses are offset by the other (Wilson, 2014; Kahlke, 2014).

In this present study, the views of the interviewees were triangulated with the survey's results which formed part of the discourse. The main objective or primary objective of the study was to develop a nation brand measurement framework for Zimbabwe, which sought to expand

existing knowledge on nation brand measurement models through a mixed research design approach.

### **5.10. Research Instruments**

A research instrument is a data collection tool used to gather an individual's or group of individual's opinions and views about an issue under research (Creswell, 2015). Examples of research instruments are: questionnaires, interview guides, focus groups, psychometric tests, and observations. The study used a questionnaire and interview to gather primary data.

#### 5.10.1. Questionnaire

A questionnaire is an instrument, either in paper or electronic form, which uses a standardised set of questions which allows respondents' answers to be compared and contrasted (Creswell, 2015). It is an impersonal instrument with standardised wording and instructions. The researcher used a structured questionnaire with the majority of questions being on a 5-point Likert Scale. The questionnaire is shown in Appendix 1, with a total of 86 questions. The questionnaire comprised of seven chronological sections:

- i. Section A – People, with 19 questions;
- ii. Section B – Culture and Heritage, with 16 questions;
- iii. Section C – Tourism, with 10 questions;
- iv. Section D – Exports, with 13 questions;
- v. Section E – Investment and Immigration, with 10 questions;
- vi. Section F – Governance, with 11 questions;
- vii. Section G – Biographic Information, with 7 questions.

These sections were preceded by an introduction and instructions about how to complete the questionnaire.

The questionnaire was used to collect data because it is easy to administer over a large population. The questionnaire is relatively inexpensive compared to interviews and observations. The use of a questionnaire also reduces researcher bias as the respondents have control over the way they answer the questionnaires and the questions will be standardised. The questionnaire was also used as the researcher designed it so that it was user-friendly to the respondents, thus making it easy for them to understand and answer the questions at their convenient time within the stipulated time frame. The questionnaire also saves time as it would be easy to reach all the 607 research participants. This was ideal for this study as the researcher wanted information from the 607 research participants within a limited time frame.

#### 5.10.2. Interview

An interview involves the interaction of a person who seeks information with the possible source of information (Saunders et al., 2016). It is a two-way exchange of information between an interviewer and an interviewee to get information (Neuman, 2014). Unstructured face-to-face interviews were done to elicit information from ten purposively selected research participants. The interview guide comprised of nine questions and is shown in Appendix 2. The interview was used to complement the questionnaire. This is a triangulation of data sources. An interview was also used as it usually achieves a high response rate compared to a questionnaire.

### **5.11. Data Collection**

Data collection refers to the process of gathering relevant data from the research participants (Saunders et al., 2016). Data for the research was collected using questionnaires and interviews, both of which were administered by the researcher and three research assistants. The researcher first sought approval from the research supervisor to administer the instruments in the field. The supervisor allowed the researcher to administer the research instruments.

The researcher administered structured questionnaires to the 607 persons from ministries, parastatals, and stakeholders on a drop-and-pick basis from the 01 February 2019 to the 31 May 2019. The researcher contacted the research participants between 01 and 31 January 2019 through e-mail and telephone calls to seek their consent to participate in the research and make appointments to drop the questionnaires at designated places. On meeting the respondents, the researcher explained the aim of the research and their rights during the research process, which included the right to withdraw from participating in the research at any time. The researcher also informed the respondents not to write their names or any identification on the questionnaires and the importance of having the questionnaire completed within 14 days. The researcher then collected the questionnaires when the respondents informed him that they were done or at the time on which the respondents had agreed to complete the filling in of the questionnaires.

Primary data was also collected through interviews administered at the researcher's office or some research participant-chosen venue from the 01 February 2019 to 31 May 2019. The researcher contacted the potential interviewees between 01 and 31 January 2019 through e-mail and telephone calls to seek their consent to be interviewed and then booked them for the interviews at agreed venues. The researcher explained the aim of the research to the potential

interviewees and informed them of their rights during the research. The researcher used an interview guide during the interview, and the responses of the interviewees were captured through writing. Each interview had an average duration of 30 minutes.

### **5.12. Validity and Reliability**

Validity refers to the extent to which a research instrument measures what it is supposed to. Internal validity of an instrument is the extent to which items on an instrument measure events they are intended to measure, (Creswell, 2015). Reliability is the extent to which a research instrument provides consistent results, whereas validity is the degree to which the research instrument measures what it is intended to measure (Creswell, 2015). To ensure reliability, the researcher employed standard data collection and analysis procedures, making it easy for other researchers to reproduce the questionnaire or adapt it for researches similar to the current study. The researcher further standardised the design, layout, and instructions of the questionnaire so that there was uniformity with respect to data extraction, analysis, and interpretation. This standardisation ensured that each respondent was asked the same questions and in the same order.

As another way of enhancing reliability, the researcher piloted the questionnaire through surveying 31 persons before carrying out the actual survey. The piloted persons were excluded as respondents of the actual survey. The researcher also piloted the interview guide through surveying 3 persons and excluded these in the actual interviews. The pilots were meant to check if the instrument was suitable. On completing the pilots, the researcher amended the grey areas of the questionnaire and interview guide.

### 5.12.1. Internal Reliability of Instruments

Cronbach coefficients were used to measure the internal validity and consistency of the measuring instrument and SPSS (version 22) computer package was used for this purpose. Researchers often consider an alpha value of 0.5 as the cut-off point, although lower alpha values may be considered depending on research objectives (Hair et al., 2019). There are three factors involved when deciding on which alpha values are reliable:

- i. Stability;
- ii. Internal reliability;
- iii. Inter-observer consistency.

This research study considers an alpha coefficient value equal to or greater than 0.3 ( $\alpha \geq 0.3$ ) being acceptable and considered to indicate good reliability. This is based on the empirical findings of Hair et al. (2019) and Sekaran and Bougie (2019).

### 5.12.2. Factor Analysis

The researcher carried out Factor Analysis of the data and established the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity. The KMO measures the sampling adequacy, and the lower the value, the more suited the data is to Factor Analysis. Kaiser and Rice (1974) recommend a value of above 0.5 ( $\alpha \geq 0.5$ ) as acceptable and the researcher used the same parameters which are within the recommended parameter. Accordingly, the instrument considered reliable for use in determining the nation brand measurement framework of Zimbabwe.

### 5.12.3. Validity

A questionnaire was pre- or pilot-tested. If possible, a questionnaire should be pre-tested on a small sample from the targeted population to identify and eliminate weaknesses in data collection instrument (David & Sutton, 2011). The instrument should be pre-tested in terms of question content, wording, sequence, form and layout, question difficulty, and instructions (Lamelas, 2011: 156). The pilot test aims at refining the questionnaire so that respondents will have no difficulties in answering the questions and there will be no challenges in recording data (Saunders et al., 2016: 451).

Validity is an indication of the extent to which a study's instrument measures what it is supposed to measure (Collis & Hussey, 2014). Content or face validity is a subjective, but systematic assessment of the suitability of scale items to the construct (Sekaran & Bougie, 2019). Face validity implies that the professionals in the area agree that the variables that are proposed to measure a concept are indeed, confirmed to be measuring the concept. The content validity of this study's research instrument was done before undertaking the main study. The research reviewed related literature and had discussions with marketing specialists and experts in nation branding. Nation brand attributes that were suggested by experts were added to the questionnaire and assisted in the formulation of the theoretical framework.

Construct validity testifies how well the results obtained from the use of the measure fit the theories around which the test is designed (Sekaran & Bougie, 2019). This is assessed through convergent and discriminant validity. Constructs are highly conceptual and intangible dimensions. As a result of their being abstract and subtle in nature, for example culture and heritage, governance can be measured indirectly using key antecedents of the concepts. Consequently, the noticeable antecedents that hypothetically demonstrate the existence of the

construct that must be considered for measurement. Conversely, if the theory is not correct there will be no association between tourism and nation brand measurement index for Zimbabwe. In this study, convergent and discriminant validity was established in two ways. Firstly, it involved checking if the items significantly loaded into the construct predicted theory, although a factor loading of 0.600 is normally taken as the cut-off point for accepting variables in factor solutions. Secondly, it concerned assessing the extent to which the empirical constructs were interrelated, thus examining the factor correlation coefficients.

### **5.13. Ethical Considerations**

According to Casey et al. (2018), good research is done by adopting good ethical practice. The researcher considered the ethical issues involved in the research process, and so adopted several measures. The researcher maintained the anonymity of the respondents, sought the informed consent of the respondents to participate in the research, informed the respondents of their rights during the research process, and avoided plagiarism through citation of sources used for review of the literature. In line with the recommendation by Erdt et al. (2015), the researcher informed the potential research participants of the intended research and what it was all about. The researcher also informed the respondents' right to withdraw to participate in the research at any time if they wanted to do so. This supports the caution by Puhan et al. (2014), that before doing research, the legal capacity of volunteering consent must converse with the respondents.

The researcher did not require the respondents to write their names or any form of identity on the questionnaires. According to Erdt et al. (2015), the maintenance of the confidentiality of research respondents is a good ethical practice. The questionnaire responses of the respondents were not made available to the ministries and parastatals to avoid victimisation of the respondents, should they have unveiled confidential information about the ministry and

parastatal bosses. The researcher avoided the manipulation of data in a bid to get pre-meditated or expected results. This falls in line with Creswell and Plano Clark (2017), who warned researchers on how they put academic work into disrepute by fabricating or exaggerating research results. The researcher also properly acknowledged all the literature used in the research.

#### **5.14. Data Analysis and Presentation**

Data analysis and presentation is a systematic process of logical description, illustration, and evaluation of data so that the collected data is converted into a form suitable for analysis (Creswell, 2015). The respondents' responses to the 5-point Likert Scale questions in the questionnaire were analysed quantitatively using the statistical software platform, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22. The data collected from the interviews were recorded and then transferred to Microsoft Excel. The interview responses were then analysed using content analysis. A thorough discussion of the results was done. Data collected was analysed from both the questionnaires and interviews and was presented in the form of descriptions, Tables, and charts such as bar graphs and pie charts. Principal components analysis was used to identify the key factors that influence Zimbabwe's brand image.

##### **5.14.1. Descriptive Statistics**

Babin and Zikmund (2016) have defined descriptive statistics as the elementary transformation of data in a way that accounts for the essential characteristics such as central tendency, distribution, and variability. Descriptive statistics can sum-up responses from large numbers of respondents into a few simple statistics. The descriptive statistics of the responses were calculated using the SPSS version 22 software platform. The descriptive statistics calculated for each objective research item were mean and standard deviation.

### 5.14.2. Regression Analysis

Linear regression analysis is a technique for measuring the linear association between an independent and a dependent variable (Zikmund et al., 2010). The researcher could reject or accept propositions based on regression analysis. In this research study, a conceptual model was used. Linear regression analyses were done to establish the relationships formulated in the relevant set of hypotheses. It was used to measure the linear association between independent and dependent variables. It assumes that the dependent variable is linked to the preceding variable.

#### 5.14.2.1. *Goodness-of-Fit Test*

According to Wegner (2020), to achieve unbiased outcomes from an independent variable in predicting the variation in the dependent variable, a “goodness-of-fit” measure is vital. The best measure is the coefficient of determination which is denoted by  $R^2$ . The value of  $R^2$  ranges between 0 and 1.

### 5.14.3. Correlation Analysis of Hypotheses

Correlation measures the linear association or relationship that prevails between variables Williman, (2005). Correlation techniques normally relate to three questions about two factors, that is, does a relationship exist between two variables? If so, what is the direction of the relationship and what is its magnitude? (Williman, 2006). Multicollinearity and correlation test analysis confirm the appropriateness of the dataset at hand.

Variables connection was tested using Pearson’s correlation, and the conclusion of the connection between each independent variable and the dependent variable was drawn based on the 5% point of importance (2-tailed) and 95% interval of confidence. There is a statistically

positive relationship between variables if the coefficient of correlation ( $r$ ) is positive. The size or magnitude of the relationship falls in the range  $r = -1$  and  $r = +1$  (Kwak et al., 2014).

### **5.15. Chapter Summary**

This chapter described the methodology for the research study on developing a nation brand measurement framework for Zimbabwe. The research assumed the post-positivism philosophy and adopted a mixed research design. The research used a mixed-method strategy. The population of the study comprised of 2000 persons from government ministries, parastatals, and stakeholder organisations. A sample of 607 individuals, drawn using stratified sampling, completed the questionnaires. The researcher chose 10 persons who were purposively interviewed. Primary data was collected through questionnaires and interviews. Data analysis was done using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22 software platform. Analysed data was presented using descriptions, tables, and charts.

The next chapter will provide a data analysis and presentation from the research respondents in different ministries in Zimbabwe and discuss it accordingly.

## **Chapter 6**

### **Data Analysis and Presentation**

#### **6.1. Introduction**

This chapter presents and analyses data collected from 510 respondents in different ministries in Zimbabwe and discusses it accordingly. Data is explored and presented in the form of tables and charts. The researcher addresses critical questions and hypotheses by collecting data using a structured questionnaire. A stratified random sample of 510 respondents was selected, and the questionnaire was administered. A Likert Scale based on a scale of 1-5 was used to determine the significance of factors that influence the nation brand index. Nation brand index measurement dimension scores are determined from the scores of each of the six main factors. Scores for each respondent were recorded and analysed using the SPSS version 22 software platform, and the established outputs were discussed below.

#### **6.2. Summary of Empirical Investigation Objectives**

The research investigated and analysed the dimensions of a nation brand measurement framework for Zimbabwe. These dimensions are also the ones that are ranked to identify the most important ones in the formulation of the nation brand measurement framework for Zimbabwe. The important dimensions may be utilised in the formulation of nation branding campaigns in Zimbabwe.

The quantitative objectives of the study were as follows:

- i. Evaluate the dimensions of nation brand measurement indexes.
- ii. Determine the critical dimensions to be included in developing Zimbabwe's nation brand measurement framework.

The qualitative objectives of the study were as follows:

- i. Examine the strategic issues that need to be addressed to improve Zimbabwe's brand.
- ii. Examine the key factors that influence Zimbabwe's image.
- iii. Establish the commonly used index for measuring nation brand image.

### **6.3. Hypotheses Concerning Nation Brand Measurement Framework for Zimbabwe**

The following hypotheses were formulated from the research objectives and questions:

**H0<sub>1</sub>:** There is no relationship between people element and brand measurement framework

**H1<sub>1</sub>:** There is relationship between people element and brand measurement framework

**H0<sub>2</sub>:** There is no a relationship between culture and heritage element and nation brand measurement framework.

**H1<sub>2</sub>:** There is relationship between culture and heritage element and nation brand measurement framework.

**H0<sub>3</sub>:** There is no relationship between tourism element and nation brand measurement framework.

**H1<sub>3</sub>:** There is a relationship between tourism element and nation brand measurement framework.

**H0<sub>4</sub>:** There is a no relationship between exports element and nation brand measurement framework.

**H1<sub>4</sub>:** There is a relationship between exports element and nation brand measurement framework.

**H0<sub>5</sub>:** There is no relationship between investment and immigration and nation brand measurement framework

**H1<sub>5</sub>:** There is a relationship investment & immigration and nation brand measurement framework.

**H0<sub>6</sub>:** There is no relationship between governance element and nation brand measurement framework.

**H1<sub>6</sub>:** There is a relationship between governance element and nation brand measurement framework.

#### **6.4. Response Rate**

Some 607 questionnaires were administered to the individuals from government ministries, parastatals, and stakeholder organisations. Only 510 questionnaires were returned, being fully completed. The response rate of the distributed questionnaires is shown in Table 6.1.

**Table 6.1. Response Rate**

<b>Respondents</b>	<b>Number of Questionnaires Administered</b>	<b>Number of Questionnaires Returned</b>	<b>Response Rate</b>
Ministries	306	278	91%
Parastatals	169	120	71%
Stakeholders	132	112	85%
Overall	607	510	84%

*Source:* Survey Data (2019)

The overall response rate was 84%, with the respondents from the ministries having the highest response rate of 91%, then followed by the respondents from stakeholder organisations with a response rate of 85%. Respondents from the parastatals had the least response rate of 71%. The high response rate of 84% lies within the recommended limits given by Babbie (2014), who has argued that the minimum acceptable response rate is 75%. Based on this argument, the response rate of 84% for this study is sufficient to ensure authentic results.

## **6.5. Biographic Information**

The study solicited the respondents to disclose their biographic information. The information collected with respect to the respondents was based on work position, gender, age group, highest educational qualification, work experience, sector of respondent's organisation, and the number of employees in the respondent's organisation. The results for each of these variables will be discussed below.

### **6.5.1. Work Positions of Respondents**

The study collected information pertaining to the work positions of the respondents. An analysis of the information given by the respondents led to the findings presented in Table 6.2.

**Table 6.2. Work Positions of Respondents**

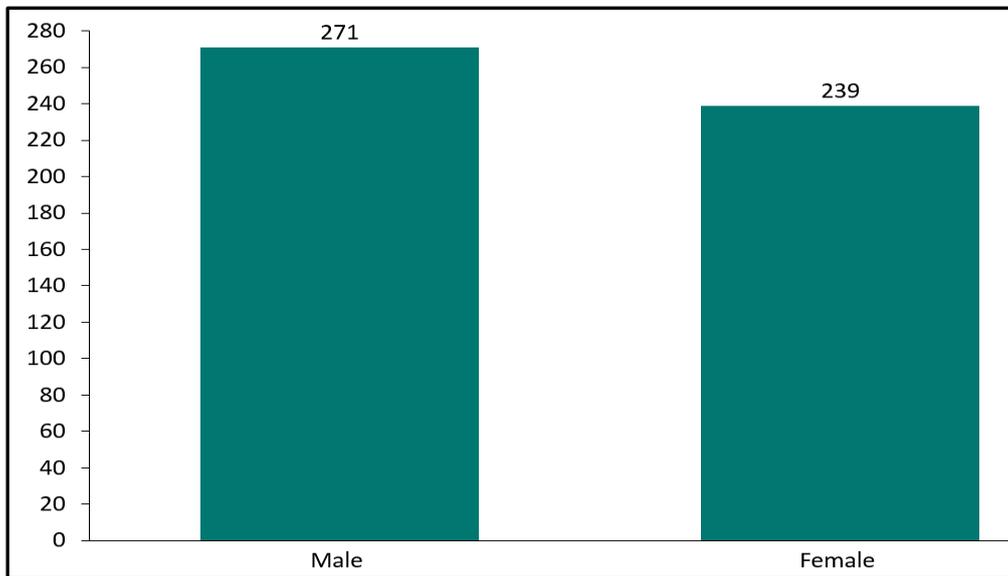
<b>Work Position</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Minister	2	0%
CEO	28	5%
Manager	31	6%
Assistant manager	16	3%
Supervisor	93	18%
Ministry officer	120	24%
Other	220	43%
<b>Total</b>	<b>510</b>	<b>100%</b>

*Source:* Survey Data (2019)

The majority of the respondents (43%) were in the ‘other’ work position category, which included analysts, public relations experts, officers, and accountants in the different organisations. Ministry officers also contributed a large portion (24%) of the respondents, followed by supervisors. Supervisors who responded were 93, giving a percentage of 18%. Assistant managers who responded were 16, giving 3% of the respondents. Managers were 6% of the respondents, CEOs made up of 5% of the respondents, and only two ministers were respondents. The category ‘Other’ was the largest because in most organisations these people must interface with most people and thereby hold relevant information on nation branding. Ministers, CEOs, and managers, tend to delegate most of the work to subordinates in the ‘other’ category. Hence, these people have current or up-to-date information on nation branding with regards to Zimbabwe.

### 6.5.2. Gender of Respondents

As shown in Figure 6.1., the majority of the respondents were males, making up 53% with the remaining 47% being females.



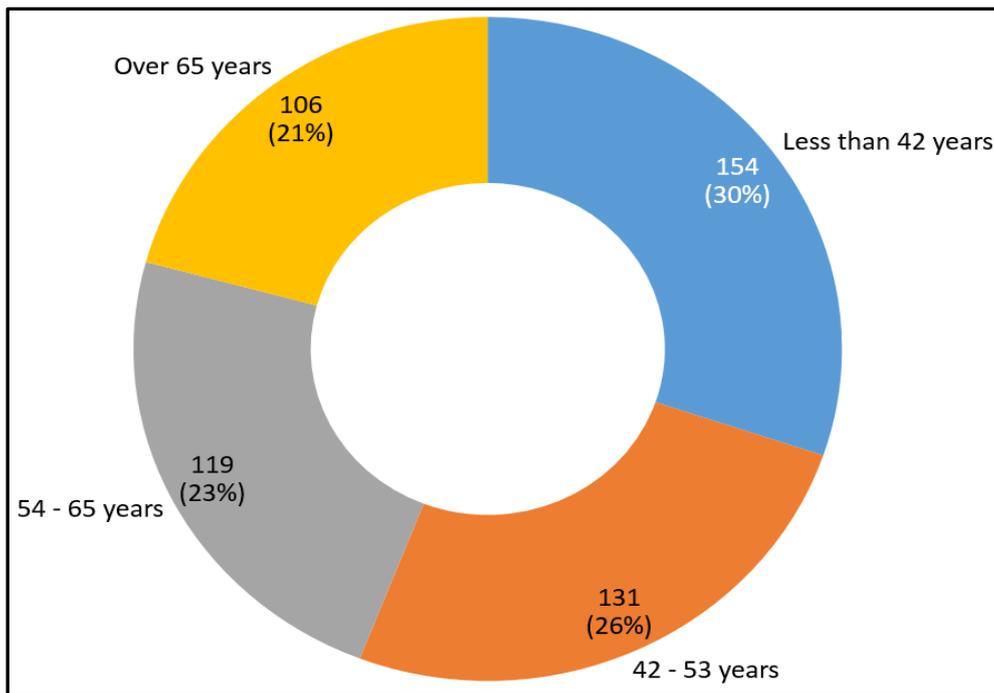
**Figure 6.1. Gender of Respondents**

Source: Survey Data (2019)

The results depicted in Figure 6.1 indicate that the majority of the respondents were males. This is characteristic of the Zimbabwean workplace, where the majority of the employees are males. This includes organisations that are involved in nation branding.

### 6.5.3. Age Groups of Respondents

As shown in Figure 6.2., the majority (30%) of the respondents were in the age range of less than 41 years of age and below, followed by those in the age range 42 to 53 years of age (26%).



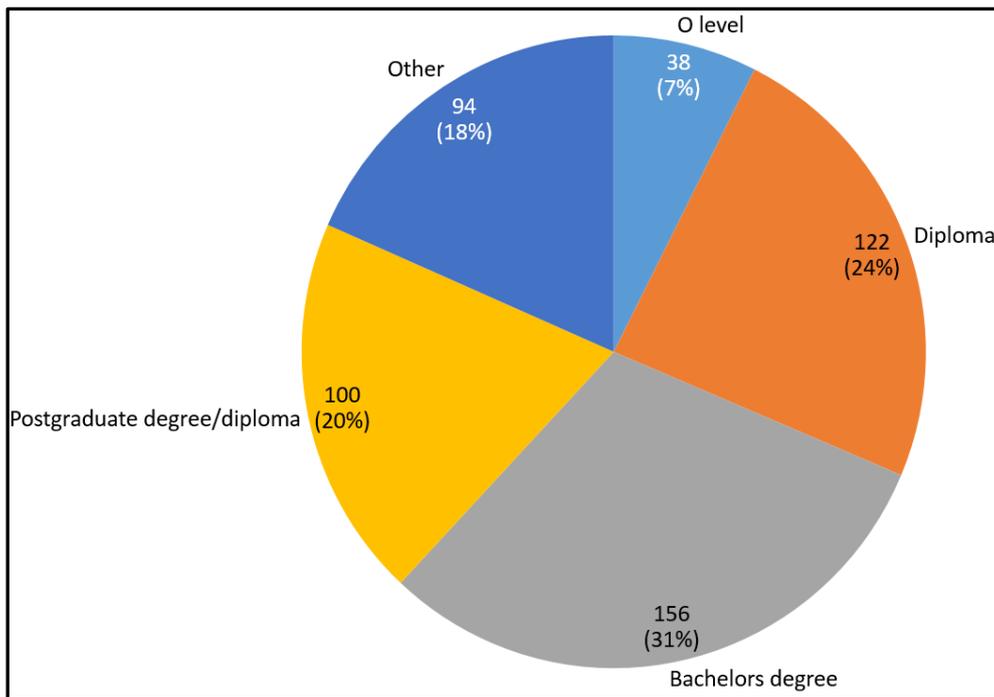
**Figure 6.2. Age Groups of Respondents**

Source: Survey Data (2019)

Only 119 respondents (23%) were in the age range 54 to 65 years of age, and the least number of the respondents were in the age range of over 65 years of age. The age distribution findings are indicative of mature respondents, who can make rational decisions and confidently respond to the research questions concerning nation branding.

#### 6.5.4. Highest Educational Qualifications of Respondents

As depicted in Figure 6.3., the most common highest educational qualification is a bachelor's degree (31%), and the minimum is a ZIMSEC/CIE 'O' Level (7%).



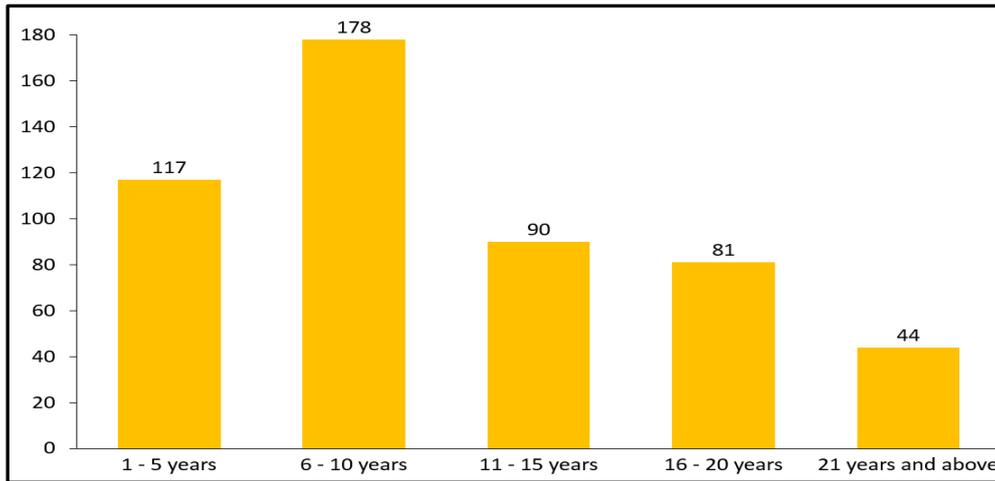
**Figure 6.3. Highest Educational Qualifications of Respondents**

Source: Survey Data (2019)

The second most common highest qualification is a diploma (24%), followed by a postgraduate degree/diploma qualification (20%). The category, 'Other' qualification contributed only 18% and included certifications. The respondents had acceptable literacy which enabled them to answer items of the questionnaire and interview guide concerning nation branding.

#### 6.5.5. Work Experience of Respondents

Some thirty-five percent (35%) of the respondents had work experience in the range 6 to 10 years, followed by 23% with experience in the range 1 to 5 years and only 44 respondents (9%) had the experience of above 21 years. These results are shown in Figure 6.4.



**Figure 6.4. Work Experience of Respondents**

Source: Survey Data (2019)

Only 90 respondents (18%) had work experience in the range of 11 to 15 years and 81 respondents (16%) had experience in the range of 16 to 20 years. This implies that work experience had a bearing on the quality of responses because the respondents had relevant and adequate institutional memory concerning nation branding in relation to the organisation concerned.

#### 6.5.6. Sectors of Respondents' Organisations

The study collected and analysed data pertaining to the sectors of the respondents' organisations. The findings are summarised in Table 6.3.

**Table 6.3. Sectors of Respondents' Organisations**

Sector	Number of Respondents	Percentage of Respondents
Line ministry	140	27%
Parastatal	169	33%
Sport	36	7%
Local authority	29	6%
Embassy	2	0%
Mining	24	5%
Farming	29	6%
Media	31	6%
Tourism	31	6%
Private individuals	19	4%
<b>Total</b>	<b>510</b>	<b>100%</b>

*Source:* Research Data (2019)

The majority of the respondents were from the parastatal sector (33%), followed by those from the Line Ministry sector (27%) Sport (7%), Local Authority (6%), Embassy (0%), Mining (5%), Farming (6%), Media (6%), Tourism (6%). The Private Individuals' sector was the least common, with a contribution of only 19 respondents (4%). The respondents represent the major stakeholders that are needed in the study of nation branding. Therefore, nation branding is a multi-stakeholder study. Multi-stakeholder responses are needed in order to have valid responses on nation branding.

#### 6.5.7. Number of Employees in Respondents' Organisations

The number of employees in each of the respondents' organisations are shown in Table 6.4.

**Table 6.4. Number of Employees in Respondents' Organisations**

<b>Number of Employees</b>	<b>Number of Respondents</b>	<b>Percentage of Respondents</b>
Less than 99	93	18%
100 – 149	127	25%
150 – 199	81	16%
200 – 249	107	21%
250 and above	102	20%
<b>Total</b>	<b>510</b>	<b>100%</b>

*Source:* Research Data (2019)

Twenty-five percent of the respondents were in organisations with 100 to 149 employees, and 21% of the employees were in organisations with 200 to 249 employees, 20% of the employees were in organisations with 250, and above, 18% were in organisations with less than 99. Lastly, 16% were in organisations with 81 employees. The number of employees has a bearing on the variability of responses which brings a diversity of responses on nation branding. However, there are instances where similar responses were given by a diverse group of respondents on nation branding.

## **6.6. Internal Reliability and Validity of Instruments**

Cronbach alpha coefficients were used to test the questionnaire, and the SPSS (version 22) software platform was used for that purpose. Various research practitioners often consider an alpha value of 0.5 as the cut-off point, although lower-alpha coefficients may be suitable depending on research purpose (Hair et al., 2019). Reliability, stability, internal reliability, and inter-observer consistency, are vital in deciding on alpha values. This research considers an

alpha coefficient value equal to or greater than 0.3 ( $\alpha \geq 0.3$ ) being accepted and considered to indicate good reliability. This is based on the empirical findings of Hair et al. (2019).

**Table 6.5. Reliability Statistics**

<b>Dimension</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>	<b>Number of Items</b>
People	.348	19
Culture and Heritage	.335	16
Tourism	.383	10
Exports	.449	13
Investments and Immigration	.484	10
Governance	.865	11

*Source:* Primary Data (2019)

The results show that the alpha coefficients ( $\alpha$ ) for the six items are greater than 0.3 ( $\alpha \geq 0.3$ ). This means that all items were retained for further analysis.

#### 6.6.1. Internal Validity of Instruments

All 79 NBI items were tested for validity using Cronbach alpha and correlation coefficients. Following Kresic and Prebezac (2011: 508), the NBI 7 factor solution was checked for convergent validity using Cronbach alpha values. The values ranged from the lowest 0.335 to the highest of 0.865 9 rounded off to 0.9). The research considers an alpha value of  $\geq 0.3$  being accepted and considered to indicate convergent validity. Since Cronbach alpha values were greater than 0.3, this constitutes an acceptable indicator of validity.

Discriminant validity was tested using correlation analysis that is Pearson's 'r'. Good discriminant validity was achieved as there were no correlation values greater than 0.9.

Moreover, the fact that no factor combination had a correlation  $\geq 9.00$  meant that there was no need to treat any of the factors in the model for multicollinearity or collinearity.

## **6.7. Factor Analysis**

A factor analysis was used to reduce the number of factors from the larger number of items in a measurement instrument. This data reduction technique allows the researcher to summarise data from broad variables into a well-defined set of composite variables which can be used to make informed decisions. In this study, data reduction was used to identify essential variables among a large set. Also, factor analysis was employed to reduce the number of variables which were used in regression analysis.

### **6.7.1. Importance of People**

The study interviewed respondents to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with respect to 19 pre-established factors could be manipulated to determine the nation brand index framework. The degree at which each respondent agreed or disagreed with the statement in the questionnaire was indicated by selecting from given options ranging from 1 to 5. The Likert Scale in the questionnaire was given as (1-Strongly disagree; 2-disagree; 3-neutral; 4 agree; 5-strongly agree). More specifically, the mean and standard deviation of each people item was calculated, and the results were tabulated in Table 6.6. The mean shows relative centrality in the opinions of respondents with a mean score of more than 3, indicating that the majority of respondents agreed whereas mean less than 3 suggests that participants were in disagreement. This relevant factor would be used to determine the nation brand index. The standard deviation would give an indication of the general level of spread of the actual ratings from the mean of each dimension.

**Table 6.6. Descriptive Statistics – People**

<b>Descriptive Statistics</b>			
<b>Dimension</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Dev</b>
Zimbabweans are peace loving people.	510	4.47	.541
Zimbabweans are literate people.	510	4.45	.557
Zimbabweans are friendly people when welcoming foreigners	510	4.32	.654
Zimbabweans do not discriminate against foreigners.	510	4.29	.654
Zimbabweans are competent when communicating with foreigners.	510	4.10	.788
Zimbabweans are family oriented.	510	4.07	.811
In Zimbabwe people observe their own tradition and culture in harmony with others.	510	4.05	.747
Zimbabweans are perceived as workaholics by foreigners.	510	4.01	.857
Zimbabweans are fun-loving people.	510	3.99	.809
Zimbabweans are conservative people.	510	3.96	.812
Zimbabweans are disciplined people.	510	3.95	.810
Zimbabweans are simple people.	510	3.93	.835
Zimbabweans are trendy, fashion-loving people.	510	3.92	.809
Zimbabweans are sophisticated people	510	3.89	.859
Zimbabweans are open (take) different ideas from other nationalities.	510	3.65	.626
Foreigners envy Zimbabwe's education system and want to enrol.	510	3.52	.607
Zimbabweans pride in their locally manufactured products.	510	2.95	.880
Zimbabweans are ethical/not corrupt in business approach/business transactions.	510	2.46	1.131
Zimbabweans enjoy a higher quality of life.	510	2.28	.886
Valid N (listwise)	510		

Source: Primary Data (2019)

Using the mean to rank people factors that could adopt to determine the nation brand index, the results show that five most preferred elements were: Zimbabweans are peace-loving people. (mean = 4.47, standard deviation = 0.541), Zimbabweans are literate people (mean = 4.45, standard deviation = 0.557), Zimbabweans are friendly people when welcoming foreigners (mean = 4.32, standard deviation = 0.654), Zimbabweans do not discriminate against foreigners (mean = 4.29, standard deviation = 0.654), and Zimbabweans are competent when communicating with foreigners (mean = 4.10, standard deviation = 0.788).

The descriptive statistics in Table 6.6 also shows that the bottom two people elements that participants in the study thought could be used were: Zimbabweans are ethical/not corrupt in business approach/business transactions (mean = 2.46, standard deviation = 1.131) and Zimbabweans enjoy a higher quality of life (mean = 2.28, standard deviation = 0.886). Although the study respondents generally felt that these people elements were not effective in determining NBI, they have a positive and favourable collective influence in ensuring the construction of NBI overall.

The descriptive statistics analysis is known for providing a general overview of the results. A detailed analysis was carried out by categorising various people elements into distinct principal components. A Categorical Critical Component Analysis was conducted to methodically reduce the people into major dimensions.

The study employed KMO to measure the sampling adequacy. Kaiser (1974) recommends a value of 0.5 as acceptable. Table 6.7 shows the KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.554, which was above the recommended value of 0.5; hence the data is suitable to undertake the Factor Analysis model.

**Table 6.7. KMO and Bartlett's Test – People**

<b>KMO and Bartlett's Test</b>		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.554
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	333.134
	Df	171
	Sig.	.000

*Source:* Primary Data (2019)

Bartlett's Test indicates the strength of the relationship amongst variables. It tests the null hypothesis that the correlation matrix is an identity matrix. Table 6.7 shows that Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is significant ( $\chi^2(171) = 333.134, p < 0.01$ ). Since p-value = .000 it is lower than 0.05. The significance level is small enough to allow for the rejection of the null hypothesis.

This provided the ground for employing data reduction techniques to establish the broad people element constructs that could be adopted to construct NBI in Zimbabwe. In this study, the Principal Component Analysis was used, with the extraction method and Varimax rotation with Kaiser Normalisation to reduce various people elements. The criteria used to extract components was that only those components with eigenvalues greater than the Kaiser's default of 1 were extracted.

**Table 6.8. Principal Components Extracted – People**

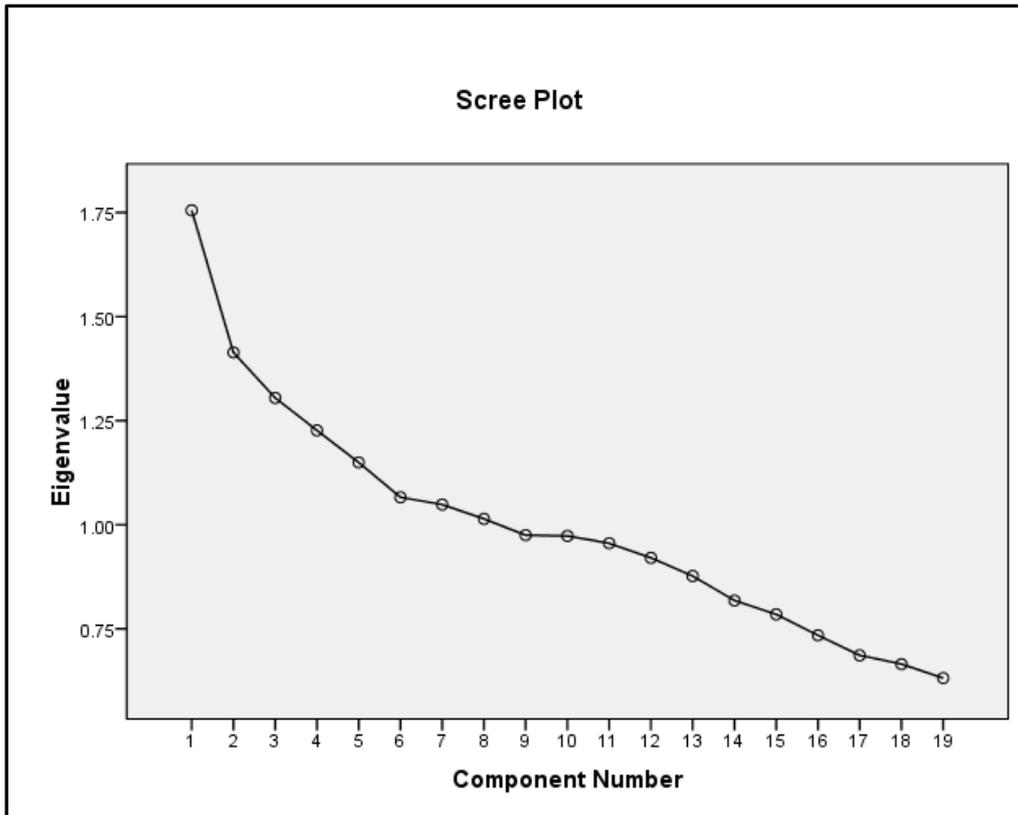
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.755	9.239	9.239	1.444	7.600	7.600
2	1.414	7.441	16.680	1.332	7.012	14.612
3	1.305	6.867	23.546	1.281	6.745	21.356
4	1.227	6.456	30.002	1.246	6.557	27.913
5	1.150	6.050	36.053	1.235	6.500	34.414
6	1.066	5.610	41.663	1.187	6.248	40.662
7	1.049	5.519	47.182	1.133	5.964	46.626
8	1.014	5.337	52.519	1.120	5.893	52.519
9	.975	5.132	57.651			
10	.973	5.122	62.772			
11	.956	5.029	67.801			
12	.920	4.845	72.646			
13	.877	4.615	77.261			
14	.818	4.305	81.566			
15	.785	4.130	85.696			
16	.734	3.865	89.562			
17	.686	3.612	93.174			
18	.665	3.501	96.675			
19	.632	3.325	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Source: Primary Data (2019)

Table 6.8 shows that eight components were extracted after meeting this condition. The results from the Table 6.8 show that before rotation, components 1,2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8 had initial

eigenvalues of 1.755, 1.414, 1.305, 1.227, 1.150, 1.066, 1.049 and 1.014 respectively and accounted for 9.239%, 7.441%, 6.867%, 6.456%, 6.050%, 5.610%, 5.519%, and 5.337% of the variance among the factors respectively. The rotation sum of squared loadings showed that the eigenvalues for components 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8 were recomputed to 1.444, 1.332, 1.281, 1.246, 1.235, 1.187, 1.133, and 1.120 respectively, while their contributions to the variance were recalculated to 7.600%, 7.012%, 6.745%, 6.557%, 6.500%, 6.248%, 5.964%, and 5.893% respectively. From these results, it is confirmed that the Varimax rotation that converged after five simulations significantly enhanced data reduction process since after rotation exercise, both eigenvalues and percentage variance explained by the components significantly changed. The level of satisfaction was improved when the principal people components were reduced to 8 dimensions. A scree plot was also provided in the analysis, as shown in Figure 6.5.



**Figure 6.5. Scree Plot – People**

Source: Primary Data (2019)

Figure 6.5 shows that from the 19 components, only 8 had eigenvalues greater than a pre-set Kaiser of 1. The rest had eigenvalues less than 1. To understand the people principal elements represented by eight components, the factor loading of each item were considered using rotated component matrix shown in Table 6.9. It was set that factor loading less than 0.6 would be suppressed so that there was more precision in determining the factor on which the specific people elements heavily loaded.

**Table 6.9. Rotated Component Matrix – People**

Rotated Component Matrix								
	Component							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Zimbabweans are competent when communicating with foreigners.								
Zimbabweans are friendly people when welcoming foreigners					.633			
Zimbabweans do not discriminate against foreigners.								
Zimbabweans are literate people.								
Zimbabweans are open (take) different ideas from other nationalities.			.718					
In Zimbabwe people observe their own tradition and culture in harmony with others.	.702							
Foreigners envy Zimbabwe's education system and want to enrol.								
Zimbabweans enjoy a higher quality of life.					.664			
Zimbabweans pride in their locally manufactured products.		.758						
Zimbabweans are perceived as workaholics by foreigners.								
Zimbabweans are disciplined people.								
Zimbabweans are peace loving people.	.776							
Zimbabweans are family oriented.							.801	
Zimbabweans are conservative people.								
Zimbabweans are fun-loving people.				.727				
Zimbabweans are sophisticated people								
Zimbabweans are trendy, fashion-loving people.								.749
Zimbabweans are simple people.						.645		
Zimbabweans are ethical/not corrupt in business approach/business transactions.								

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation.

\* Rotation converged in 24 iterations.

Source: Primary Data (2019)

Table 6.9 shows that there were items which have factor loading less than 0.6. These involve: Zimbabweans are competent when communicating with foreigners, Zimbabweans do not discriminate against foreigners, Zimbabweans are literate people, foreigners envy Zimbabwe's education system and want to enrol, and Zimbabweans are perceived as workaholics by foreigners, Zimbabweans are disciplined people, Zimbabweans are conservative people, Zimbabweans are sophisticated people and Zimbabweans are ethical/not corrupt in business approach/business transactions. These factors were automatically discarded from the analysis.

Results show that in Zimbabwe people observe their own tradition and culture in harmony with others (factor loading = 0.702) and Zimbabweans are peace-loving people (factor loading = 0.776) loaded heavily on principal component 1, from closer analysis, these factors if adjudged collectively relate to Zimbabweans are peaceful, observe own culture and tradition.

People element that loaded heavily on component 2 was Zimbabwean's pride in their locally manufactured products (factor loading = 0.758). The people elements with higher factor loadings on principal component factor 3 was Zimbabweans are open (take) different ideas from other nationalities (factor loading = 0.718). The factor "Zimbabweans are fun-loving people" factor loading 0.727 become a principal component factor 4.

The results also show that the elements Zimbabweans are friendly people when welcoming foreigners (factor loading -.633), and Zimbabweans enjoy a higher quality of life (factor loading .664) heavily loaded on principal component factor 5. These factors could collectively mean Zimbabwean are friendly to foreigners and enjoy a higher quality life. The people elements with higher factor loadings on principal component factor 6 was Zimbabweans are simple people (factor loading = 0.645) while Zimbabweans are family-oriented (factor loading

0.801) become principal component factor 7. Lastly, the item “Zimbabweans are trendy, fashion-loving people” factor loading .749 became a principal component factor 8.

The principal component which was extracted from the factor analysis were presented in rank order for easier prioritisation of determination of elements in building Zimbabwe NBI. Table 6.10 provides a summary of the contributions of the three major reforms that were inferred from the categorical critical principal component factor analysis.

**Table 6.10. Total Variance Explained – People**

Component	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1. Zimbabweans are peaceful, observe own culture and tradition	1.444	7.600	7.600
2. Zimbabweans pride in their locally manufactured products	1.332	7.012	14.612
3. Zimbabweans are open (take) different ideas from other nationalities	1.281	6.745	21.356
4. Zimbabweans are fun-loving people	1.246	6.557	27.913
5. Zimbabwean are friendly to foreigners and enjoy higher quality life	1.235	6.500	34.414
6. Zimbabweans are simple people	1.187	6.248	40.662
7. Zimbabweans are family oriented	1.133	5.964	46.626
8. Zimbabweans are trendy, fashion-loving people	1.120	5.893	52.519

*Source:* Primary Data (2019)

From general themes emerging from each component, it was inferred that the eight major people elements that could be used to construct Zimbabwe NBI were Zimbabweans are peaceful, observe own culture and tradition with an eigenvalue of 1.444 and accounting for 7.600% in variation in determination of NBI, Zimbabweans pride in their locally manufactured

products which has an eigenvalue of 1.332 and accounting for 7.012% variation in determination of NBI, Zimbabweans are open (take) different ideas from other nationalities which had an eigenvalue of 1.281 and accounting for 6.745 % variation in NBI, Zimbabweans are fun-loving people who had an eigenvalue of 1.246 and contributed to a variation of 6.557%. The other dominant principal component factors extracted are Zimbabweans are friendly to foreigners and enjoy higher quality life, Zimbabweans are simple people, Zimbabweans are family-oriented and Zimbabweans are trendy, fashion-loving people.

#### 6.7.2. The Impact of Culture and Heritage

Another key outcome to this study is to determine the influence of the use of culture and heritage in the determination on the NBI framework in Zimbabwe. To achieve this, the study respondents were asked to indicate their degree of agreeing and disagreeing to a set of sixteen predefined culture and heritage elements which could be adopted to build the NBI framework in Zimbabwe.

Descriptive statistics was used to elementary transformation of data in a way they account for the basic characteristics such as central tendency, distribution, and variability. Descriptive statistics has been used to sum-up responses from large numbers of respondents into a few simple statistics. Table 6.11 depicts the descriptive statistics of the dimensions that were measured on a 5 Point Likert Scale. The degree at which each respondent agreed or disagreed with the statement in the questionnaire is indicated by selecting responses from given options ranging from one to five. The Likert Scale in the questionnaire was given as (1-Strongly disagree; 2-disagree; 3-neutral; 4 agree; 5-strongly agree).

**Table 6.11. Descriptive Statistics for Culture and Heritage**

<b>Descriptive Statistics</b>			
	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Zimbabwean cultural events such as the Harare International Festival of the Arts (HIFA) attract people from various countries into Zimbabwe.	510	4.11	.761
The media can play a diagnostic role in pointing out and suggesting control measures regarding corruption, crime, poverty, and other social ills.	510	3.75	.726
Winning of mega events like the world cup soccer, Zimbabwe as a nation gains nation branding awareness.	510	3.74	.711
National identity has a direct implication on nation branding.	510	3.69	.581
Cross-cultural communication plays an important role in nation branding.	510	3.66	.569
Zimbabwe's educational level plays an important role in boosting the country's image.	510	3.65	.618
In Zimbabwe, religion plays a major role in the educational system.	510	3.64	.624
Zimbabwean cultural events such as music galas attract people from various countries.	510	3.51	.632
The Zimbabwe's education system enables inhabitants to become better ambassadors of their country.	510	3.48	.629
In Zimbabwe, various languages are used on brand labels that attract tourists.	510	3.42	.693
Knowledge of foreign languages gives Zimbabwe as a nation a competitive advantage.	510	3.06	.840
One can readily recall the symbols and logos attached to Zimbabwean products.	510	3.06	.833
In Zimbabwe, religion dictates the functioning of business transactions.	508	3.05	.791
The media informs and educates the inhabitants of Zimbabwe about the country's products and services.	510	3.03	.846
Local media promotes the image of Zimbabwe worldwide.	510	3.01	.836
Media limits exaggeration of the political situation in Zimbabwe	510	2.98	.891
Valid N (listwise)	508		

Source: Primary Data (2019)

Considering the top three elements of culture and heritage, the results showed that the study respondents agreed that the Zimbabwean cultural events such as the Harare International Festival of the Arts (HIFA), which attracts people from various countries into Zimbabwe. The media can play a diagnostic role in pointing out and suggesting control measures regarding corruption, crime, poverty, and other social ills, the winning of mega-events like the FIFA World Cup soccer tournament, Zimbabwe as a nation gains nation branding awareness. These were indicated by high mean scores of 4.11, 3.75 and 3.74, respectively. It can be concluded that even though there is less attention to Zimbabwean culture, it is important for Zimbabwe to consider culture and heritage as important determinants in building NBI.

The results also show that respondents were neutral to the majority of factors which include Zimbabwe's education system, which enables inhabitants to become better ambassadors of their country. In Zimbabwe, various languages are used on brand labels that attract tourists. Knowledge of foreign languages gives Zimbabwe as a nation a competitive advantage. One can readily recall the symbols and logos attached to Zimbabwean products. In Zimbabwe, religion dictates the functioning of business transactions. The media informs and educates the inhabitants about the country's products and services. It promotes the image of Zimbabwe worldwide limits exaggeration of the political situation in Zimbabwe. These factors have a mean of almost 3.

The study employed KMO to measure the sampling adequacy. The lower the value, the more suited the data is to Factor Analysis. Table 6.12 shows the KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.560, which was above the recommended value of 0.5. Hence the data is suitable to undertake the Factor Analysis model.

**Table 6.12. KMO and Bartlett's Test – Culture and Heritage**

<b>KMO and Bartlett's Test</b>		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.560
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	354.007
	df	120
	Sig.	.000

*Source:* Primary Data (2019)

Bartlett's Test indicates the strength of the relationship amongst variables. It tests the null hypothesis that the correlation matrix is an identity matrix. Table 6.12 shows that Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is significant ( $\chi^2(120) = 354.007, p < 0.01$ ) since it is lower than 0.05. The significance level is small enough to allow for the rejection of the null hypothesis. The significant results mean that the correlation between various cultural and heritage elements was sufficiently large to permit the use of Factor Analysis.

The Principal Component Factor analysis extraction method was adopted. There are 16 items in culture and heritage element, which is less than a maximum required of 30 items. The SPSS version 22 software platform was used to model the factor analysis. The analysis utilised the SPSS default criterion of retaining components whose eigenvalue is greater than Kaiser (greater than 1)

**Table 6.13. Principal Component Analysis – Culture and Heritage**

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.808	11.298	11.298	1.418	8.865	8.865
2	1.399	8.745	20.043	1.396	8.727	17.592
3	1.319	8.243	28.286	1.357	8.480	26.072
4	1.192	7.448	35.734	1.316	8.224	34.296
5	1.135	7.093	42.827	1.174	7.335	41.631
6	1.086	6.787	49.614	1.160	7.251	48.882
7	1.018	6.360	55.974	1.135	7.093	55.974
8	.990	6.190	62.165			
9	.897	5.605	67.770			
10	.863	5.395	73.165			
11	.845	5.281	78.446			
12	.811	5.066	83.512			
13	.696	4.350	87.862			
14	.668	4.176	92.038			
15	.663	4.141	96.179			
16	.611	3.821	100.000			

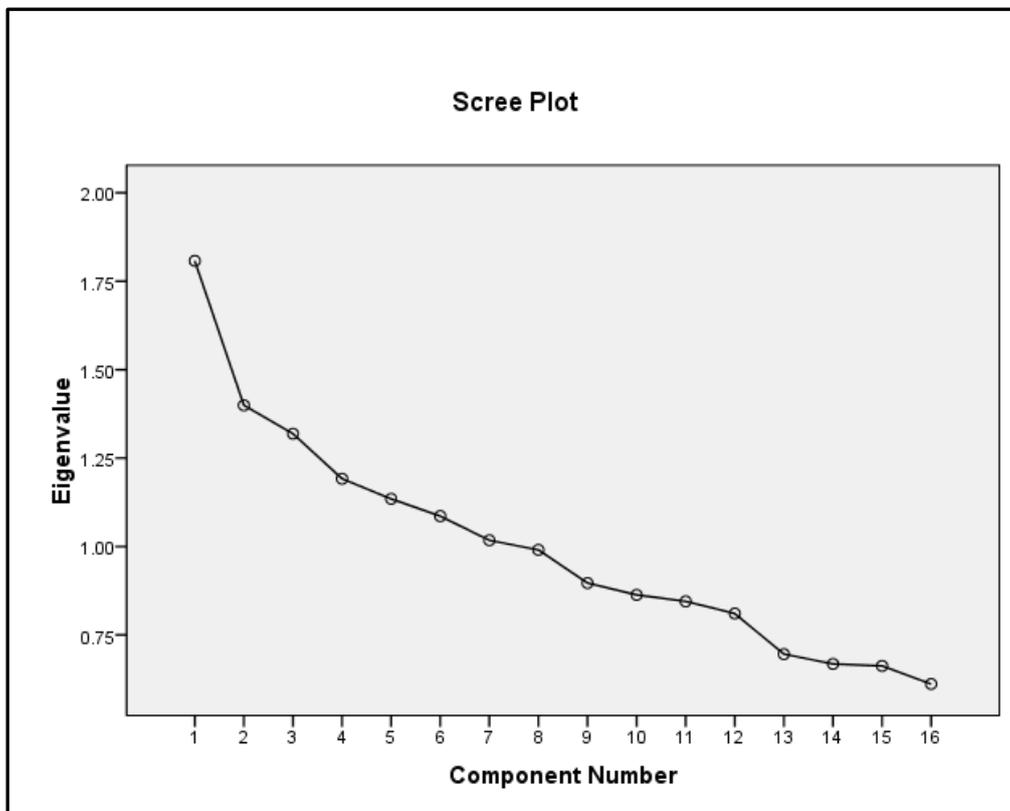
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Source: Primary Data (2019)

Table 6.13 shows that seven components were extracted after meeting pre-set condition in SPSS. The results from the Table 9.13 show that before rotation, components 1,2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7 had initial eigenvalues of 1.808, 1.399, 1.319, 1.192, 1.135, 1.086 and 1.018 respectively and accounted for 11.298%, 8.745%, 8.243%, 7.448%, 7.093%, 6.787% and 6.360% of the variance among the factors respectively. The rotation sum of squared loadings showed that the

eigenvalues for components 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7 were recomputed to 1.418, 1.396, 1.357, 1.316, 1.174, 1.160 and 1.135 respectively while their contributions to the variance were recalculated to 8.865%, 8.727%, 8.480%, 8.224%, 7.335%, 7.251% and 7.093 respectively.

From these results, it is confirmed that the Varimax rotation that converged after five simulations significantly enhanced data reduction process since after rotation exercise both eigenvalues and percentage variance explained by the components significantly changed.



**Figure 6.6. Scree Plot – Culture and Heritage**

Source: Primary Data (2019)

Figure 6.6 shows that from the 16 components, only 7 had eigenvalues greater than 1. The rest had eigenvalues less than 1. To understand the culture and heritage principal elements represented by eight extracted components, the factor loading of each item were considered using rotated component matrix shown in Table 6.14. It was set that factor loading less than

0.6 would be suppressed so that there was more precision in determining the factor on which the specific culture and heritage elements heavily loaded.

To decide on what these seven principal components represented to clarify culture and heritage elements that should be preferred in building NBI in Zimbabwe, the factor loadings of each item on extracted components were used.

**Table 6.14. Rotated Component Matrix – Culture and Heritage**

Rotated Component Matrix							
	Component						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The media informs and educates the inhabitants of Zimbabwe about the country's products and services.							
Local media promotes the image of Zimbabwe worldwide.						.808	
One can readily recall the symbols and logos attached to Zimbabwean products.							.839
Media limits exaggeration of the political situation in Zimbabwe							
Knowledge of foreign languages gives Zimbabwe as a nation a competitive advantage.							
National identity has a direct implication on nation branding.							
In Zimbabwe religion plays a major role in the educational system.							
Cross-cultural communication plays an important role in nation branding.							
Zimbabwe's educational level plays an important role in boosting the country's image.							
In Zimbabwe religion dictates the functioning of business transactions.					.791		
Winning of mega events like world cup soccer, Zimbabwe as a nation to gains nation branding awareness.	.667						
The media can play a diagnostic role in pointing out and suggesting control measures regarding corruption, crime, poverty, and other social ills.		.743					
Zimbabwean cultural events such as the Harare International Festival of the Arts (HIFA) attract people from various countries into Zimbabwe.		.662					
Zimbabwean cultural events such as music galas attract people from various countries.				.757			
In Zimbabwe various languages are used on brand labels that attract tourists.				.624			
The Zimbabwe's education system enables inhabitants to become better ambassadors of their country.			.727				

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation.

\*. Rotation converged in 14 iterations.

Source: Primary Data (2019)

Results from Table 6.14 show that a majority of factors have a factor loading less than 0.6. These include the media informs and educates the inhabitants of Zimbabwe about the country's products and services, Media limits exaggeration of the political situation in Zimbabwe, Knowledge of foreign languages gives Zimbabwe as a nation a competitive advantage, National identity has a direct implication on nation branding, In Zimbabwe, religion plays a major role in the educational system, Cross-cultural communication plays an important role in nation branding, and Zimbabwe's educational level plays an important role in boosting the country's image. These factors were automatically discarded for further analysis.

The results from Table 6.14 show that the winning of mega-events like the FIFA World Cup soccer tournament, Zimbabwe as a nation to gains nation branding awareness (factor loading 0.667) loaded heavily on principal component 1. The factors which loaded heavily on principal component factor 2 were the media can play a diagnostic role in pointing out and suggesting control measures regarding corruption, crime, poverty, and other social ills (factor loading = 0.743), and Zimbabwean cultural events such as the Harare International Festival of the Arts (HIFA) attract people from various countries into Zimbabwe (factor loading = 0.662). Accordingly, the principal component factor 2 can be referred to as Zimbabwe media has a diagnostic role and attracting events.

The factor "Zimbabwe's education system enables inhabitants to become better ambassadors of their country" (factor loading = 0.727) loaded heavily on principal component 3. Factors which are heavily loaded on principal component factor 4 include Zimbabwean cultural events such as music galas, which attract people from various countries, factor loading of 0.757 and In Zimbabwe, various languages are used on brand labels that attract tourists with a factor loading of 0.624. These factors can refer to Zimbabwe has attractive music and languages.

The factors such as local media promote the image of Zimbabwe worldwide (factor loading = 0.808), One can readily recall the symbols and logos attached to Zimbabwean products (factor loading = 0.839). In Zimbabwe, religion dictates the functioning of business transactions (factor loading = 0.791) loaded heavily on principal component factor 5, 6 and 7, respectively.

The principal component which was extracted from the factor analysis were presented in rank order for easier prioritisation of use of culture and heritage in constructing Zimbabwe NBI.

Table 6.15 provides a summary of the contributions of the seven major dimensions that were inferred from the categorical critical principal component factor analysis.

**Table 6.15. Total Variance Explained – Culture and Heritage**

Component	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1. Winning of mega events like world cup soccer, Zimbabwe as a nation gains nation branding awareness.	1.418	8.865	8.865
2. Zimbabwe media has diagnostic role and attracting events.	1.396	8.727	17.592
3. Zimbabwe's education system enables inhabitants to become better ambassadors of their country.	1.357	8.480	26.072
4. Zimbabwe has attractive music and languages.	1.316	8.224	34.296
5. local media promotes the image of Zimbabwe worldwide.	1.174	7.335	41.631
6. One can readily recall the symbols and logos attached to Zimbabwean products.	1.160	7.251	48.882
7. In Zimbabwe religion dictates the functioning of business transactions.	1.135	7.093	55.974

Source: Primary Data (2019)

The results from Table 6.15 show that the major culture and heritage elements that Zimbabwe should implement were summarised Table in 6.13 with their respective eigenvalues and variations towards NBI well-presented.

### 6.7.3. Impact of Tourism

The literature review has shown that there are various ways in which Tourism can be adopted to build NBI of Zimbabwe. In this study, participants were asked to rate ten tourism-related questions on a 5-point Likert Scale, rated from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree. The input from respondents was analysed by SPSS. To reduce the number of items into crucial tourism elements, a Categorical Critical Component analysis was used. The component analysis extraction method conducted involved a Varimax rotation with Kaiser Normalisation.

Table 6.16 shows the descriptive statistics descending means which were used to determine the relative importance of each sub-category of tourism. Mean scores and standard deviations were used to indicate the degree of agreement and disagreement of respondents on the ten initial tourism elements. The high mean value corresponds to a stronger agreement among participants, while low mean value suggests strong disagreement among respondents over the impact of the tourism element in question.

**Table 6.16. Descriptive Statistics – Tourism**

<b>Descriptive Statistics</b>			
	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Dev</b>
Cultural tourism is a means of economic support for traditional activities.	510	3.75	.520
Zimbabwe has a pleasant climate all year round for tourists and visitors.	510	3.63	.615
Cultural tourism is a basis for preserving a nation’s heritage that is important for the purpose of nation branding.	510	3.58	.608
Zimbabwe has established attractions like holiday resorts that can compete globally.	510	3.57	.641
Zimbabwe has world class hotel accommodation to make tourists, visitors and investors feel at home.	510	3.52	.583
The tourism sector contributes significantly to the country’s GDP.	510	3.49	.587
Zimbabwe’s image abroad encourages tourist arrivals.	510	3.42	.670
Tourist receipts increased in the last decade (2000-2010).	510	3.40	.633
Zimbabwe has transport services capable of hosting and conveying tourists from one point to another.	510	3.38	.655
Zimbabwe’s tourism sector has not been affected by the country’s domestic and foreign policies.	510	2.35	.651
Valid N (listwise)	510		

*Source:* Primary Data (2019)

Attempts could be made to use tourism to build the NBI framework in Zimbabwe. The results in Table 6.16 show that respondents agreed to the fact that cultural tourism is a means of economic support for traditional activities (mean = 3.75 and a standard deviation of 0.520).

Zimbabwe has a pleasant climate all year round for tourists and visitors (mean = 3.63, and standard deviation of 0.615), Cultural tourism is a basis for preserving a nation’s heritage that is important for nation branding (mean = 3.58, and standard deviation of 0.608).

Zimbabwe has established attractions like holiday resorts that can compete globally (mean = 3.57, and standard deviation of 0.641) and has world-class hotel accommodation to make tourists, visitors and investors feel at home (mean = 3.52, and standard deviation of 0.583). The respondents had a reciprocal understanding that tourism is of paramount importance in determining NBI in Zimbabwe.

One of the respondents was non-committal to the notion that:

*The tourism sector contributes significantly to the country's GDP, Zimbabwe's image abroad encourages tourist arrivals, tourist receipts increased in the last decade (2000-2010) and that Zimbabwe has transport services capable of hosting and conveying tourists from one point to another.*

This was indicated by a mean index score of 3.

In contrast, the results also revealed that another of the respondents disagreed with the notion that:

*Zimbabwe's tourism sector has not been affected by the country's domestic and foreign policies.*

This was indicated by a lower mean of 2.35 and a standard deviation of 0.651.

The above descriptive analysis was followed by factor analysis. The study employed the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test to measure sampling adequacy. Usually, for this test to be carried out, the data should be checked for normality and homoscedasticity. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test was used to determine the inter-correlation and validity among variables in a study sample as a requirement to see whether it is suitable to use the Factor Analysis method.

**Table 6.17. KMO and Bartlett's Test – Tourism**

<b>KMO and Bartlett's Test</b>		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.627
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	246.911
	df	45
	Sig.	.000

*Source:* Primary Data (2019)

The results above show the KMO value of 0.627, which is way above the rule of thumb measure of  $\alpha > 0.5$ . This implies that it is appropriate to use data reduction method. The Categorical Critical Component analysis was used. The SPSS version 22 software platform was used to carry out Factor Analysis. In doing so, a varimax method of rotation was preferred in the extraction of principal components. The extraction criteria being an eigenvalue greater than 1. Table 6.18 shows that two components were extracted after satisfying this condition.

**Table 6.18. Principal Component Factors Extracted – Tourism**

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.743	17.429	17.429	1.540	15.405	15.405
2	1.489	14.887	32.316	1.482	14.821	30.226
3	1.153	11.534	43.850	1.362	13.625	43.850
4	.932	9.323	53.173			
5	.905	9.054	62.227			
6	.829	8.287	70.514			
7	.801	8.009	78.523			
8	.758	7.578	86.101			
9	.713	7.133	93.233			
10	.677	6.767	100.000			

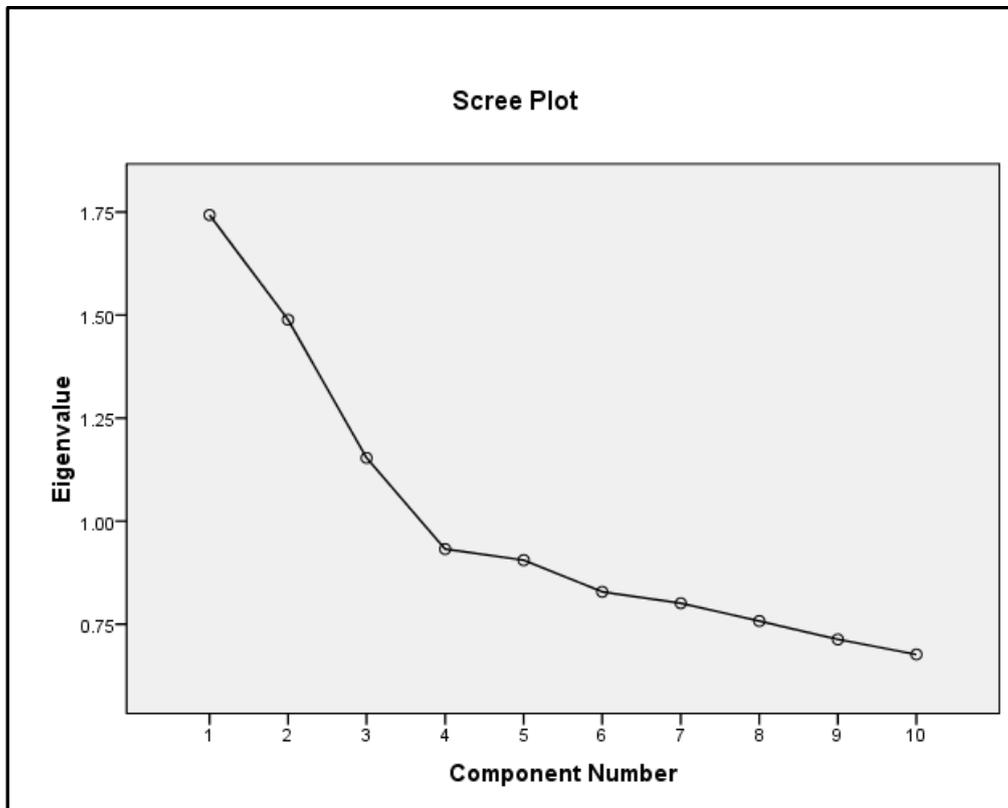
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Source: Primary Data (2019)

The results from the Table 6.18 show that before rotation, components 1, 2 and 3 had initial eigenvalues of 1.743, 1.489 and 1.153 respectively and accounted for 17.429%, 14.887% and 11.534% of the variance among the factors respectively. The rotation sum of squared loadings showed that the eigenvalues for components 1, 2 and 3 were recomputed to 1.540, 1.482, and 1.362.

While their contributions to the variance were recalculated to 15.405%, 14.821% and 13.625% respectively. From these results, it is confirmed that the Varimax rotation that converged after 12 simulations significantly enhanced data reduction exercise since after rotation, both eigenvalues and percentage variance explained by the components significantly changed.

A scree plot was also provided in the analysis as shown in Figure 6.7 to confirm the extraction of two components.



**Figure 6.7. Scree Plot – Tourism**

Source: Primary Data (2019)

The scree plots start to flatten after the first three principal components in line with the extraction default cut-off point of eigenvalues value less than 1. All other components which were after the third were discarded from the analysis. The Rotated Component Matrix was used to determine the exact nature of the three principal components extracted. The loadings of each item on the extracted components are shown in Table 6.19.

**Table 6.19. Rotated Component Matrix – Tourism**

Rotated Component Matrix			
	Component		
	1	2	3
Zimbabwe has a pleasant climate all year round for tourists and visitors.			
Zimbabwe has world class hotel accommodation to make tourists, visitors and investors feel at home.	.657		
Cultural tourism is a means of economic support for traditional activities.			
Zimbabwe has transport services capable of hosting and conveying tourists from one point to another.	.622		
Cultural tourism is a basis for preserving a nation's heritage that is important for the purpose of nation branding.		.676	
Zimbabwe has established attractions like holiday resorts that can compete globally.			
Zimbabwe's image abroad encourages tourist arrivals.	.630		
Zimbabwe's tourism sector has not been affected by the country's domestic and foreign policies.			
Tourist receipts increased in the last decade (2000-2010).			
The tourism sector contributes significantly to the country's GDP.			.662

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation.

<sup>a</sup> Rotation converged in 12 iterations.

Source: Primary data (2019)

The results from the Table 6.19 shows that items namely Zimbabwe has a pleasant climate all year round for tourists and visitors, Cultural tourism is a means of economic support for traditional activities, Zimbabwe has established attractions like holiday resorts that can compete globally, Zimbabwe's tourism sector has not been affected by the country's domestic

and foreign policies and Tourist receipts increased in the last decade (2000-2010) has a factor loading less than 0.6 as pre-set in the SPSS. These items were, therefore discarded from subsequent analysis to determine the latent tourism dimensions represented by the critical extracted principal components.

The results from the Table 6.19 show that Zimbabwe has world-class hotel accommodation to make tourists, visitors and investors feel at home (factor loading = 0.657), Zimbabwe has transport services capable of hosting and conveying tourists from one point to another (factor loading = 0.622) and Zimbabwe's image abroad encourages tourist arrivals (factor loading = 0.630) loaded heavily on principal component 1. These factors were inclined to "Zimbabwe has world-class infrastructure and transport facilities which improve its image abroad".

The factor which loaded heavily on principal component factor 2 was Cultural tourism is a basis for preserving a nation's heritage that is important for the purpose of nation branding (factor loading = 0.676) and finally the factor. The tourism sector contributes significantly to the country's GDP (factor loading = 0.662) had loaded on principal component factor 3.

The Table 6.20 shows the rotation sum of loadings that ranks the three broad tourism indices.

**Table 6.20. Total Variance Explained – Tourism**

Component	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1. Zimbabwe has world class infrastructure and transport facilities which improve its image abroad.	1.540	15.405	15.405
2. Cultural tourism is a basis for preserving a nation's heritage that is important for the purpose of nation branding.	1.482	14.821	30.226
3. The tourism sector contributes significantly to the country's GDP.	1.362	13.625	43.850

Source: Primary Data (2019)

From the general themes emerging from each component, it was inferred that the three tourism elements that could be adopted in building NBI in Zimbabwe were: Zimbabwe has world-class infrastructure and transport facilities which improve its image abroad with an eigenvalue of 1.540 and accounting for 15.405% in variation in NBI, Cultural tourism is a basis for preserving a nation's heritage that is important for nation branding which has an eigenvalue of 1.482 and accounting for 14.821% variation in NBI and

The tourism sector contributes significantly to the country's GDP which has an eigenvalue of 1.362 and accounting for 13.625 in variation in NBI.

#### 6.7.4. Impact of Exports

Another key outcome to this study is to determine the influence of exports in determination on NBI framework in Zimbabwe. Descriptive statistics has been used to sum-up responses from large numbers of respondents into few simple statistics. Table 6.21 shows the descriptive statistics of the dimensions that were measured on a 5 Point Likert Scale.

**Table 6.21. Descriptive Statistics for Exports**

<b>Descriptive Statistics</b>			
	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Dev</b>
Country of origin has an effect on the selection of a product or brand.	510	3.76	.527
The country-of-origin effect has an influence on a country's image with regards to the differentiation and value of the product on the market.	510	3.56	.567
Zimbabwean brands bring pleasant memories to people's minds.	510	3.49	.597
Zimbabwean brands are associated with high quality.	510	3.46	.656
Zimbabwe's brands are easily recognisable among other competitive brands from foreign countries.	510	3.46	.615
Zimbabwe's brands highly satisfy peoples' needs.	510	3.46	.586
Zimbabwe products are frequently purchased in comparison to foreign products.	510	3.42	.640
Zimbabwe excels in promoting the growth of exports and imports of local products to the global market.	510	3.40	.658
Products produced in Zimbabwe are regarded as inferior in quality from those of other countries in the same industry or sector.	510	3.31	.581
People want to buy and use Zimbabwean products more than products from foreign countries.	510	3.07	.780
Foreigners have a positive attitude towards Zimbabwean products.	510	2.91	.562
Zimbabwe ranks high on the World Economic Forum on Global Competitiveness Index.	510	2.31	.745
Valid N (listwise).	509		

*Source: Primary Data (2019)*

Considering the elements of exports, the results from Table 6.21 showed that study respondents agreed that country of origin has an effect on the selection of a product or brand. The country-of-origin effect has an influence on a country's image with regards to the differentiation and value of the product on the market. These were indicated by high mean scores of 3.76, 3.56

and 3.50, respectively. It can therefore be concluded that even though there is less attention to Zimbabwean exports, the products are of acceptable quality.

The results show that respondents were neutral to the majority of export elements (those with a mean score of 3). These include Zimbabwean brands bring pleasant memories to people's minds.

Zimbabwean brands are associated with high quality, Zimbabwe's brands are easily recognisable among other competitive brands from foreign countries, Zimbabwe's brands highly satisfy peoples' needs, Zimbabwe products are frequently purchased in comparison to foreign products, Zimbabwe excels in promoting the growth of exports and imports of local products to the global market, Products produced in Zimbabwe are regarded as inferior in quality from those of other countries in the same industry or sector, People want to buy and use Zimbabwean products more than products from foreign countries and foreigners have a positive attitude towards Zimbabwean products.

The respondents disagreed with the notion that Zimbabwe ranks high on the World Economic Forum on Global Competitiveness Index. This is indicated by a low mean score of 2.31.

The study employed KMO to measure the sampling adequacy.

The lower the value, the more suited the data is to Factor Analysis. Table 6.22 shows KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.603, which was above the recommended value of 0.5., hence the data is suitable to undertake the Factor Analysis model.

**Table 6.22. KMO and Bartlett's Test – Exports**

<b>KMO and Bartlett's Test</b>		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.603
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	303.005
	Df	66
	Sig.	.000

*Source:* Primary Data (2019)

Bartlett's Test indicates the strength of the relationship amongst variables. It tests the null hypothesis that the correlation matrix is an identity matrix. Table 6.22 shows that Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is significant ( $\chi^2(66) = 303.005, p < 0.001$ ) since it is lower than 0.05. The significance level is small enough to allow for the rejection of the null hypothesis. The significant results mean that the correlation between various export elements were sufficiently large to permit the use of factor analysis.

The Principal Component Factor analysis extraction method was adopted. The SPSS version 22 software package was used to model the factor analysis. The analysis used the SPSS default criterion of retaining components whose eigenvalue is greater than Kaiser (greater than 1).

**Table 6.23. Principal Component Factor Extracted – Exports**

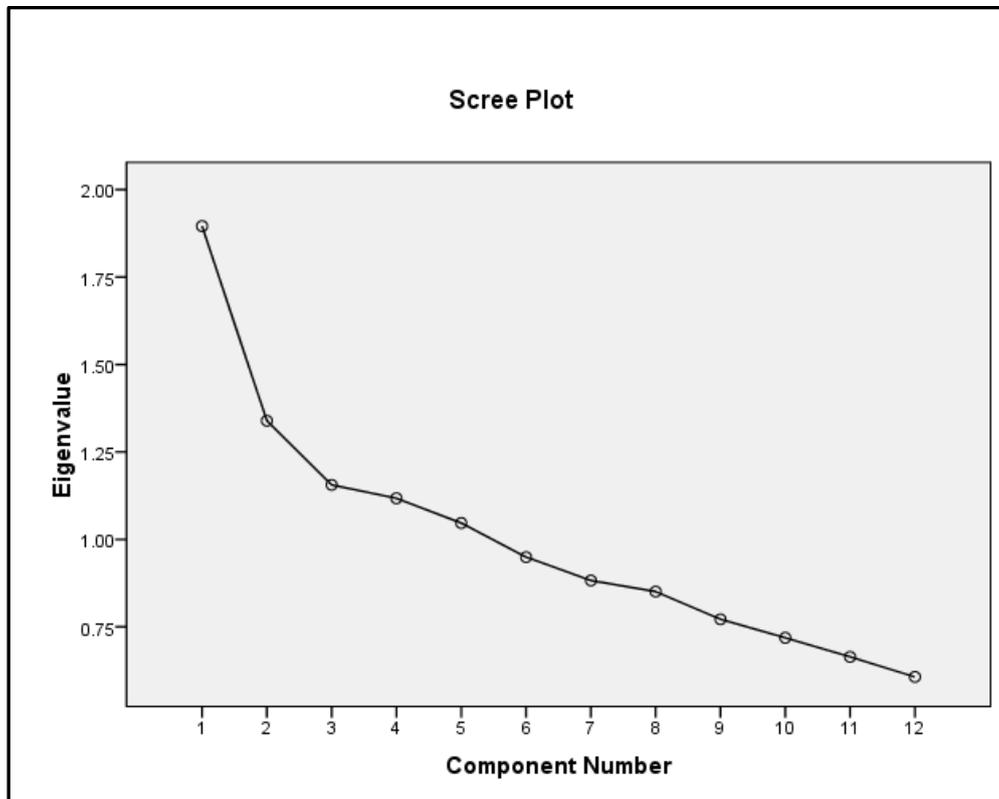
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.896	15.797	15.797	1.814	15.115	15.115
2	1.339	11.161	26.958	1.220	10.170	25.285
3	1.156	9.632	36.590	1.186	9.887	35.172
4	1.118	9.313	45.903	1.173	9.773	44.945
5	1.047	8.724	54.627	1.162	9.682	54.627
6	.949	7.912	62.539			
7	.883	7.355	69.894			
8	.851	7.090	76.983			
9	.772	6.432	83.415			
10	.719	5.990	89.405			
11	.664	5.536	94.941			
12	.607	5.059	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Source: Primary Data (2019)

Table 6.23 shows that 8 components were extracted after meeting this condition. The results from the Table 6.19 show that before rotation, components 1,2, 3, 4 and 5 had initial eigenvalues of 1.896, 1.339, 1.156, 1.118 and 1.047 respectively and accounted for 15.797%, 11.161%, 9.632%, 9.313% and 8.724 of the variance among the factors respectively. The rotation sum of squared loadings showed that the eigenvalues for components 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 were recomputed to 1.814, 1.220, 1.186, 1.173 and 1.162 respectively, while their contributions to the variance were recalculated to 15.115%, 10.170%, and 9.887%, 9.773% and 9.682% respectively. From these results, it is confirmed that the Varimax rotation that converged after

five simulations significantly enhanced data reduction process since after rotation exercise, both eigenvalues and percentage variance explained by the components significantly changed.



**Figure 6.8. Scree Plot – Exports**

Source: Primary Data (2019)

Figure 6.8 shows that, from the 13 components, only 5 had eigenvalues greater than a pre-set Kaiser of 1. The rest had eigenvalues less than 1. To understand the principal exports elements represented by five principal components factors, the factor loading of each reform were considered using the rotated component matrix shown in Table 6.24. It was set that factor loading less than 0.6 would be suppressed so that there was more precision in determining the factor on which the specific exports elements are heavily loaded.

**Table 6.24. Rotated Component Matrix – Exports**

Rotated Component Matrix					
	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
Country of origin has an effect on the selection of a product or brand.			.762		
Zimbabwean brands bring pleasant memories to people's minds.				.841	
Products produced in Zimbabwe are regarded as inferior in quality from those of other countries in the same industry or sector.					.817
The country-of-origin effect has an influence on a country's image with regards to the differentiation and value of the product on the market.		.677			
Zimbabwe's brands highly satisfy peoples' needs.					
Zimbabwe's brands are easily recognisable among other competitive brands from foreign countries.					
People want to buy and use Zimbabwean products more than from products.					
Zimbabwe excels in promoting the growth of exports and imports of local products to the global market.	.602				
Zimbabwean brands are associated with high quality.					
Foreigners have a positive attitude towards Zimbabwean products.			.603		
Zimbabwe products are frequently purchased in comparison to foreign products.	.725				

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation.

<sup>a</sup> Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

Source: Primary Data (2019)

There were factors from the instrument which have factor loading less than 0.6 as set in the SPSS. These include Zimbabwe's brands highly satisfy peoples' needs, Zimbabwe's brands are easily recognisable among other competitive brands from foreign countries, People want to buy and use Zimbabwean products more than from products and Zimbabwean brands are

associated with high quality. These factors were automatically discarded from the list for further analysis.

The results from the Table 6.24 show that Zimbabwe excels in promoting the growth of exports and imports of local products to the global market (factor loading 0.602) and Zimbabwe products are frequently purchased in comparison to foreign products (factor loading = 0.725) loaded heavily on principal component 1. These factors, if connected, would mean Zimbabwe is promoting its products in domestic and international markets.

The factor which loaded heavily on principal component factor 2 was that the country-of-origin effect has an influence on a country's image with regards to the differentiation and value of the product on the market (factor loading = 0.677).

The factors which loaded heavily on principal component 3 were Country of origin has an effect on the selection of a product or brand (factor loading = 0.762) and Foreigners have a positive attitude towards Zimbabwean products (factor loading = 0.603). These factors could mean a foreigner has a positive perception towards the selection of Zimbabwean products.

Zimbabwean brands bring pleasant memories to people's minds (factor loading = 0.841) and Products produced in Zimbabwe are regarded as inferior in quality from those of other countries in the same industry or sector (factor loading = 0.817) loaded heavily on principal component factor 4 and 5 respectively.

The principal components which were extracted from the factor analysis were presented in rank order for easier prioritisation of use of culture and heritage in constructing Zimbabwe NBI. Table 6.25 provides a summary of the contributions of the seven major dimensions that were inferred from the categorical critical principal component factor analysis.

**Table 6.25. Total Variance Explained – Exports**

Component	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1. Zimbabwe is promoting its products in domestic and international markets.	1.814	15.115	15.115
2. The country-of-origin effect has an influence on a country's image with regards to the differentiation and value of the product on the market.	1.220	10.170	25.285
3. Foreigners have a positive attitude towards Zimbabwean products.	1.186	9.887	35.172
4. Zimbabwean brands bring pleasant memories to people's minds.	1.173	9.773	44.945
5. Products produced in Zimbabwe are regarded as inferior in quality from those of other countries in the same industry or sector.	1.162	9.682	54.627

*Source:* Primary Data (2019)

From the principal component factor analysis, it has been deduced that the major export elements to be considered when constructing NBI in Zimbabwe include Zimbabwe is promoting its products in international markets which has an eigenvalue of 1.814 and accounting for 15.115% variation in NBI. The country-of-origin effect has an influence on a country's image with regards to the differentiation and value of the product on the market, having an eigenvalue of 1.220 and accounting for 10.170% variation in NBI, Foreigners have a positive perception towards the selection of Zimbabwean products, the eigenvalue of 1.186 and variation towards NBI of 9.887%. The other two factors on the list include, Zimbabwean brands bring pleasant memories to people's minds and, Products produced in Zimbabwe are regarded as inferior in quality from those of other countries in the same industry or sector.

### 6.7.5. Impact of Investments and Immigration

Descriptive statistics has been used to sum-up responses from large numbers of respondents into few simple statistics. Table 6.26 shows the descriptive statistics of the dimensions that were measured on a 5 Point Likert Scale.

**Table 6.26. Descriptive Statistics for Investments and Immigration**

<b>Descriptive Statistics</b>			
	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Dev</b>
Zimbabwe's natural endowments like minerals attract foreign investors.	510	3.59	.584
Hosting international events attracts foreign investors.	510	3.51	.620
In Zimbabwe foreign investors boost the image of the country.	509	3.47	.613
Zimbabwe Investment Authority registered an increase of investors in Zimbabwe in the last decade.	509	3.41	.651
In Zimbabwe foreign investors foster successful linkages between international firms and local firms.	510	3.40	.676
The Ease-of-Doing business in Zimbabwe has significantly improved business.	510	3.40	.654
In Zimbabwe foreign investors attract talent and expertise into the country.	510	3.17	.769
The indigenisation and Economic Empowerment Act attract foreign Direct Investment.	510	2.78	.654
The economic environment in Zimbabwe promotes the growth of foreign direct investment.	510	2.37	1.122
Zimbabwe's infrastructure promotes foreign investment.	510	2.36	1.084
Valid N (listwise).	508		

*Source:* Primary Data (2019)

The descriptive study results showed that respondents agreed that Zimbabwe’s natural endowments like minerals attract foreign investors and hosting international events, attracts foreign investors. These were indicated by high mean scores of 3.59 and 3.51, respectively.

Results show that respondents were neutral to most of the investment and Immigration elements (those with a mean score of 3). These include in Zimbabwe foreign investors boost the image of the country, Zimbabwe Investment Authority registered an increase of investors in Zimbabwe in the last decade, In Zimbabwe, foreign investors foster successful linkages between international and local companies, The Ease-of-Doing business in Zimbabwe has significantly improved business, In Zimbabwe, foreign investors attract talent and expertise into the country and that the Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment Act attracts FDI.

The respondents disagreed with the notions that the economic environment in Zimbabwe promotes the growth of foreign direct investment and that Zimbabwe’s infrastructure promotes foreign investment. These were indicated by low mean scores of 2.37 and 2.36, respectively.

The study employed KMO to measure the sampling adequacy. Table 6.27 shows the KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.571, which was above the recommended value of 0.5. Hence the data is suitable to undertake the Factor Analysis model.

**Table 6.27. KMO and Bartlett’s Test for Investments and Immigration**

<b>KMO and Bartlett’s Test</b>		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.571
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	264.001
	df	36
	Sig.	.000

Source: Primary Data (2019)

Table 6.27 shows that Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity is significant ( $\chi^2 (36) = 264.001, p < 0.001$ ) since it is lower than 0.05. The significant results mean that the correlation between various export elements were sufficiently large to permit the use of factor analysis. The Principal Component Factor analysis extraction method was adopted with Kaiser Normalisation. The SPSS version 22 software platform was used to model the factor analysis. The study used the SPSS default criterion of retaining components whose eigenvalue is greater than 1.

**Table 6.28. Principal Component Factors Extracted: Investments and Immigration**

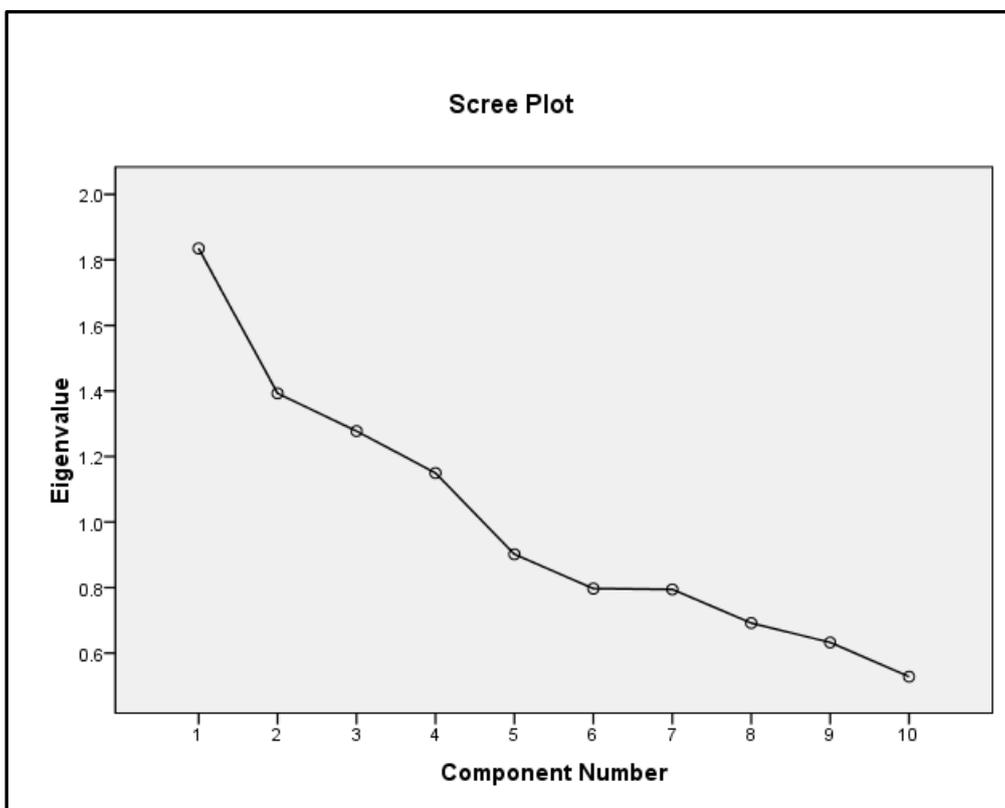
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.835	18.349	18.349	1.502	15.023	15.023
2	1.393	13.926	32.274	1.454	14.538	29.561
3	1.278	12.775	45.050	1.393	13.934	43.495
4	1.150	11.496	56.546	1.305	13.051	56.546
5	.902	9.017	65.563			
6	.797	7.970	73.533			
7	.794	7.944	81.477			
8	.692	6.917	88.394			
9	.633	6.325	94.719			
10	.528	5.281	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Source: Primary Data (2019)

Table 6.28 shows that four components have eigenvalues greater than 1. The results from the Table 6.28 show that before rotation, components 1, 2, 3 and 4 had initial eigenvalues of 1.835, 1.393, 1.278 and 1.150 respectively and accounted for 18.349%, 13.926%, 12.775% and

11.496% of the variance among the factors respectively. The rotation sum of squared loadings showed that the eigenvalues for components 1, 2, 3 and 4 were recomputed to 1.502, 1.454, 1.393 and 1.305 respectively while their contributions to the variance were recalculated to 15.023%, 14.538%, 13.934% and 13.051% respectively. From these results, it is confirmed that the Varimax rotation that converged after 5 simulations significantly enhanced data reduction method since, after rotation exercise, both eigenvalues and percentage variance explained by the components significantly changed.



**Figure 6.9. Scree Plot – Investments and Immigration**

Source: Primary Data (2019)

Figure 6.9 shows that, from the 10 components, only 4 had eigenvalues greater than 1. The rest had eigenvalues less than 1. To understand the elements represented by four principal components factors, the factor loading of each reform were considered using the rotated component matrix shown in Table 6.29. It was set that factor loading less than 0.6 would be

suppressed so that there was more precision in determining the factor on which the specific investment and immigration elements are heavily loaded.

**Table 6.29. Rotated Component Matrix – Investments and Immigration**

Rotated Component Matrix				
	Component			
	1	2	3	4
In Zimbabwe foreign investors attract talent and expertise into the country.	.768			
In Zimbabwe foreign investors foster successful linkages between international firms and local firms.	.704			
The indigenisation and Economic Empowerment Act attract foreign Direct Investment.	.628			
In Zimbabwe foreign investors boost the image of the country.				
Hosting international events attracts foreign investors.				.735
The economic environment in Zimbabwe promotes the growth of foreign direct investment.		.854		
Zimbabwe's infrastructure promotes foreign investment.		.823		
Zimbabwe Investment Authority registered an increase of investors in Zimbabwe in the last decade.			.655	
Zimbabwe's natural endowments like minerals attract foreign investors.				.657
The Ease-of-Doing business in Zimbabwe has significantly improved business.			.781	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation.

<sup>a</sup> Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Source: Primary Data (2019)

Results from the Rotated Component Matrix above indicate that the factor “In Zimbabwe foreign investors boost the image of the country” has factor loading less than 0.6 and was therefore discarded from for further analysis in this study.

Results from Table 6.29 also show that foreign investors attract talent and expertise into the country (factor loading = 0.768), in Zimbabwe foreign investors foster successful linkages between international and local companies (factor loading = 0.704) and that the Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment Act attracts FDI (factor loading = 0.628) heavily loaded on principal component factor 1. These factors if considered collectively, could relate to Zimbabwe policies, attracts FDI, improve international linkages and attracts talent and expertise.

Factors which loaded heavily on principal component factor 2 were that the economic environment in Zimbabwe promotes the growth of foreign direct investment (factor loading = 0.854) and that Zimbabwe’s infrastructure promotes foreign investment (factor loading = 0.823) these factors are inclines towards Zimbabwe infrastructure and economic promote FDI. These factors would collectively refer to Zimbabwe economic environment and infrastructure promote FDI.

The items Zimbabwe Investment Authority registered an increase of investors in Zimbabwe in the last decade (factor loading = 0.655) and that the Ease-of-Doing business in Zimbabwe has significantly improved business (factor loading = 0.781) heavily loaded on principal component factor 3. These factors could collectively mean Zimbabwe Investment Authority promote investments and there is Ease-of-Doing business.

Lastly, two factors which loaded heavily on principal component factor 4 were Hosting international events attracts foreign investors (factor loading = 0.735) and that Zimbabwe’s

natural endowments like minerals attract foreign investors (factor loading = 0.657). These factors refer to Zimbabwe minerals, and international events attract foreign investors.

The principal component factors which were extracted from the factor analysis were presented in rank order for easier prioritisation of use of investment and Immigration in constructing Zimbabwe NBI. Table 6.30 shows a summary of the contributions of the seven major dimensions that were inferred from the categorical critical principal component factor analysis.

**Table 6.30. Total Variance Explained – Investments and Immigration**

Component	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1. Zimbabwe’s policies attracts FDI, improve international linkages and attracts talent and expertise.	1.502	15.023	15.023
2. Zimbabwe’s economic environment and infrastructure promote FDI.	1.454	14.538	29.561
3. Zimbabwe Investment Authority promotes investments and the is Ease-of-Doing business	1.393	13.934	43.495
4. Zimbabwe minerals and international events attract foreign investors.	1.305	13.051	56.546

Source: Primary Data (2019)

Table 6.30 for total variance explained shows a summary of 4 extracted principal component factors. These include firstly, Zimbabwe policies attract FDI, improve international linkages and attracts talent and expertise 1.502 and accounting for 15.023% variation in NBI. Secondly, the Zimbabwe economic environment and infrastructure promote FDI, which has an eigenvalue of 1.454 and contribution of 14.538% of the variation in NBI. Thirdly, Zimbabwe Investment Authority registered an increase of investors and Ease-of-Doing business which has an eigenvalue of 1.393 and variation of 13.934% in the determination of NBI and finally,

Zimbabwe minerals and international events attract foreign investors which has an eigenvalue of 1.305 and accounting for 13.051% variation in NBI.

#### 6.7.6. Impact of Governance

To make a sound analysis of the governance element, descriptive statistics and factor analysis were done before regression modelling. From the descriptive analysis, the mean and standard deviation of each sub-category of governance was calculated, and results were tabulated in Table 6.31.

**Table 6.31. Descriptive Statistics – Governance**

<b>Descriptive Statistics</b>			
	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Dev</b>
The absence of seizing of assets of foreigners with compensation attracts foreign investment.	510	3.05	.910
In Zimbabwe it is easy to communicate important information to foreigners, tourists, and visitors.	510	3.03	.866
In Zimbabwe consistency in implementing the rule of law attracts foreign investors.	510	3.00	.963
The presence of sophisticated infrastructure and technology in Zimbabwe’s tertiary institutions boost the image of the country.	510	2.95	.941
Zimbabweans enjoy basic human rights.	510	2.8686	.85970
In Zimbabwe political stability helps to boost the country’s image.	510	2.71	1.042
Zimbabwe upholds the repatriation of profits by foreigners to their home countries.	510	2.65	1.010
Zimbabwe’s policies give confidence and hope to the investors.	510	2.62	.984
Zimbabwe promotes a favourable environment for peace, equal opportunity, and economic viability for all inhabitants of the country.	510	2.61	1.040
National policies regarding taxation on foreign business investment boosts the economy of the country.	510	2.61	1.031
Zimbabwe upholds property rights of both locals and foreigners.	510	2.60	1.046
Valid N (listwise).	510		

Source: Primary Data (2019)

The results from the descriptive statistics show that respondents were neutral to all the governance elements. This is indicated by a mean index score of 3 for all dimensions.

The study employed the KMO to measure the sampling adequacy. The lower the value, the more suited the data is to Factor Analysis. Table 6.32 shows that the KMO measure of

sampling adequacy was 0.921, which was above the recommended value of 0.5. Hence the data is suitable to undertake the Factor Analysis model. Bartlett's Test indicates the strength of the relationship amongst variables. It tests the null hypothesis that the correlation matrix is an identity matrix.

**Table 6.32. KMO and Bartlett's Test – Governance**

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.921
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1.805E3
	df	55
	Sig.	.000

*Source:* Primary Data (2019)

Table 6.32 shows that Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is significant ( $\chi^2 (55) = 1.805E3, p < 0.01$ ) since it is lower than 0.05. The significance level is small enough to allow for the rejection of the null hypothesis. The significant results mean that the correlation between various governance elements were sufficiently large to permit the use of factor analysis.

The Principal Component Factor analysis extraction method was adopted with Kaiser Normalisation. The analysis used the SPSS default criterion of retaining components whose eigenvalue is greater than 1.

**Table 6.33. Principal Component Factors Extracted – Governance**

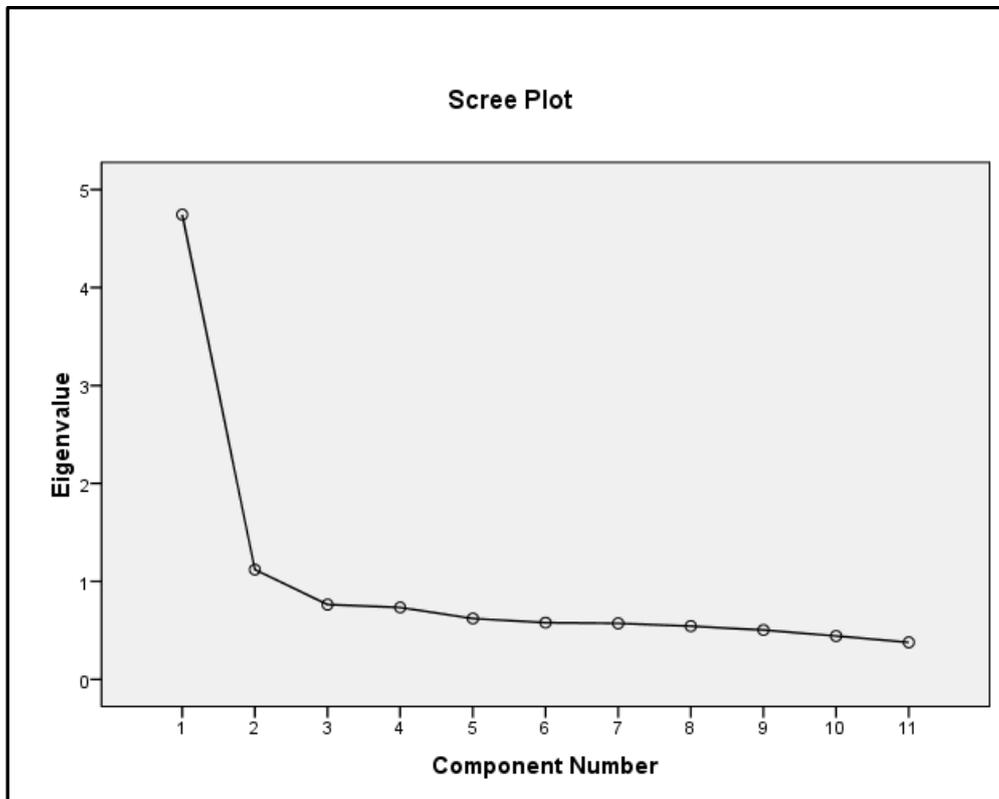
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.745	43.134	43.134	2.985	27.133	27.133
2	1.120	10.185	53.319	2.880	26.186	53.319
3	.763	6.940	60.259			
4	.734	6.669	66.928			
5	.620	5.641	72.569			
6	.579	5.263	77.833			
7	.572	5.196	83.029			
8	.543	4.939	87.968			
9	.503	4.575	92.543			
10	.442	4.022	96.566			
11	.378	3.434	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Source: Primary Data (2019)

Table 6.33 shows that two components were extracted after meeting the pre-set condition (eigenvalue greater than 1). The results from Table 6.33 show that before rotation, components 1 and 2 had initial eigenvalues of 4.745 and 1.120 respectively and accounted for 43.134% and 10.185% of the variance among the factors respectively. The rotation sum of squared loadings showed that the eigenvalues for components 1 and 2 were recomputed to 2.985 and 2.880 respectively while their contributions to the variance were recalculated to 27.133% and 26.186% respectively. From these results, it is confirmed that the Varimax rotation that converged after two iterations significantly enhanced data reduction method since after rotation

exercise, both eigenvalues and percentage variance explained by the components significantly changed.



**Figure 6.10. Scree Plot – Governance**

Source: Primary Data (2019)

Figure 6.10 shows that from the 11 components, only 2 had eigenvalues greater than 1. The rest had eigenvalues less than 1. To understand the elements represented by two principal components factors, the factor loading of each reform were considered using rotated component matrix shown in Table 6.34. It was set that factor loading less than 0.6 would be suppressed so that there was more precision in determining the factor on which the specific governance elements heavily loaded.

**Table 6.34. Rotated Component Matrix – Governance**

Rotated Component Matrix		
	Component	
	1	2
Zimbabwe promotes a favourable environment for peace, equal opportunity, and economic viability for all inhabitants of the country.		
The presence of sophisticated infrastructure and technology in Zimbabwe's tertiary institutions boost the image of the country.		.699
National policies regarding taxation on foreign business investment boosts the economy of the country.		
The absence of seizing of assets of foreigners with compensation attracts foreign investment.		.678
In Zimbabwe political stability helps to boost the country's image.	.652	
In Zimbabwe consistency in implementing the rule of law attracts foreign investors.	.745	
In Zimbabwe it is easy to communicate important information to foreigners, tourists, and visitors.	.720	
Zimbabwe's policies give confidence and hope to investors.		
Zimbabwe upholds the repatriation of profits by foreigners to their home countries.		
Zimbabwe upholds property rights of both locals and foreigners.		
Zimbabweans enjoy basic human rights.		.718

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation.

<sup>a</sup>. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Source: Primary Data (2019)

The results from the Rotated Component Matrix, Table 6.34 indicates that the factors which have factor loading less than 0.6 were: Zimbabwe promotes a favourable environment for peace, equal opportunity and economic viability for all inhabitants of the country, National

policies regarding taxation on foreign business investment boosts the economy of the country, Zimbabwe's policies give confidence and hope to the investors, Zimbabwe upholds the repatriation of profits by foreigners to their home countries and Zimbabwe upholds property rights of both locals and foreigners. These factors were therefore discarded for further analysis in this study.

The dimensions involving Zimbabwe's political stability help to boost the country's image (factor loading = .652). In Zimbabwe, consistency in implementing the rule of law, attracts foreign investors (factor loading = 0.745). Furthermore, in Zimbabwe, it is easy to communicate important information to foreigners, tourists, and visitors (factor loading = 0.720) heavily loaded on principal component factor 1. These factors, if considered collectively could relate to Zimbabwe's political stability, communication, and the rule of law boost country image.

Factors which loaded heavily on principal component factor 2 were that the presence of sophisticated infrastructure and technology in Zimbabwe's tertiary institutions boost the image of the country (factor loading = 0.699), the absence of seizing of assets of foreigners with compensation attracts foreign investment (factor loading = 0.678), and Zimbabweans enjoy basic human rights (factor loading = 0.718). These factors are inclined towards Zimbabwe has sophisticated infrastructure and technology in tertiary institutions, property, and human rights.

The principal component factors which were extracted from the factor analysis were presented in rank order for easier prioritisation of use of governance in constructing Zimbabwe NBI. Table 6.35 provides a summary of the contributions of the two major dimensions that were inferred from the categorical critical principal component factor analysis.

**Table 6.35. Total Variance Explained – Governance**

Component	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1. Zimbabwe’s political stability, communication, and rule of law boost country image.	2.985	27.133	27.133
2. Zimbabwe has sophisticated infrastructure and technology in tertiary institutions, property, and human rights.	2.880	26.186	53.319

*Source:* Primary Data (2019)

Table 6.35 shows the two principal component factors. Firstly, Zimbabwe political stability, communication, and the rule of law boost country image 2.985, accounting for 27.133% variation in NBI. Secondly, Zimbabwe has advanced ICT in tertiary institutions, property, and human rights, which has an eigenvalue of 2.880 and contribution of 26.186% of the variation in NBI.

**Table 6.36. Summary of Component Factor Analysis, Reliability and Validity Analysis**

Dimension	Constructs	Factor Loading ( $\alpha \geq 0.6$ )	Cronbach Alpha	Composite Reliability
People	A2	0.633	0.348	0.7173
	A5	0.718		
	A6	0.702		
	A8	0.664		
	A9	0.758		
	A12	0.776		
	A13	0.801		
	A15	0.727		
	A17	0.749		
Culture and Heritage	B2	0.808	0.335	0.735
	B3	0.839		
	B10	0.791		
	B11	0.667		
	B12	0.743		
	B13	0.662		
	B14	0.757		
	B15	0.624		
Tourism	C2	0.657	0.383	0.65
	C4	0.622		
	C5	0.676		
	C7	0.63		
	C10	0.662		
Exports	D1	0.762	0.449	0.718
	D2	0.841		
	D3	0.817		
	D4	0.677		
	D8	0.602		
	D10	0.603		
Investment and Immigration	D11	0.725	0.484	0.734
	E1	0.768		
	E2	0.704		
	E3	0.628		
	E5	0.735		
	E6	0.854		
	E7	0.823		
	E8	0.655		
	E9	0.657		
	E10	0.781		
Governance	F2	0.699	0.865	0.719
	F4	0.678		
	F5	0.752		
	F6	0.745		
	F7	0.72		
	F11	0.718		

Source: Primary Data (2019)

While the above analysis provided discerning information, additional analyses were required to explicate the landscape of relationships between dependent variables and independent variables in line with the research model and the six hypotheses formulated. Regression analysis was done as will be detailed below.

## **6.8. Regression Analysis**

Regression Analysis assumes that the relationship involving two variables is linear, that is, increase in values on one variable relates to 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 (Zikmud & Babin, 2010). In this present study, a conceptual model was used. Linear Regression Analysis was done to establish the relationships formulated in the relevant set of hypotheses. It was used to measure the linear association between the independent and dependent variable.

Multiple linear regression analysis is a methodical statistical manipulation for measuring the linear association between an independent and a dependent variable (Zikmud & Babin, 2010). The researcher could reject or accept propositions based on regression analysis (Sena, 2012). As Wegner (2020) has pointed out that, to achieve unbiased outcomes from an independent variable in predicting the variation in the dependent variable, a “goodness-of-fit” measure is vital. The best measure is the coefficient of determination which is denoted by  $R^2$ . The value of  $R^2$  ranges between 0 and 1.

In this study, regression analysis was done to establish the influence of independent variables (people, culture and heritage, tourism, exports, investment and immigration and governance) to Nation Brand Index (Zimbabwe’s NBI).

### 6.8.1. Model Summary

Table 6.37 shows that the multiple R is 0.431 and is indicative of a positive relationship between the variables (Pallant, 2011). The value is positive meaning that there is a direct positive statistical relationship, i.e., independent variables increase as a dependent variable also increases and vice versa. It can be deduced that the Zimbabwe nation brand index has a positive relationship with its various dimensions of nation brand index (people, culture and heritage, tourism, exports, investment and immigration and governance). The R<sup>2</sup> indicates that 18.6% (R<sup>2</sup> = .186) of Zimbabwe's NBI is attributable to the independent variables (people, culture and heritage, tourism, exports, investment and immigration and governance).

**Table 6.37. Model Summary**

<b>Model</b>	<b>R</b>	<b>R Square</b>	<b>Adjusted R Square</b>	<b>Std. Error of the Estimate</b>	<b>Durbin-Watson</b>
1	.431 <sup>a</sup>	.186	.176	.624	1.698

*Source:* Primary Data (2019)

### 6.8.2. Influence of Independent Variables to Zimbabwe Nation Brand Index

From the summarised results in Table 6.38, the dimension 'People' is positively associated with the Zimbabwe nation brand index ( $\beta = .199$ ). A unit increase in people perceptions will increase the Zimbabwe nation brand index by 19.9%. The results indicate that Zimbabweans are competent when communicating with foreigners. They are friendly people when welcoming foreigners, and they do not discriminate against foreigners. Zimbabweans are literate people, they are open to taking different ideas from other nationalities, and observe their traditions and culture in harmony with others. Foreigners envy Zimbabwe's education system and want to enrol.

From Table 6.38 'Culture and Heritage' has a negative impact on the Zimbabwe NBI ( $\beta = -.027$ ). All things being equal, when the other independent variables are held constant, Zimbabwe nation brand index would decrease by 2.7% if there is 100% increase in culture and heritage. This indicates that the media is not informing and educating the inhabitants of Zimbabwe about the country's products and services. The local media tarnishes the image of Zimbabwe worldwide. One cannot readily recall the symbols and logos attached to Zimbabwean products. The media is fuelling exaggeration of the political situation in Zimbabwe. National identity has an indirect implication on nation branding.

From the regression results in Table 6.38 'Tourism' is positive ( $\beta = 0.183$ ). This indicates that a unit increase in the development of tourist attraction facilities results in 18.3% increase in Zimbabwe nation brand index. This means that Zimbabwe has a pleasant climate all year round for tourists and visitors. It has world-class hotel accommodation to make tourists, visitors and investors feel at home. Cultural tourism is a means of economic support for traditional activities. There are transport services capable of hosting and conveying tourists from one point to another. Cultural tourism is a basis for preserving a nation's heritage that is important for the purpose of nation branding. The country of Zimbabwe has established attractions like holiday resorts that can compete globally. Zimbabwe's image abroad encourages tourist arrivals as tourism sector has not been affected by the country's domestic and foreign policies, this resulted in an increase in tourist receipts in the last decade (2000-2010), and finally, tourism sector contributes significantly to the country's GDP.

Table 6.38 shows that 'Exports' has a negative impact on the Zimbabwe nation brand index ( $\beta = -.340$ ). This means that the country of origin has a negative effect on the selection of a product or brand. Zimbabwean brands bring unpleasant memories to people's minds. Products

produced in Zimbabwe are regarded as inferior in quality from those of other countries in the same industry or sector. The country-of-origin effect has an influence on a country's image with regards to the differentiation and value of the product on the market.

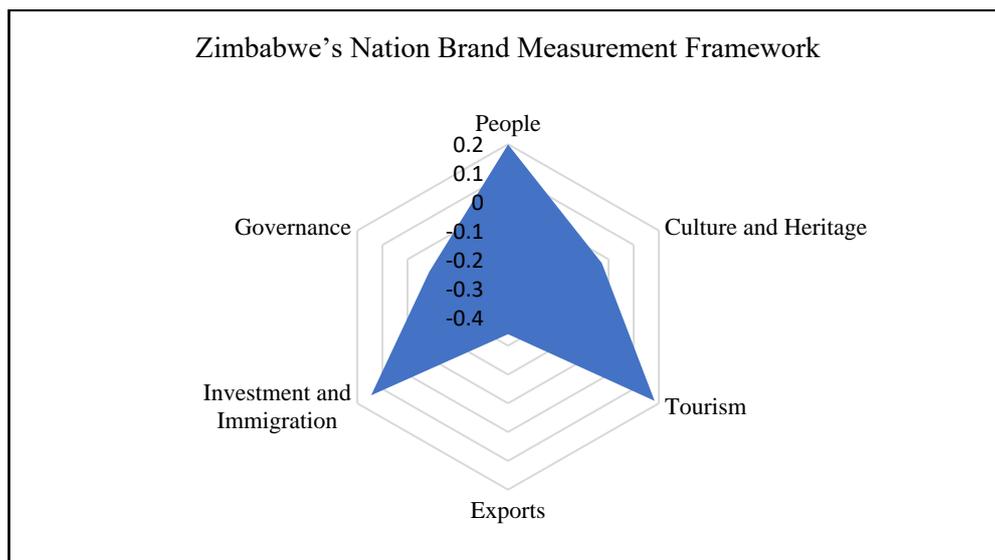
Table 6.38 shows that 'Investment and Immigration' is positively associated with the Zimbabwe nation brand index ( $\beta = .145$ ). A unit increase in investment and immigration policies will increase the Zimbabwe nation brand index by 14.5%. These results mean that foreign investors attract talent and expertise into the country. In Zimbabwe, foreign investors foster successful linkages between international and local companies and this boost the image of the country. Hosting international events attracts foreign investors.

From Table 6.38 Governance is negatively associated with Zimbabwe's NBI ( $\beta = -.086$ ). This means that the presence of poor and dilapidated infrastructure and obsolete technology in Zimbabwe's tertiary institutions tarnishes the image of the country. National policies regarding the taxation of foreign business investment negatively influences the economy of the country. The seizing of the assets of foreigners without compensation discourages foreign investment. There is political instability which tarnishes the country's image. There is no consistency in implementing the rule of law, and it is not easy to communicate important information to foreigners, tourists, and visitors, who do not enjoy basic human rights.

**Table 6.38. Beta Coefficients**

Dimension	B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig
(Constant)	1.574	1.233		1.276	.203
People	.199	.198	.048	1.004	.316
Culture and Heritage	-.027	.224	-.006	-.118	.906
Tourism	.183	.211	.042	.864	.388
Exports	-.340	.237	-.074	-1.433	.152
Investment and Immigration	.145	.142	.050	1.017	.310
Governance	-.086	.066	-.066	-1.291	.197

Source: Primary Data (2019)



**Figure 6.11. Zimbabwe's Nation Brand Measurement Framework (NBMF)**

Source: Author

## 6.9. Correlation Analysis

Connecting variable values was tested using the Pearson's correlation and the conclusion of the connection between each independent variable and the dependent variable was drawn based

on the 5% point of importance (2-tailed) and 95% interval of confidence. There is a statistical positive relationship between variables if the coefficient of correlation ( $r$ ) is positive. The magnitude of the relationship falls in the range  $r = -1$  and  $r = +1$ .

Table 6.39 indicates that there is a positive correlation between people and Zimbabwe's NBI with a coefficient of 4.1%. The perception of the Zimbabwean people contributes towards the NBI. This means that among others, Zimbabweans are competent when communicating with foreigners. They are friendly people when welcoming foreigners, and they do not discriminate against foreigners.

There is a negative correlation between Culture and Heritage and Zimbabwe's NBI ( $r = -.003$ ). This means that media has a negative association with Zimbabwe's NBI due to poor media coverage in promoting country's products and services. One cannot readily recall the symbols and logos attached to Zimbabwean products. The media is thus biased, and it exaggerates the political situation in Zimbabwe. The national identity has an indirect implication on nation branding.

Tourism is weak, positively correlating with Zimbabwe's NBI ( $r = 0.041$ ). This means that among others, the respondents believe that for tourists and visitors and alike, Zimbabwe enjoys a pleasant year-round climate. The available transport services are capable of hosting and conveying tourists from one point to another. There is a positive feeling that Zimbabwe has established attractions like holiday resorts that can compete globally.

Table 6.39 shows that there is a weak negative correlation between Exports and Zimbabwe's NBI ( $r = -.079$ ). This means that among others, the respondents strongly believe that the country of origin has a negative effect on the selection of a product or brand. On the other

hand, products produced in Zimbabwe are regarded as inferior in quality from those of other countries in the same industry or sector.

Table 6.39 shows that Investment and Immigration is positively correlated with Zimbabwe's NBI ( $r = .026$ ). These results mean that the respondents agree to the notion that foreign investors attract talent and expertise, and this fosters successful linkages between international and local companies, and this boosts the image of the country.

From Table 6.39 Governance is negatively correlating with the Zimbabwe's NBI ( $r = -.076$ ). This means that there are no attractive corporate governance policies in Zimbabwe, for example, policies regarding taxation of foreign business investment tends to negatively influence the economy of the country. Also, the seizing of the assets of foreigners without compensation discourages foreign investment. There is political instability which tarnishes the country's image.

**Table 6.39. Correlation Matrix**

<b>Dimension</b>	<b>Pearson Correlation</b>	<b>2-Tailed Sig</b>
People	.041	.384
Culture and Heritage	-.003	.949
Tourism	.041	.385
Exports	-.079	.089
Investment and Immigration	.026	.582
Governance	-.076	.101

Source: Primary Data (2019)

## 6.10. Findings in Relation to Hypotheses Concerning Nation Branding Measurement Framework of Zimbabwe

The following hypotheses findings were deduced from the research:

**H0<sub>1</sub>: There is no relationship between people element and brand measurement framework.** Table 6.38 and Table 6.39 reported that there exists a positive relationship between people element and brand measurement framework in Zimbabwe ( $\beta = .199$ ). Also, there is a significant positive correlation of  $r = .041$ . This means we can reject H0<sub>1</sub> and conclude that there is a positive relationship between people element and brand measurement framework.

**H0<sub>2</sub>: There is no relationship between culture and heritage element and nation brand measurement framework.** Table 6.38 and Table 6.39 reported that there is a significant negative association between culture and heritage element and nation brand measurement framework ( $\beta = -.027$ ) there exists a negative correlation between the two  $r = -.003$ . This means we can reject H0<sub>2</sub> and conclude there is a relationship between culture and heritage element and nation brand measurement framework.

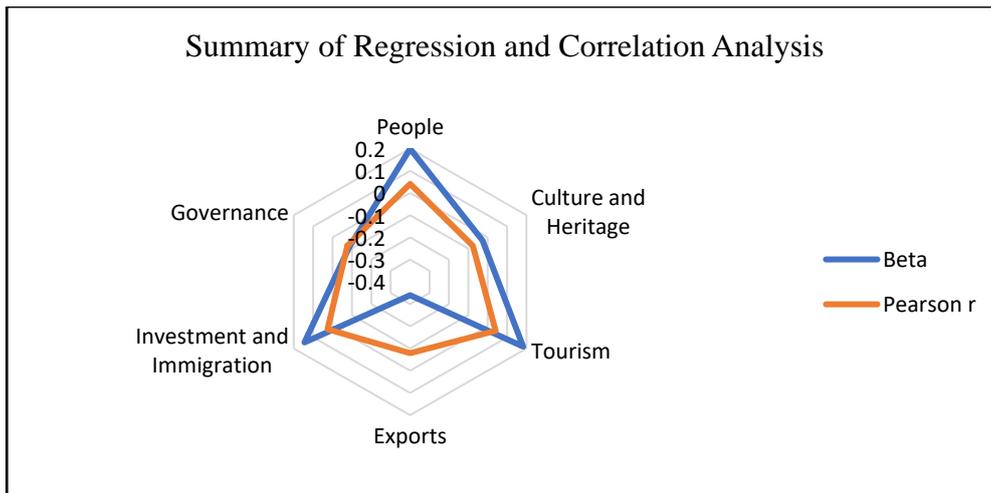
**H0<sub>3</sub>: There is no relationship between tourism element and nation brand measurement framework.** Table 6.38 and Table 6.39 reported that there exists a positive association between the tourism element and brand measurement framework in Zimbabwe as shown by  $\beta = .183$  and correlation of  $r = .041$ . This means we can reject H0<sub>3</sub> and an alternate hypothesis is accepted.

**H0<sub>4</sub>: There is a no relationship between exports element and nation brand measurement framework.** Table 6.38 and Table 6.39 show that there exist a negative

association between exports element and brand measurement framework in Zimbabwe as shown by  $\beta = -.034$  and correlation of  $r = -.079$ . This means we cannot reject H04 and conclude that there is no relationship between exports element and nation brand measurement framework.

**H05: There is no relationship between investment and immigration and nation brand measurement framework.** Table 6.38 and Table 6.39 reported that there exists a positive association between investment and immigration element and brand measurement framework in Zimbabwe as shown by  $\beta = .145$  and correlation of  $r = .026$ . This means we can reject H05 and conclude that there a relationship between investment and immigration and nation brand measurement framework.

**H06: There is no relationship between governance element and nation brand measurement framework.** Table 6.38 and Table 6.39 reported that there exists a negative association between governance element and brand measurement framework in Zimbabwe as shown by  $\beta = -.086$  and correlation of  $r = -.076$ . This means we cannot reject H06 and conclude that there is no relationship between governance element and nation brand measurement framework.



**Figure 6.12. Summary of Regression and Correlation Analysis**

Source: Author

## 6.11. Qualitative Analysis

### 6.11.1. Interview Responses

In a bid to get more in-depth information about a nation brand measurement framework, the researcher interviewed 10 respondents. These were from the ministries, parastatals, and stakeholders. The respondents from ministries were 4 from parastatals and 3 from stakeholder organisations. In-depth information was sought on Zimbabwe's image, factors that led to Zimbabwe's negative image, ways to improve negative country image, strategic issues surrounding Zimbabwe's negative image, key factors that influence the country's brand image and how can dimensions of nation brand measurement indexes be evaluated. A detailed analysis and discussion of the interview responses will be given in the subsections which follow.

### 6.11.2. State of Zimbabwe's Current Country Image

The interviewees described the country image from different viewpoints. The viewpoints included political, economic, and humanitarian. The majority of the respondents, 7 (70%)

described Zimbabwe's country image as being negative. However, 2 respondents (20%) described Zimbabwe's country image as being mixed, having both positive and negative aspects. In a unique case, one interviewee (10%) disclosed that the state of Zimbabwe's country image was stable.

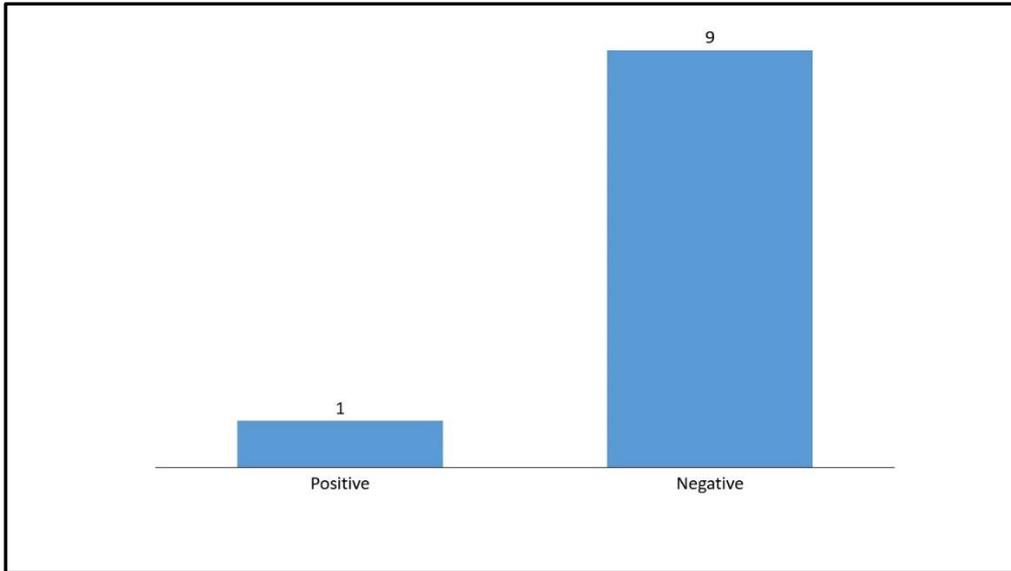
Of the 7 interviewees who described Zimbabwe's image as being negative, 5 attributed the negative image to political instability, 1 attributed the negative image to the financial crisis, 3 attributed the negative image to shenanigans by the independent media and 4 attributed the negative image to humanitarian issues. A summary of the responses is given in Table 6.40.

**Table 6.40. State of Zimbabwe's Image**

<b>Interviewee</b>	<b>State</b>	<b>Reasons for Overall State</b>
1	Negative	- Political instability. - Independent media bad news. - Financial crisis, including increasing inflation.
2	Negative	- Humanitarian issues, including police brutality and abductions of civilians.
3	Negative	- Political instability. - Independent media bad news. - Zimbabweans saying bad things about themselves.
4	Negative	- Independent media bad news. This is the negative side.
5	Negative	No reasons.
6	Positive	- Zimbabwe ready to accept investors. This is the positive side.
7	Negative	- Bad humanitarian issues, including limited freedom of speech.
8	Negative	- Bad socio-economic environment. - Humanitarian issues.
9	Negative	No reasons.
10	Negative	No reasons.

*Source: Research Data (2019)*

Concerning the overall state of Zimbabwe's image, 8 of the interviewees (80%) indicated that Zimbabwe's country image was negative, and 1 interviewee (10%) believed that Zimbabwe's image was positive, despite giving no reasons to support such a declaration. These findings collated in the bar graph depicted in Figure 6.13 concur with those of Mugobo and Wakeham (2014) who point out that the majority of Zimbabweans acknowledge the country's image on the international map is negative.

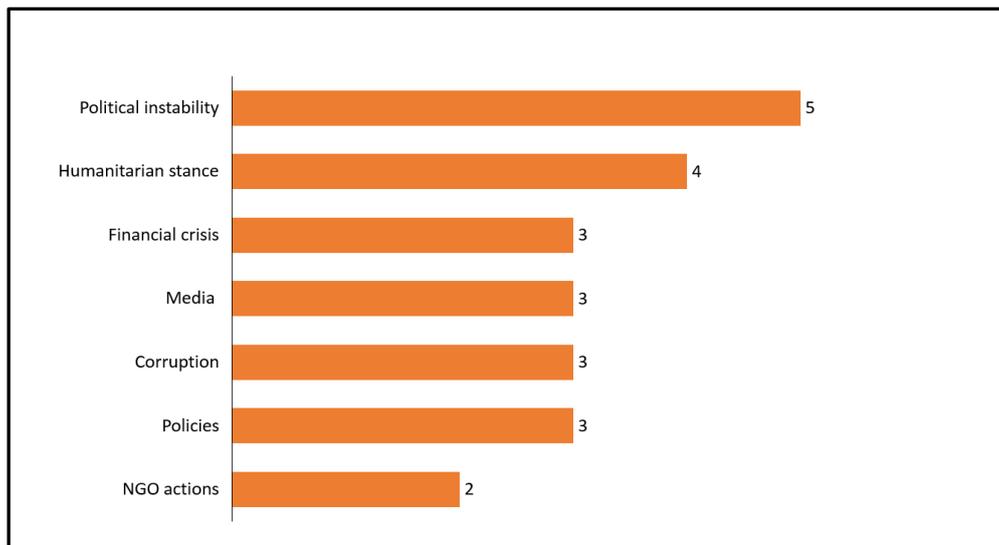


**Figure 6.13. Overall State of Zimbabwe's Image**

Source: Author

### 6.11.3. Factors Leading to Zimbabwe's Negative Image

Several factors were identified as leading to Zimbabwe's negative image, including political instability, humanitarian stance, financial crisis, media bias, corruption, policy inconsistency and NGO actions. A summary of these factors is shown in Figure 6.14.



**Figure 6.14. Factors Leading to Zimbabwe's Negative Country Image**

Source: Author

The dominant factor was political instability, for which 5 interviewees (50%) indicated that political differences and the unfair ground levelled to the opposition party by the ruling party have a significant negative impact on the image of Zimbabwe. Furthermore, the bloodshed which had been associated with the past elections held in 2018, alleged to be due to the ruling party, all contributed significantly to the bad image of Zimbabwe. Another political issue which appeared was that of the land reform exercise in Zimbabwe which started in the 1980s and reached its apex in late 2000, with some Whites killed and many others displaced by subsistence farmers. Such a move gained the media spotlight on a global scale and caused a negative mindset towards Zimbabwe by many foreign investors. This is supported by Matondi (2012), who asserts that Zimbabwe provides a compelling case study of the perils of ignoring the rule of law and property rights when implementing land reforms.

The humanitarian stance was also identified as another dominant factor that led to Zimbabwe's negative image. Four (4) respondents (40%) reported that the human rights abuses committed by police, soldiers and secret agents were dominant issues in Zimbabwe. Also, the right to

freedom of expression was limited, with outspoken individuals such as the democratic activist Pastor Evan Mawarire arrested on charges of inciting violence, and Itai Dzamara, the well-known journalist, activist and vocal critic of President Mugabe abducted and presumed murdered. Police brutality and military brutality were the most common form of human rights abuses identified by the interviewees.

Much of the human rights violations derive from unlawful arrests when police without justification, restrain the liberty of citizens during arrests and imprisonment (Feltoe, 2012: 90). There are some notable cases of police brutality, including seven people, who in 1998 lost their lives as the Zimbabwe Republic Police (ZRP) tried to quell the nationwide food riots that had gripped Zimbabwe (Chinaka, 2011). During 2000, thirteen human lives were lost during a soccer match when police officers fired tear smoke into a restive stadium crowd (Vhiriri, 2011). In 2012, one person died whilst others sustained injuries when police in Shamva, a rural town in the province of Mashonaland Central, Zimbabwe, located about 90 km north-east of Harare, assaulted residents after a suspected case of theft (Kachere, 2012). On the political front, in many cases, members of the main opposition party have been subjected to unwarranted police harassment and abuse, especially during election periods. The police, at the behest of the ruling party, selectively decide against sanctioning the main opposition's (MDC Alliance) campaign rallies, declaring those illegal gatherings, and assaulting their members and the public should they decide to go ahead and hold the gatherings. Activists from Women's Arise (WOZA) were injured on several occasions during their clashes with the police, yet they were holding peaceful demonstrations (Gumbo, 2012). The indiscriminate use of excessive force leads to the needless loss of life, as well as injuries to innocent citizens. All these incidences point to the excessive use of force by the ZRP with far-reaching consequences.

The spread of such news about Zimbabwe and its violent image by the international media, causes it to be viewed as an unsafe international travel destination. Another factor identified by 3 interviewees (30%) was the financial crisis. The crisis identified included shortages of cash in banks and high inflation.

The media was also identified as one of the factors which led to the negative image of Zimbabwe. Fake news by the media was identified as poison to the image of Zimbabwe. Three (3) interviewees (30%) placed much emphasis on the Independent Media houses, which is free of influence by the government. The Independent Media are inclined to rubbish positive government efforts and tend to politicize other issues to the extent that the image of the government and the country is soiled. Corruption was also identified by 3 interviewees (30%) as another key factor which contributed to the negative image of Zimbabwe. Government policies in Zimbabwe were also identified as factors which led to Zimbabwe's negative image. The interviewees clearly indicated that policy inconsistencies in Zimbabwe, especially those that drove away foreign investors, were to be blamed for the negative country image in Zimbabwe. Some of the controversial policies which were identified by the interviewees were connected to the Indigenisation Policy and Zimbabwe's Statutory Instrument (SI) 64 of 2016.

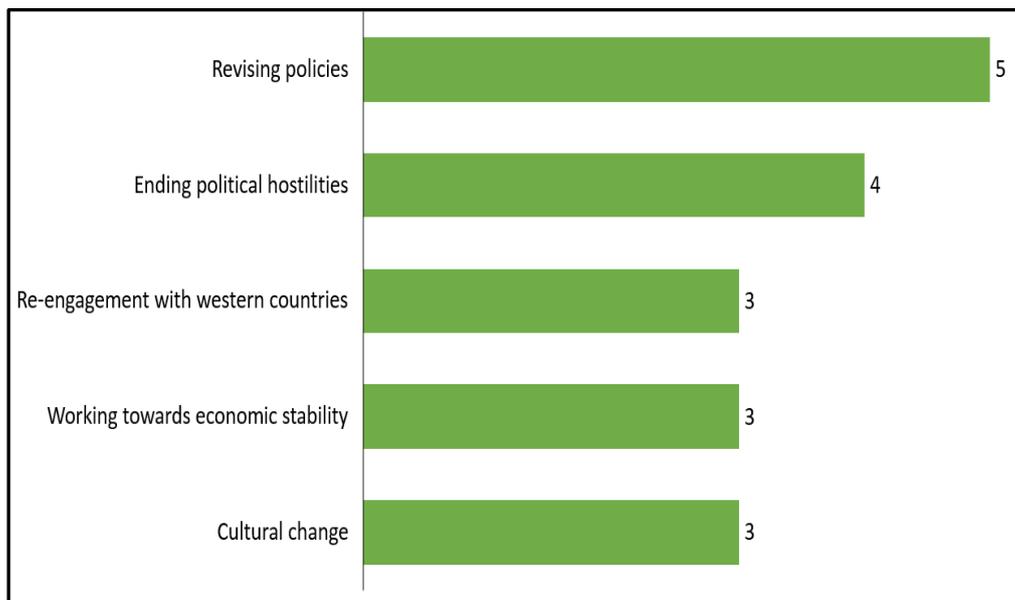
The Indigenisation Policy gave Zimbabweans the right to take over and control many foreign-owned companies in Zimbabwe. This was a blow to many foreign-owned companies that were contributing positively to the fiscus and infrastructure development. Zimbabwe's Statutory Instrument SI 64 required traders to obtain an import licence from the Ministry of Industry and Commerce before importing basic commodities such as coffee creamers, bottled water, white petroleum jelly and body creams, canned fruits, and vegetables. Another factor which was identified by the interviewees was infrastructure, which is key to the development of any

nation. The interviewees indicated that the poor infrastructure in Zimbabwe contributed to the negative image of Zimbabwe.

Two (2) interviewees identified some actions of non-governmental organisations (NGOs) as leading to the negative image of Zimbabwe. Some of the actions cited included support for some human activists and an overemphasis of human rights. However, some NGOs tend not to be politically-oriented, but instead focus on helping the needy and fostering social development in the country.

#### 6.11.4. Ways to Improve the Negative Image of Zimbabwe

The interviewees suggested several ways to improve the perceived negative image of Zimbabwe. The ways suggested are shown in Figure 6.15.



**Figure 6.15. Ways to Improve the Negative Image of Zimbabwe**

Source: Author

The most common suggestions were revising and dealing with policy inconsistencies, cession of political hostilities, re-engagement with the western countries, ensuring economic stability

and cultural change. Of the 10 interviewees, 5 (50%) suggested that there was a need to revise many of the policies in place, as well as address inconsistencies present in government policies. The respondents suggested that the policies should encourage financial investment by both local and foreign investors. Zimbabwe should be open for business, not just in word of mouth. Bringing stability in the political arena was suggested by 4 of the interviewees (40%) to improve Zimbabwe's image. When there are consistent struggles and bloodshed in a country due to politics, it would be most likely that the image of a country would be impaired.

Re-engagement with western countries was also viewed as a way forward to improve Zimbabwe's image. The three (3) respondents (30%) who said re-engaging the western countries were not in favour of the 'Look East policy', which involved engaging with China. The western countries that were considered as part of improving Zimbabwe's image included the UK, the USA, and most of the countries in the EU.

Ensuring economic stability was suggested by 3 of the interviewees (30%) as a way that could improve the image of Zimbabwe. Economic stability could be ensured by reducing inflation, bringing about currency reforms which are acceptable to the public, and having the RBZ assume its correct role and duties. In particular, the RBZ should be stricter with regards to its monitoring and supervisory role.

Cultural change was also suggested to improve the image of Zimbabwe. The cultural change needs to be addressed at three levels:

- i. Family level;
- ii. Occupational level;
- iii. Country level.

A strong culture which shuns away corruption and encourages people to work may indeed improve Zimbabwe’s image.

#### 6.11.5. Strategic Issues to be addressed in Order to Improve Zimbabwe’s Image

The interview also solicited the interviewees to suggest the strategic issues that need to be addressed to improve Zimbabwe’s image. The dominant strategic issues identified were: sound economic reforms, political stability, and attraction of investment, revision of government policies, governance, and infrastructure development. These are tabulated in Table 6.41.

**Table 6.41. Strategic Issues to be Addressed**

Strategic Issue	Number of Interviewees	Percentage of Interviewees
Sound economic reforms	4	40%
Political stability	3	30%
Attraction of investment	2	20%
Revision of policies	2	20%
Governance	2	20%
Infrastructure development	2	20%

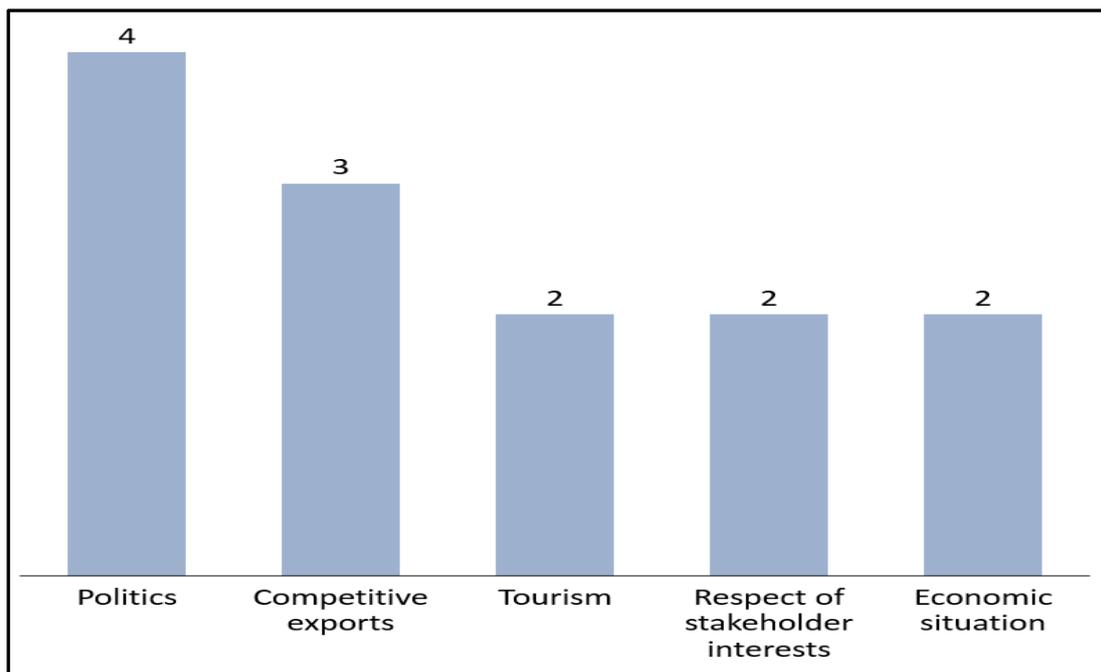
*Source:* Research Data (2019)

Four (4) of the respondents (40%) proposed that sound economic reforms were a key issue to be addressed to improve Zimbabwe’s image. Political stability was also identified by 3 of the respondents (30%) as a strategic issue to improve Zimbabwe’s image. Another strategic issue identified by the interviewees was the attraction of investment. The interviewees felt that Zimbabwe was in the habit of pushing away potential investors, despite claiming that it was open for business. Yet another strategic issue identified by the interviewees was a revision of policies in a bid to remove inconsistencies and to attract both local and international foreign

investors. Good governance at both the corporate and country-level was also identified as a strategic issue that could improve the negative image of Zimbabwe. One of the interviewees indicated that poor corporate governance practices in Zimbabwe could be blamed for the high level of corruption, which had led to the degradation of Zimbabwe's country image from a business perspective. Another strategic issue which was identified by 2 of the interviewees (20%) was infrastructure development.

#### 6.11.6. Factors Influencing Zimbabwe's Brand Image

Many factors were identified by the interviewees as the determinants of Zimbabwe's brand image.



**Figure 6.16. Factors Influencing the Brand Image of Zimbabwe**

Source: Author

The dominant factors identified were: politics, competitive exports, tourism, infrastructure, respect of stakeholder interests and economic situation. These are depicted in Figure 6.16. The

less common factors among the respondents included: corporate ethics, cultural image and heritage, technology, regulations, and population attitudes. Politics stood out as the most dominant factor influencing Zimbabwe’s brand image, with 4 interviewees (40%) advocating it. Competitive exports were also identified by 3 interviewees (30%) as being determinants of Zimbabwe’s brand image.

According to 2 of the interviewees (20%), tourism had a determining influence on the brand image of Zimbabwe. The same was also true for stakeholder interests that was highlighted by 20% of the interviewees. The economic situation in Zimbabwe was also identified as a factor influencing the brand image of Zimbabwe, as stated by 20% of the respondents.

#### 6.11.7. Evaluation of the Dimensions of Nation Brand Measurement Indexes

The interview also solicited the respondents to identify those dimensions which they believed should be part of nation brand measurement indexes that measure a nation brand. The dimensions most identified were: investment, tourism, exports, governance, and people. A summary of the findings is given in Table 6.42.

**Table 6.42. Dimensions of a Nation Brand Measurement Indexes**

<b>Dimension</b>	<b>Number of Interviewees</b>	<b>Percentage of Interviewees</b>
Investment & immigration	5	50%
Tourism	3	30%
Exports	3	30%
Governance	3	30%
People	2	20%
Culture & Heritage	1	10%

*Source:* Research Data (2019)

Five (5) respondents (50%) believed that investment was one of the dimensions of nation brand measurement indexes used to measure a nation's brand, while 3 respondents (30%) indicated that tourism was also a dimension of measuring nation brand measurement index. Exports and governance were also identified by 3 of the respondents (30 %) as dimensions core to nation brand measurement indexes to measure a nation's brand. Only 2 respondents (20%) identified people as a dimension of nation brand measurement indexes. Culture and Heritage was not popular with respondents as only 1 respondent (10%) stated that it was important.

The micro-indexes reveal the same dimensions as the Anholt-GfK Roper NBI dimensions, these being: investment, tourism, and exports, governance, and people dimensions. According to Anholt (2017), all these have equal weighting. In order therefore to build a strong nation brand, it is important that the representation of the six dimensions is even (Anholt, 2017).

#### 6.11.8. Commonly Used Indexes for Measuring Nation Brand Image

The response rate for the interview on this question was a meagre 4%, with only 4 interviewees having responded to the question. Out of the 4 respondents, 2 (50%) identified the NBI (Nation Brands Index) and the CBI (FutureBrand) as the two most commonly- used indexes to measure a nation's brand. However, the other 2 respondents indicated that the CBSI was a widely-used index to measure a nation's brand image.

Although there are some micro-indexes used in measuring a nation's brand image, it seems they borrow from the macro-indexes like the Nation Brand Molecule (NBM) (Rojas-Mendez, et al., 2013) and the Country Brand Strength Index (CBSI) (Fetscherin, 2010). In the last few years, there has been an emergence of new models used to measure country brand, and these include the virtuous circle of creative country reputation (Morgan, Pritchard & Pride, 2011); the Country Brand Strength Index (Fetscherin, 2010), and the Bloom Consultancy Brand

Ranking. However, these three indexes are less-recognised than the Nation Brand Index (NBI), and the Country Brand Index (CBI) (Fetscherin 2010).

#### 6.11.9. Critical Dimensions to Include in Developing Zimbabwe's Nation Brand

The response rate for this question was 5%, meaning that only 5 out of the 10 interviewees answered the question. All the interviewees who answered the question indicated that people, investment and immigration, governance and tourism are the critical elements for nation branding in Zimbabwe. Two (2) interviewees recommended that all the six dimensions as given by Anholt are essential in the branding of Zimbabwe.

Different indexes have named the dimensions differently, but it is a matter of semantics as these may all mean the same, for example, the Nation Brand Strength Index (NBSI) by Brand Finance (2014), the dimensions of which include: investment, goods and services, people services and tourism. In contrast, the Nation Brand Molecule (NBM) by Rojas-Mendez, et al. (2013) has the following dimensions: economy, geography and nature, science and technology and government. Fetscherin's (2010) Country Brand Strength Index (CBSI) has the following dimensions: exporting, tourism, foreign direct investment, and government environment. From the three indexes, three dimensions clearly stand out as common and are thus critical when branding a nation. These are: tourism, exports, and governance. However, from the NBI perspective, all six dimensions are essential for a strong nation brand to be achieved.

## **6.12. Chapter Summary**

This chapter presented and analysed data collected from 510 respondents in different ministries in Zimbabwe and discussed it accordingly. The data was presented in tables, graphs, and pie

charts. The quantitative data was analysed using the SPSS version 22 software platform and Microsoft Excel.

The next chapter will provide a discussion of the findings.

## **Chapter 7**

### **Discussion of Results**

#### **7.1. Introduction**

This chapter covers the discussion of results that were obtained in the research based on the objectives of the study. The main objective of the study was to develop a nation brand measurement framework for Zimbabwe. The first three objectives are covered by the interview guide, and the last two objectives were covered by the questionnaire as well as the interview guide. All the objectives of the study were achieved. This chapter will discuss the findings and compare them against previous research studies that were conducted in other parts of the world on the measurement of nation brand.

#### **7.2. Objectives**

##### **7.2.1. Objective 1: To Examine the Strategic Issues that Need to be Addressed in Order to Improve Zimbabwe's Brand**

The present study sought to examine the strategic issues that need to be addressed to improve Zimbabwe's brand. This objective was covered by Questions 1 to 5 on the interview guide. The respondents were of the view that the state of Zimbabwe's image was largely negative. This was caused by factors such the chaotic roll-out of the Fast-Track Land Reform Programme, the Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment Act, Zimbabwe's involvement in the Democratic Republic of Congo war, and the payment of gratuities to war veterans which lead to the crash of the Zimbabwe Dollar and the financial crisis. This in turn led to the polarisation of the political environment leading to political instability and political violence. These findings concur with those published by Asante (2013).

Asante (2013) affirms that the Fast-Track Land Reform Programme had a negative effect on the country's economic growth, farmworkers lost their jobs, productivity on the farms decreased, and lastly, while the White farm owners had the right to be fully compensated for their farms, the ZANU-PF Government reneged on its agreement. Land reform had become a political factor in Zimbabwe. The compulsory and often violent acquisition of White-owned farms greatly affected property rights and the rule of law in Zimbabwe. The image of the country became negative as a result. The researcher further articulates that the repossession of land was so violent and chaotic that it virtually destroyed the agricultural sector, decimating much-needed agrarian production which became insufficient to feed its citizens. The infrastructure of former White-owned farms was vandalised, and irrigation equipment, electricity and general amenities destroyed for no apparent reason (Sibanda & Makwata, 2017). Zimbabwe being an agriculturally-based economy, the Fast-Track Land Reform Programme detrimentally affected the manufacturing sector, the low productivity in the farms creating less raw materials for the food processing industries.

The Fast-Track Land Reform Programme brought conflict between the UK and Zimbabwe. The UK perceived the Fast-Track Land Reform Programme as retaliation by the Zimbabwe government towards the UK for its failure to honour the land reform as earlier agreed. As a result, the UK imposed restrictive financial sanctions on the country. The EU, Australia, and the USA, further isolated Zimbabwe from receiving lines of credit from international financial institutions. The imposition of financial sanctions affected the country's ability to repay loans on time (Hondora, 2009). As a result, Zimbabwe had to shift its focus to China, hence the Look East Policy (LEP) was conceived to promote a close Zimbabwe-China bilateral relationship in terms of both economics and politics (Tavares Martins, 2014; Ojakorotu &

Kamidza, 2018). Zimbabwe's poor human rights record also contributed to the imposition of sanctions.

The Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment Act is another factor that has affected the image of Zimbabwe. Zimbabwe should create a free economy where investors can invest without the fear of losing their money as the country is not able by itself to fund projects. The 51% indigenous share ownership should be removed as it frightens investors (Asante, 2013).

The intervention of the Zimbabwe Defence Forces (ZDF) into the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) is also seen as another factor that contributed greatly to the negative image of the country (Asante, 2013). It is estimated that the government spent more than Z\$ 6 billion of unbudgeted public funds on the war, with the Air Force of Zimbabwe (AFZ) sending five flights each week during its two-year intervention in the DRC, excluding money used to purchase new military equipment to boost Zimbabwe's military arsenal (Financial Gazette, 2000). Some commentators estimate that the final cost to the fiscal was much higher (Asante, 2013). The intervention was not warranted as Zimbabwe does not share any border with DRC and as such, there was no risk of Zimbabwe being attacked by the enemy that the DRC was fighting. The involvement in the DRC war increased the country's debts and affected the economy's budget (Asante, 2013). The intervention contributed to the financial crisis and the subsequent hyperinflation the country experienced because of the unbudgeted expenditure.

Zimbabwe's media is biased, and there is an element of inaccuracy in its news coverage. The State media is pro-government aligned to the ruling party, whereas the independent media tend to be aligned to the opposition party and exhibit a bias towards western countries. For balanced news, one must read both independent and State-owned print media. The print media

contributed to a negative image of the country because of the biased reporting of activities taking place in the country that was covered differently by opposing news houses.

Factors that led to Zimbabwe's negative include: political instability, humanitarian stance, the financial crisis, media, corruption, and the actions of NGOs. The respondents were of the view that Zimbabwe's image had been greatly affected by human rights abuses. The security sector has violated many human rights and has gone unpunished in many instances. Cases to note include the disturbances that occurred on 01 August 2018, on the outcome of the general elections court ruling, when soldiers used live ammunition on unarmed civilians, resulting in the loss of innocent civilians. Another incident occurred when innocent civilians were again lost during the fuel demonstrations. People were demonstrating against the 150% increase on fuel imposed by President Mnangagwa in January 2019. Some 17 people were killed, and a further 17 females were raped (Human Rights Watch, 2008). The security sector, especially the Zimbabwe National Army (ZNA) uses excessive force when dealing with unarmed civilians. There were also several situations in which the ZRP committed human rights violations during investigation, interrogation, and detention, when dealing with vulnerable groups and when policing political demonstrations.

The ZRP has been accused of violating human rights through torture, excessive force and unlawful arrest and detention. Amnesty International (2011) reported the rampant use of excessive force by the ZRP who were implicated in numerous cases of torture, assault, and ill-treatment of especially members of the opposition and those critical of the government. On 22 April 2005 a former ZINASU president was brutally assaulted by police officers and was hospitalised (Amnesty International, 2005). Another case of arbitrary arrest and torture which gained the attention of the international community in 2005 was that of an NCA activist who

was seriously beaten when police broke up a peaceful demonstration outside the parliament building (Amnesty International, 2005). Such human rights abuses are contrary to the provision of Article 9 of the United Nations, International Convention on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR).

The ICCPR provides forms of protection for people deprived of their liberty. In Zimbabwe, however, it has become common practice for the ZRP to conceal the whereabouts of detainees from lawyers and their families (Amnesty International, 2009). The case of the Director of the Zimbabwe Peace Project (ZPP) is a clear illustration of police intransigency. Operation Murambatsvina (Operation Restore Order) that took place in 2005 is another example of police brutality. The police fired teargas directly into the homes of residents, and at Porta farm a man suffering from tuberculosis died shortly after being exposed to the gas. The discriminate use of excessive force led to many deaths, including those of children (Amnesty International, 2005). Another example of the use of lethal force took place when the MDC National Youth Chairman was shot dead by the ZRP on 11 March 2007, during a rally organised by the Save Zimbabwe Coalition.

The MDC National Youth Chairman and 28 other party activists were incarcerated from June 2011 to June 2012, when their trial commenced in the High Court of Zimbabwe. For twelve months, the State delayed the proceedings, arguing that they were still gathering evidence against the accused (David et al., 2012).

Legislation has given the police an operational environment that is open to such abuses. As law enforcers, they are expected to enforce the legislation passed by parliament, whether democratic or not. Pieces of Legislation like the Public Order and Security Act (POSA) impinges on the rights and freedom of association of citizens, which is a violation of Article 9

of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR). The enforcement of POSA by the ZRP has resulted in human rights violations. POSA enabled the police to harass opposition political parties and thereby develop a culture of impunity. The ZRP has been greatly politicised to the extent that, the members of the police force feel confident in publicising their partisan view (Human Rights Watch, 2008). This is because the top officials of the force are war veterans. This tells a lot about the supposed impartiality of the ZRP.

This research found that to improve the negative image of Zimbabwe, it will be necessary to deal with policy inconsistencies, curb political hostilities, re-engage with western countries, ensure economic stability, and create a culture of positive change. The negative image of Zimbabwe can be improved when the country becomes politically stable, and the people of Zimbabwe speak positively about the activities in the country. These findings concur with Matiza and Oni (2013), who state that Zimbabwe has a predominantly negative image as an investment destination. Their findings further reveal that Zimbabwe is associated with negative words such as sanctions, violence, hunger, instability, policy inconsistencies such as the Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment Act. If the image of Zimbabwe is to change for the better, these factors need serious and concerted attention.

The findings further reveal that sound economic reforms, political stability, the attraction of foreign investment, and the revision of policies and infrastructural development are strategic issues that need to be addressed to improve Zimbabwe's brand. Zimbabwe's economic environment has not been stable since the dissolution of the GNU. According to the Medium-Term Plan 2011-2013, Zimbabwe's main challenges during this period were severe macro-economic instability (in 2008, Zimbabwe's official annual inflation was 231 000 000%, monthly inflation in July of that year was at 1 800 %). There were severe shortages of basic

utilities including electricity, fuel, water, and food commodities both basic and non-basic; significant challenges for business, including foreign currency shortages, loss of skilled labour and unreliable energy supplies, a marked decline in the tourism sector performance, largely because of the negative publicity the country has been facing, as well as a wholesale de-industrialisation in the pre-GNU era (Matiza & Oni, 2013).

The same challenges that were present in 2008 are still being experienced in 2021. Fuel shortages and shortages of the foreign and local currency are still being experienced. The findings of Matiza and Oni (2013) concur with those of Masango and Naidoo (2018) who earlier had emphasised that the country's "limping economy" had been worsened by foreign currency, fuel, and food shortages. Indeed, foreign currency shortages were said to have hamstrung industry plunging production levels to below 30%. The economic environment in Zimbabwe was perceived to be a very strong repellent to any potential investor. Researchers in Zimbabwe have observed that the low level of FDI flows into the country continue to be explained in the context of an underlying negative image faced by the country (Sikwila, 2015).

The principal barrier to the attraction of FDI to Zimbabwe is the negative perception that exists about the country as an investment destination, and this is due to Zimbabwe's marred international image after more than a decade of socio-political instability. The general economic decay seems to be emanating from the 1998-2008 period, which is now the hallmark of Zimbabwe's current image economy-wise (Matiza & Oni, 2013).

According to Masango and Naidoo (2018), for Zimbabwe's economic environment to improve it needs to regain its respect in the eyes of key world lenders such as the Bretton Woods institutions. In early September 2005, Zimbabwe was listed in Category 'D' of Country Risk, and was blacklisted as an errant country that was not meeting its obligation to the IMF.

Masango and Naidoo (2018) are of the opinion that the country must embark on implementing strong macroeconomic policies to stop economic and social conditions worsening further in the country. The country needs a holistic adjustment programme in fiscal and monetary reforms to stabilise inflation and the exchange rate. Sound economic reforms will lure investors. Investors do not invest in economically-unstable economies. Without adequate FDI, the economy of the country will not grow because business needs money to expand and fledgeling companies need money for start-ups, all of which results in more employment opportunities.

Political instability in the country dates to the early years of Independence. There was political conflict between Robert Mugabe's Zimbabwe African National Union (ZANU) and Joshua Nkomo's Zimbabwe African People's Union (ZAPU). The political conflict was resolved following the signing of the Unity Accord in 1987 and the merging of the two organisations into the Zimbabwe African National Union–Patriotic Front (ZANU-PF), where relative political stability was achieved. The coming in 1999 of Morgan Tsvangirai's Movement for Democratic Change (MDC) heralded in another period of political instability in the country. Political intolerance and polarisation emerged during this period. The ruling ZANU-PF government viewed the opposition parties as enemies who were bent upon unsettling the way the country was governed. Similarly, the conflict between the ZANU-PF and MDC was resolved during the Global Political Agreement, which resulted in the GNU and relative political stability was experienced. After the GNU, the country reverted to the political instability experienced before the GNU. The situation in Zimbabwe concurs with the opinion of Koteska and Poposki (2010) that traditional diplomacy is being replaced by “identity politics”. The government enacted draconian laws like the Public Order and Security Act (POSA) and the Access to Information and Protection of Privacy Act (AIPPA). These laws

are were targeted at journalists to muzzle the voice of opposition in the various types of media. According to the 2005 Committee to Protect Journalists (CPJ) at least 90% of Zimbabwean journalists are in exile in South Africa and other African countries, the UK, and the US, making it one of the largest groups of exiled journalists in the world (Masango & Naidoo, 2018). These media laws were perceived to be retrogressive and stifling the freedom of the press. During this period, *The Daily News*, an independent daily newspaper was closed because of not abiding to the strict media laws. Zimbabwe's image today is because of overstating issues by the media. Therefore, media and electoral reforms are strongly needed to encourage divergence of opinions and actions in the country.

Other pieces of legislation that need revision include the Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment Act, the legislation on the use of multi-currencies (especially the US\$ as legal tender), and the Statutory Instrument 64 of 2016. These policies have been repealed several times, meaning that these policies are not consistent and tend to shift policies to suit the needs of the selected few in government than the majority of the people. Consequently, there is a need to come up with pro-poor pieces of legislation to support the livelihoods of the vulnerable and poor in Zimbabwe.

The State infrastructure in the country is deplorable and has affected the image of the country. The Confederation of African Football (CAF) condemned most stadia in the country, stating they do not meet world standards required to host international soccer matches. According to Walden and Eryuruk (2012), the term 'infrastructure' implies productivity associated with public expenditure. Infrastructure services such as transport and telecommunications are central to economic development. This is contrary to Zimbabwe, since transport and communication infrastructure is moribund and in need of immediate resuscitation. Likewise,

Zimbabwe's power infrastructure is starved of new investment. Yet, Zimbabwe has not expanded its power generation infrastructure since 1988 (African Development Bank, 2019). Inefficient and unreliable power supply poses significant risks to the economy.

Zimbabwe has also not fully embraced the utilisation of ICT infrastructure. Hence, the conspicuous absence of collaborations, networking, better services, and lack of efficiency and effectiveness in the provision of ICT products and services (Owei & Maumbe, 2008; Chimhangwa, 2012). Opportunities have also been lost when investors consider ICT as a criterion for investment. There are several factors that have contributed to the current state of infrastructure in Zimbabwe, including: bad management, corruption, poor maintenance, and lack of investment in parastatals like Zimbabwe Electricity Supply Authority (ZESA) and National Railways of Zimbabwe (NRZ) since the 1980s (Zhou, 2012).

Other factors which contributed to the deterioration of Zimbabwe's infrastructure were the redistributive policies of the ZANU-PF government. At Independence, the government instituted free education, free medical care and other amenities accessed free of charge for its citizens. These services were heavily subsidised, meaning budgetary constraints on the side of government.

As affirmed by Zenker and Braun (2010), infrastructure is an important factor in attracting investors and tourists. Accordingly, the authors included infrastructure as one factor in their levels of place marketing. Infrastructure plays a significant role in the marketing of a destination among other factors like urban design, basic services, attractions, and people. The importance of infrastructure is also asserted by Sena (2012), who maintains that transport and infrastructure are necessary to help ensure that tourists and citizens alike have accessibility to their destinations. The elements that affect the accessibility of destination include

infrastructure of airports, road networks and railway operations including routes operated and frequency of service. The ZANU-PF government has failed to invest and maintain essential infrastructure. As a result, poor and less maintained infrastructure is the result, which does not attract investment.

#### 7.2.2. Objective 2: To Determine the Key Factors that Influence Zimbabwe's Brand Image

Lisboa (2013) is of the view that country image is an overall image that is constituted by variables like products, economic and political development, historical events and relationships, traditions, level of industrialisation and technological development. The dominant factors that were identified as key factors influencing Zimbabwe's image include: politics, exports, infrastructure, respect of stakeholder interests and the economic situation. Other less common factors include: corporate ethics, cultural image and heritage, technology, regulations, and people's attitudes.

The geopolitical atmosphere and local politics may also influence the accessibility and image of a country and its overall image as a destination. For instance, during the era of Chairman Mao Zedong, the founder of the People's Republic of China (PRC), his Communist politics and views discouraged international tourists to the country. In Zimbabwe during the President Robert Mugabe's era, some international tourists shunned Zimbabwe as a travel destination because they did not accept his political ideology. A country's political dynamics have a bearing on its brand equity, especially the withdrawal of Zimbabwe from the British Commonwealth of Nations and the controversial land reform policies of the ruling ZANU-PF party (Masango & Naidoo, 2018). Also, at the local level, it is important to understand that tribal politics in countries such as Nigeria may help to avoid unnecessary complication in

executing business transactions with such nations (Sena, 2012). Zimbabwe's political environment has negatively affected the economic environment. Investors from western countries feel their investment will be at risk when they invest in Zimbabwe, hence most investors are investing in neighbouring countries like Zambia and Mozambique where the political environment is more conducive towards foreign investment. Governments are assumed to represent the people of a nation, and therefore, there is no getting away from the fact that nation branding is a highly politicised activity (Dinnie, 2015).

As cited by Vutete and Chigora (2013), Brand Zimbabwe has been affected by many challenges. Despite the need to be number one in the world, Brand Zimbabwe has faced other challenges, including economic recession, associated with high inflation levels, political violence, too many elections, economic sanctions, the emigration of the local labour force to neighbouring countries, and the perceived view by foreign stakeholders that Zimbabwe is not a safe country.

On exports, Zimbabwe's products are competitive in the region and beyond. This is because of their perceived quality. Thus, an association exists between a country of origin and the quality of products produced in that country. According to Šapić et al., (2021), the "made-in" image has been referred to as the picture, reputation, or stereotype that businesspeople and consumers attach to products from a specific country. White and Cundiff (1978) have found that perceived quality substantially influences consumer buying decisions and that the manufacturer of products in certain countries has been affected by a built-in positive or negative stereotype in the perception of product quality. Vazifehdoost and Ghanbari (2017) are of the view that country image has the overall perception that consumer's form of products

from a particular country, based on their prior perceptions of the country's production and marketing.

Although Zimbabwe's products are perceived to be of high quality, this image has been badly affected by the negative image of Zimbabwe abroad. Keller (2012) defines brand image as perceptions about a brand reflected by the association and attributes organised in some meaningful manner that is activated from memory when recalled. Therefore, when Western countries hear about Zimbabwe products, they are reminded of the results of the Fast-Track Land Reform Programme, corruption, and human rights abuses, even the diamonds from Chiadzwa which are perceived as 'blood diamonds'.

Prior to 2002, Zimbabwe used to export horticultural products to the Netherlands, beef and veal to the UK, and cotton to the EU. Zimbabwe had a preferential tariff quota which allowed it to export 9 100 metric tonnes of beef into the EU annually. Under the Sugar Protocol, Zimbabwe's preferential tariff quota stood at 30 225 metric tonnes annually (Masunungure, 2020). It had an option to increase a further 25 000 metric tonnes under the variable Special Preference. All those quotas were lost due to the sanctions imposed on Zimbabwe. Also, the Zimbabwe cotton industry failed to access the EU markets directly, having to go through intermediaries resulting in the loss of between 5-10% of the value of produce (Ministry of Foreign Affairs and International Trade, 2019).

The ZANU-PF Government has failed to maintain the necessary transportation infrastructure that was inherited at Independence, particularly the country's roads and railways. Zimbabwe's infrastructure is dilapidated and marginally functional. The infrastructure was affected at Independence when the government provided most services for free, including free education, free health, and medical services to the majority of the population. These services were paid

for by the State, but the maintenance of these facilities was not done, resulting in a decline in the state of the infrastructure over time.

Lack of maintenance, gross mismanagement and corruption over the years has eroded public enterprises such as ZESA, NRZ, TelOne, ZINARA, GMB, Air Zimbabwe, ZUPCO and others. These enterprises were allowed to deteriorate to the extent that they could no longer discharge their mandate of providing the essential services to keep the economy functioning (Mlambo, 2017). The total power supply has been far below national demand for many years, and both domestic and commercial consumers must endure lengthy and frequent power cuts. The formerly well-maintained transport system had become dilapidated by the second decade of the new millennium, with the NRZ system having nearly collapsed. This has resulted in transporting all cargo by road exerting unnecessary pressure on the badly maintained national road network, further the weakening the infrastructure (CZI, 2015). The lack of sufficient electrical power, of clean reticulated water, and an inefficient road and railway system has given Zimbabwe a negative image by prospective visitors and investors alike (CZI, 2015: 14).

### 7.2.3. Objective 3: To Evaluate the Dimensions of Nation Brand Measurement Indexes

There are two major nation brand measurement indexes: The Country Brand Index (CBI) by FutureBrand, a global branding consultancy (Fetscherin 2010: 468) and the Anholt GfK Roper NBI designed by Anholt (2005). As shown by their responses, the respondents were aware of the Nation Brands Index (NBI). They gave the six dimensions as: exports, governance, culture, people, tourism, immigration, and investment. The significant dimensions outlined by respondents are investment and immigration, followed by tourism, exports and governance, which were tied at second-ranking, followed by people, with their last ranking being culture and heritage. However, the CBI dimensions were not mentioned. The CBI has four main

dimensions: value system, quality of life, good for business, and lastly, heritage and culture. These dimensions are used in association with the proprietary Hierarchical Decision Model (HDM) for determining how key audiences perceive a country's brand (FutureBrand, 2014: 9). The HDM consists of seven items: awareness, familiarity, association, preference, consideration, decision/visitation, and advocacy. The HDM response forms the basis of the CBI association dimensions, status and experience, on which country brands are assessed. Status constitutes three factors: value system, quality of life and business potential, each of which have ten variables in all. Experience constitutes three dimensions: heritage, tourism and made-in, which together have 12 variables. Accordingly, the CBI has 22 items upon which country brands are assessed in terms of the hierarchical response in the HDM.

The CBI index tracks the reputation of 118 countries around the world, including South Africa and other Africa countries. Africa's strength with reference to the CBI dimensions are: visitation for vacation/holiday, and natural beauty. Its weaknesses are: lack of advanced technology, poor infrastructure, lack of political freedom, tolerance, poor safety, poor health and education, and unfavourable business environment (FutureBrand, 2014: 46).

From the eight countries which were included in the CBI for the three years ending 2012, Zimbabwe was the worst performing with a mean ranking of 112. This suggests that investors targeting SADC may not select Zimbabwe as an investment destination. Zimbabwe may be selected as a last resort if they were considering the CBI performance as a basis for selecting an FDI destination. From the FutureBrand Status-Experience Matrix, a country must have a score of at least 23% on status and 30% on experience to qualify as a brand. Zimbabwe does not even qualify to be called a country brand, but just as a country because of its poor score in

the FutureBrand's 2014 country status-experience portfolio analysis model—the average status for Zimbabwe being 10%, and average experience being 15% (Muzondo 2017: 161).

There have been some emerging new models like the Nation Brand Molecule (NBM). The dimensions of this model are: economy, government, science and technology, society, tourism, geography, and nature. The model shares five dimensions with Anholt's hexagon (NBI) viz., tourism, government, culture, society, and economy. With the FutureBrand Index (CBI) it shares four dimensions viz., government, culture and heritage, society, and tourism (Rojas-Mendez, 2013). It can thus be said that the Anholt GfK Roper model provides a template upon which other models are developed regarding the dimensions to be considered for measuring NBI.

#### 7.2.4. Objective 4: To Establish the Commonly Used Index for Measuring Nation Brand Image

The Anholt GfK Roper NBI (Branding-Institute CMR AG, 2013) and CBI (FutureBrand) are commonly used indexes used to measure a nation's brand. Although there are some micro indexes used in measuring a nation's brand image, it seems they borrow from the macro-indexes like the NBM (Rojas-Mendez) and CBI (Fetscherin, 2010). In the last few years, there has been an emergence of new models used to measure country brand, and these include the Virtuous Circle of Creative Country Reputation (Morgan et al., 2011), the Country Brand Strength Index (CBSI) (Fetscherin, 2010), and the Bloom Consultancy Brand Ranking. However, these new indexes remain less recognised than the NBI and CBI (Fetscherin, 2010).

Brand Finance has the Nation Brand Strength Index (BSI) which measures the brand strength and value of 100 leading countries using a method based on the royal relief mechanism. It is determined by reference to performance in 195 data points across 4 pillars: goods and services,

talent, and investment. A score out of 100 is calculated for each of the 4 pillars. These are then combined to produce an overall Brand Strength Index (BSI), also out of 100. Based on the score, each nation is assigned a rating between AAA+ and D in a format similar to that of a credit rating (Brand Finance, 2014: 10). The BSI however is not as common as the NBI and CBSI, respectively. The two indexes (NBI and CBSI), are highly and significantly correlated, indicating they measure the same phenomena, using different approaches, methodologies, and data, suggesting that the indexes are complementary and interdependent (Fetscherin, 2010: 466).

#### 7.2.5. Objective 5: To Determine the Critical Dimensions to be Included in Developing Zimbabwe's Nation Brand

The critical dimensions to be included in Zimbabwe's nation branding are: people, culture and heritage, tourism, investment and immigration, exports, and governance.

##### 7.2.5.1. *People*

The dimension of 'People' is positively associated with Zimbabwe's NBI ( $\beta = .199$ ). A unit increase in people perceptions will increase Zimbabwe's NBI by 19.9%. These results mean that Zimbabweans are competent when communicating with foreigners. They are friendly people when welcoming foreigners, and they do not discriminate against foreigners. Zimbabweans are literate people, open to taking different ideas from other nationalities, and observe their own tradition and culture in harmony with others. Foreigners envy Zimbabwe's education system and want to enrol. Various studies have discussed the role of local people in place branding, showing that they are indeed a critical dimension for the formation of place brands and therefore be considered as a manageable asset in place branding (Mugo & Mwencha, 2018). The perceived authenticity and trustworthiness of word-of-mouth

advertising and communication highlights the important role of residents in the brand communication process (Zenker, 2011). The views of residents are significant for external target markets as they are naturally considered informal, authentic, and insider sources of information about a place. Therefore, local people should have credible information about the place so that they do not misinform foreigners or visitors. This is unlikely in the case of Zimbabwe since the literacy rate in the country is relatively high. However, the main challenge is that the residents or local people do not constitute a homogeneous coherent group, but include a multiplicity of groups that will have varying and conflicting preferences, desires, or attitudes (Mugo & Mwencha, 2018). For example, people in Zimbabwe belong to different political parties, and their views concerning Zimbabwe in the political arena are different and biased, along with their respective party-political ideologies.

The Brand Kenya Board proposed several natural branding initiatives that involve Kenyans. For instance, Kenya is rich with international achievers in all fields, be they sports, environment, or academics.

#### 7.2.5.2. *Culture and Heritage*

The dimension of 'Culture and Heritage' has a negative impact on Zimbabwe's NBI ( $\beta = -.027$ ). All things being equal, when the other independent variables are held constant, the Zimbabwe NBI will decrease by 2.7% if there is a 100% increase in culture and heritage. This means that the media is not informing and educating the inhabitants of Zimbabwe about the country's products and services. The local media tarnishes the image of Zimbabwe worldwide. One cannot readily recall the symbols and logos attached to Zimbabwean products. The media is fuelling the exaggeration of the political situation in Zimbabwe. The national identity has an indirect implication on nation branding. Cultural products such as films, books and music

have a major role to play in determining a country's reputation and image. The image effects of cultural products can also have great longevity (Dinnie, 2004). Zimbabwe's media is greatly divided into State-controlled media and the private or independent media. The State-controlled media tend to support or report positively about the government, even if the facts on the grounds are indicating otherwise. Conversely, the private or independent media reports in a fair and balanced manner and take facts as they are, whether the story being reported is from the government or from the opposition. Since the political environment is highly polarised, the news about political events really tarnishes the country when foreigners read the news.

Despite historical experiences and a myriad of impacts from the external environment, many communities have managed to retain their traditions almost as they were many centuries ago. Cultural events are favoured largely because of the visibility and wide acceptability of cultural products as merit goods adding value and desirable attributes to a place, but there are numerous other possibilities such as sporting events, commercial fairs, political rallies, and international summit meetings (Riza et al., 2012; KNBS, 2012). Events such as HIFA, 'Chibuku Road to Fame' and other music festivals have managed to give Zimbabweans their identity, and they want to be associated with these events.

#### 7.2.5.3. *Tourism*

The dimension of 'Tourism' is positive ( $\beta = 0.183$ ). This indicates that a unit increase in the development of tourist attraction facilities results in an 18.3% increase in the Zimbabwe NBI. This means that Zimbabwe has a pleasant climate all-year-round for tourists and visitors alike. The country has world-class hotel accommodation to make tourists, visitors, and investors feel at home. Cultural tourism is a means of economic support for traditional activities. There are transport services capable of hosting and conveying tourists from one point to another. Cultural

tourism is a basis for preserving a nation's heritage that is important for nation branding. The country of Zimbabwe has established attractions like holiday resorts that can compete globally. Zimbabwe's image abroad prior to early 2000 encouraged tourist arrivals as the tourism sector had not been affected by the country's domestic and foreign policies. This resulted in an increase in tourist receipts during this period. Zimbabwe faced a decline in tourist arrivals from the original source markets like the UK, the USA, and EU, due to political instability, economic recession, and negative media publicity in 2008 (Karambakuwa et al., 2011). This was because of the effects of the Fast-Track Land Reform Programme and the financial crisis in the country. Likewise, the country depended upon China for tourists because of the Look East Policy.

Tourism was among the fastest-growing sectors of the economy in Zimbabwe, contributing significantly to the GDP from 1980 to 2000. The highest growth rate of tourism was in 1995 when Zimbabwe hosted the African Games (formally known as the All-Africa Games), organised by the African Union (AU), together with the Association of National Olympic Committees of Africa and the Association of African Sports Confederations, which saw a 35% increase in tourist arrivals. However, from 2002-on, tourist arrivals began to dwindle. The formation of the GNU in February 2009 had an immediate and positive effect on the tourism sector, resulting from the lifting of travel warnings against Zimbabwe by Western countries, and the internal political and economic stability that ensued (Karambakuwa et al., 2011).

Zimbabwe's hotels meet world standards only if they are constantly refurbished, along with the standards that are expected globally. The economic environment has not however been entirely ideal as the country's hotels lost some of their franchises with international franchisors. This had a negative impact on the standards of some of the leading hotels like the Rainbow

Tourism Group (formerly The Sheraton Harare, and The Monomotapa lost its franchise from The Crown Plaza), consequently, the standards of these hotels may not fully meet world-class benchmarks, expected by international guests.

Concerning infrastructure, Zimbabwe's road network has of late been in poor repair due to the lack of regular maintenance. Many of the main highways are in bad shape save for some that have been resealed. The Masvingo-Beitbridge Highway is in dire need of rehabilitation considering the high volume of traffic that uses the road, including tourists travelling to Great Zimbabwe use. Although some airports are under renovation, their current state is far from the standards recommended by the International Air Transport Association (IATA).

The climate of Zimbabwe is ideal for most tourists from Western countries because of the warm temperatures that the country enjoys throughout the year. Zimbabwe has established national heritage sites in the form of Victoria Falls and the Great Zimbabwe, which are considered prime attractions by international tourists. Tourism also greatly benefits from a strong brand (Lucarelli & Berg, 2011). In some cases, a too-strong connection between tourism and the nation brand may indeed prove detrimental, particularly for countries whose tourism is founded upon rural and traditional imagery such as Kenya (Hankinson, 2010; Mary & Misiani, 2017).

#### 7.2.5.4. *Exports*

The dimension of 'Exports' has a negative impact on the Zimbabwe nation brand index ( $\beta = -.340$ ). This means that the country of origin has a negative effect on the selection of a product or brand. Zimbabwean brands bring unpleasant memories to people's minds. Products produced in Zimbabwe are regarded as inferior in quality from those of other countries in the same industry or sector. The country-of-origin effect has an influence on a country's image with regards to the differentiation and value of the product on the market. Furthermore, the

dimension of 'Exports' refer to 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 (Branding-Institute CMR AG, 2013). Studies reveal that consumers extend the characteristics of places to products, and thus prefer products from specific countries, and not from others (Al-Sulaiti & Baker, 1998).

Zimbabwe has brands that are specific to Zimbabwe. These include brands like Mazoe Orange Crush and Kariba Bream, which are products uniquely associated with Zimbabwe. A country's product origin may provide it with a competitive advantage, thus making companies from a specific country promote a product using the country-of-origin asset (Papadopoulos & Heslop 2014). For example, Swiss watches, Scotch whisky, Columbian coffee, and Russian vodka are all examples where companies use the country's name in the promotion of their products (Fetscherin, 2010). Not all products produced in Zimbabwe are of high quality and *vice-versa*. However, some people may associate the products from one country with some negative incident that may have happened in a particular country. This may deter some people from purchasing such a product. For instance, some people may not buy a product simply because child labour has been used in the manufacturing of the product or human rights abuses are associated with the manufacturing country. Major brands in Zimbabwe have joined the 'Buy Zimbabwe' initiative. The 'Buy Zimbabwe' initiative promotes credible, quality, and reputable brands, locally produced in Zimbabwe, where brands under the 'Buy Zimbabwe' initiative are easily recognised and recalled because they include the 'Buy Zimbabwe' licensed logo printed on their product packaging.

#### 7.2.5.5. *Investment and Immigration*

The dimension of 'Investment and Immigration' is positively associated with the Zimbabwe nation brand index ( $\beta = .145$ ). A unit increase in investment and immigration policies will increase the Zimbabwe nation brand index by 14.5%. These results mean that foreign investors attract talent and expertise into the country. In Zimbabwe, foreign investors foster successful linkages between international and local companies and this boosts the image of the country. Hosting international events also attracts foreign investors.

Investment has a significant impact on nation branding. However, the investment policies in Zimbabwe repel investors. The Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment Act has been a major obstacle to FDI. Investors are willing to invest in a stable political environment with consistent policies. But the current political environment favours the East Asia, especially the People's Republic of China (PRC), because the Zimbabwe Government has officially adopted its 'Look East Policy'. Although the country has highly skilled people, some of these have migrated to greener pastures in the region or overseas. This is because Zimbabwe prides itself in possessing a large pool of highly skilled and sought-after workers in Africa, trained locally and in institutions around the world.

Various studies point to the instrumental role of place brands in channelling resources into countries, cities, and towns, as they compete for the global stock of wealth, trade, population, and prestige aiming to accomplish various economic, political, or socio-psychological objectives (Lucarelli & Berg, 2011). National governments are eager to attract FDI, by undertaking a specific type of marketing called investment promotion which has been shown in various studies to be closely associated with FDI inflows (Safieh, 2013). The Zimbabwe Investment Authority (ZIA) administers all investment projects in the country. The investment

into the country has been greatly affected by the political instability obtaining in the country. Globally, competition for investment funds is fierce, where a growing number of countries have undertaken aggressive and proactive programmes to attract foreign investors (Dinnie, 2015).

#### 7.2.5.6. *Governance*

The dimension of 'Governance' is negatively associated with Zimbabwe's NBI ( $\beta = -.086$ ). This means that the presence of poor and dilapidated infrastructure and obsolete technology in Zimbabwe's tertiary institutions tarnishes the image of the country. National policies regarding taxation of foreign business investment negatively influences the economy of the country. The seizing of assets of foreigners without compensation also discourages foreign investment. Likewise, political instability has damaged the country's image. The selective implementation of the rule of law dispels foreign investors. Human rights abuses that are not accurately reported in Zimbabwe negatively affect the image of the country. Investors, tourists, and other international travellers do not enjoy visiting a country that has a bad human rights record.

Zimbabwe's policies are skewed towards the minority who tend to benefit at the expense of the majority. A case in point is the Fast-Track Land Reform Programme, where senior ZANU-PF officials and their politically-connected supporters directly benefitted from the redistribution of land, as opposed to the disenfranchised and landless poor, for which the exercise was originally intended. The Indigenisation Economic Empowerment (IEE) General Notice 114 of 2011 provides for indigenisation in the mining sector by requiring businesses operating in the sector to cede 51% equity to designated entities. The Indigenisation Policy as reflected in the IEEA unambiguously insists that all foreign-owned companies with a share capital above US\$ 500 000 operating in Zimbabwe are to cede 51% of their shares or interest

therein to indigenous Zimbabweans. Furthermore, a number of economic sectors have been specifically reserved for indigenous Zimbabweans (<http://www.nieeb.co.zw/index.php/sectors/reserved-sectors>).

By implication, no non-indigenous businesses will be allowed to invest in the reserved sector unless under special circumstances as determined by government line ministries and approved by Cabinet. In this regard, the economic sectors reserved for indigenous Zimbabweans are the very sectors that have been taken by the politically-connected few. These policy inconsistencies have affected serious investors to shift their attention elsewhere. At inception, the Act was not clear; indeed, it seems that each Government Minister / Ministerial portfolio interpreted individually as she or he understood it. This caused commotion in the investment arena. Many people thus failed to correctly interpret the Act. It was only after the intervention of the late President Mugabe, that some relative sanity was brought to the interpretation of the Act.

Legislation such as The Public Order and Security Act (POSA) and The Access to Information and Protection of Privacy Act (AIPPA) inhibited the right to freedom of expression and brought in the use of excessive force by the police, army, and security agents. Arbitrary arrests and detention without trial were undertaken using these pieces of legislation. Human rights are being wantonly violated when citizens are refused their rights to freedom of expression and association. The seizure of White-owned farms by the government demonstrates the lack of property rights in the country. Therefore, it is inaccurate to state that Zimbabwe promotes a favourable environment for peace, equal opportunity, and economic viability.

Governance means the public opinion about national government competence and fairness as well as its perceived commitment to global issues such as peace and security, justice and

poverty and the environment (Branding-Institute CMR AG, 2013). Good governance is essential in strengthening democracy, promoting effective policy implementation and application of the rule of law and it also promotes accountability, transparency, efficiency, and the rule of law in public institutions at all levels (KIPPRA, 2013). Without proper institutions of governance that promote social stability and legal certainty, there cannot be any investment and assumption of risk that form the business of a market economy (KIPPRA, 2013). According to the Mo Ibrahim Index of African Governance (Mo Ibrahim Foundation, 2015; Vuylsteke, 2015), Zimbabwe had a score of 40.4 out of 100 in overall governance and was ranked 44<sup>th</sup> out of 54 on the continent and 12<sup>th</sup> out of 12 countries in Southern Africa (Mo Ibrahim Foundation, 2015; Vuylsteke, 2015).

Corruption has also contributed to the negative image of Zimbabwe. Corruption is endemic across the public sector. This is again highlighted by the IIAG Report on Africa Governance that stated that Zimbabwe had a low score on accountability because of corruption in government and among public officials (Mo Ibrahim Foundation, 2015; Vuylsteke, 2015).

In terms of the qualitative research, each of the indexes have named the dimensions differently, but it is a matter of semantics as these may mean the same, e.g., the Nation Brand Strength Index (NBSI) by Brand Finance (2014), the dimensions of which include: investment, goods and services, people services and tourism. In contrast, the Nation Brand Molecule (NBM) by Rojas-Mendez, et al. (2013) has the following dimensions: economy, geography and nature, science and technology and government. Fetscherin's (2010) Country Brand Strength Index (CBSI) has the following dimensions: exporting, tourism, FDI, and government environment. From the three indexes, three dimensions clearly stand out as common and are thus critical

when branding a nation. These are: tourism, exports, and governance. However, from the NBI perspective, all six dimensions are essential for a strong nation brand to be achieved.

### **7.3. Chapter Summary**

The primary causes for the negative image of Zimbabwe as a country and as a brand hinge on the actions and policies set by the ZANU-PF Government. These include: political instability in the country, lack of property rights, lack of the rule of law, the denegation of the right of freedom of expression and right of freedom of association, as well as the human rights of Zimbabwe's citizens are infringed. Rampant corruption in the public sector is yet another cause. The negative image of the country thus has great consequences for the country's economic environment, and the government should not downplay it as a major contributor to Zimbabwe's problems as a nation.

The next chapter will provide a detailed summary of the study, its major findings, and conclusions, makes recommendations, as well as identifies some managerial implications, details the contribution of the study to theory and describes its limitations, suggests areas for further study, and provides some final remarks.

## **Chapter 8**

### **Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations**

#### **8.1. Introduction**

This chapter summarises the significant findings of the research, by providing a detailed summary of the study, its major findings, and conclusions, makes recommendations, as well as identifies some managerial implications, details the contribution of the study to theory and describes its limitations, suggests areas for further study, and provides some final remarks.

The conclusions are made with reference to the research objectives. It is from the findings that implications to management are identified and recommendations made in the development of a nation brand measurement framework for Zimbabwe.

#### **8.2. Summary of the Study**

The study sought to develop a nation brand measurement framework for Zimbabwe. Different countries have frameworks that suit their particular situations. Zimbabwe has had a negative image for close to two decades. The negative image was triggered by the controversial Fast-Track Land Reform Programme begun in early 2000. The period which followed saw Zimbabwe being isolated by its erstwhile coloniser, the UK, the EU, USA, and other Western countries. Since that time, the country has been plagued by different problems and challenges, such as a shortage of money in banks, hyperinflation, a shortage of basic commodities in local shops and supermarkets, the deterioration and denigration of human rights, the rights to freedom of expression and freedom of association, and the breakdown of major infrastructure in the country, among other problems.

The primary objective of this present study was to develop a nation brand measurement framework for Zimbabwe. The specific objectives were: to examine the strategic issues that need to be addressed to improve Zimbabwe's brand, to determine the key factors that influence Zimbabwe's brand image, to evaluate the dimensions of nation brand measurement indexes, to establish the commonly used indexes for measuring nation brand image, and to determine the critical dimensions to be included in developing Zimbabwe's nation brand measurement framework.

The study was critical as it provided literature on nation branding, although the existing literature on nation branding available was predominantly from developed countries in Europe, Eastern Europe, and Asia. There are a few case studies of African countries that carried nation branding, the most successful being Kenya and South Africa. These countries came up with Brand Kenya and Brand South Africa, respectively. The study reviewed the literature on the theory and concepts of nation branding and nation branding models, indexes, and frameworks. This was done with a view to formulating an ideal nation branding measuring framework for Zimbabwe.

The motivation of the study was to find a worthwhile answer to Zimbabwe's negative image. Thus, if Zimbabwe were to acquire a positive image, it would reinvigorate the tourism industry, attract foreign direct investment, open more export markets, and access loans from the Bretton Woods institutions.

The study sought to establish the most critical elements that need to be incorporated in the developing of a Nation Brand Measurement Framework (NBMF) for Zimbabwe. To this end, the study used the post-positivism philosophy. Post-positivism holds a deterministic view where factors or causes probably determine effects. This falls in line with the research to

develop a NBMF for Zimbabwe, where the critical determinants are incorporated in the nation brand measurement framework itself. The development of the measurement framework further supported the assumption of the post-positivism philosophy, which encompasses the generation of a theory of framework.

This research adopted a mixed research design, which is a combination of a quantitative design and qualitative design. Stratified and purposive sampling were adopted. Data was collected from 510 respondents for the questionnaire, and 10 interviewees. After cleaning the data, the results were quantitatively and qualitatively analysed. The results from the principal component analysis using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22 Software Platform, supporting the six hypotheses formulated. A mixed-methods approach gave voice to the study participants and thus ensured that the study findings were grounded in the participants' lived experiences. In addition, the mixed-method approach fosters scholarly interaction, provides methodological flexibility, providing great flexibility, being adaptable to many other study designs.

This study used stratified sampling where the population was divided into 3 strata for ministries, parastatals, and shareholders. The researchers specifically used purposive sampling for the selection of the interviewees, the purpose of which was to provide in-depth information about Zimbabwe's image and other issues, to improve Zimbabwe's image, and determine the key factor that influences Zimbabwe's image. The study involved subjects from ministries, parastatals and shareholders who had knowledge of branding Zimbabwe.

Questionnaires and interview guides were used as the data collections tools. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22 Software Platform and Microsoft Excel Spreadsheet Software were used to analyse the data.

The major findings of the study are summarised in the next section.

### **8.3. Major Findings of the Study**

Nation branding remains a new phenomenon despite having been developed in the last decade. This is because many researchers are still discovering the many gaps that need filling. Many researchers have tackled the area of nation branding by looking at a single dimension of the six dimensions, like the impact of tourism on nation branding. In contrast, other researchers looked at the impact of FDI on nation branding. This present research study looked at the importance of each dimension of nation branding according to the Anholt-GfK Nation Branding Hexagon (NBH), with reference to Zimbabwe. The ranking of the elements was done to show which elements really affect the nation branding for Zimbabwe and thereby create a nation brand measurement for the country. Other researchers are of the opinion that nations are not supposed to be branded. This research provides an important contribution through ranking the nation branding elements as they relate to Zimbabwe. This was achieved by signifying which elements were critical when developing the nation branding measurement for Zimbabwe.

The implication of the findings will be discussed in the sub-sections which follow. Finally, the contribution and limitations of the study will be outlined.

#### **8.3.1. The Strategic Issues that Need to be Addressed in Order to Improve Zimbabwe's Brand**

The following six strategic issues that need to be addressed are as follows:

- i. Sound economic reform;
- ii. Political stability;

- iii. Revision of policies;
- iv. Governance;
- v. Attraction of investments;
- vi. Infrastructural development.

### 8.3.2. The Key Factors Which Influence the Brand Image of Zimbabwe

The six dominant factors which influence the brand image of Zimbabwe were identified as follows:

- i. Politics;
- ii. Competitive exports;
- iii. Tourism;
- iv. Infrastructure;
- v. Respect of stakeholder interests;
- vi. The economic situation.

### 8.3.3. The Major Dimensions of a Nation Brand Measurement Index

The major dimensions of a Nation Brand Measurement Index were as follows:

- i. Investment and immigration (50%);
- ii. Tourism (30%) // Exports (30%);
- iii. Governance (30%);
- iv. People (20%);
- v. Culture and Heritage (10%).

However, the CBI dimensions were not mentioned. The CBI has four main dimensions are: Value System, Quality of Life, Good for Business, Heritage and Culture. However, these dimensions are used in association with the proprietary model, i.e., the Hierarchical Decision Model (HDM) for determining how key audiences perceive a country's brand.

#### 8.3.4. The Commonly Used Index for Measuring Nation Brand Image

The study established the commonly-used indexes for measuring nation brand image. The NBI and CBI are commonly used indexes used to measure a nation's brand. Although there are some other micro indexes used in measuring a nation's brand image, it seems they borrow from the macro-indexes like the Nation Brand Molecule (NBM) (Rojas-Mendez, et al., 2013), and the Country Brand Strength Index (CBSI) (Fetscherin, 2010).

#### 8.3.5. Critical Dimensions that Need to be Included in Developing Zimbabwe's Nation Brand

The critical dimensions were modelled and their association was determined. These can be summarised as follows:

- i. The dimension of 'People' is positively associated with Zimbabwe nation brand index ( $\beta = .199$ ). A unit increase in people perceptions will increase Zimbabwe's NBI by 19.9%.
- ii. The dimension of 'Culture and Heritage' has a negative impact on Zimbabwe's NBI ( $\beta = -.027$ ).
- iii. The dimension of 'Tourism' is positively associated with Zimbabwe's NBI ( $\beta = 0.183$ ). This means that Zimbabwe's tourism plays a pivotal role in influencing Zimbabwe's NBI.

- iv. The dimension of 'Exports' has a negative impact on Zimbabwe's NBI ( $\beta = -.340$ ). This means that the country of origin has a negative effect on the selection of a product or brand.
- v. The dimension of 'Investment and Immigration' is positively associated with Zimbabwe's NBI ( $\beta = .145$ ).
- vi. The dimension of 'Governance' is negatively associated with Zimbabwe's NBI ( $\beta = -.086$ ). National policies regarding taxation on foreign business investment negatively influence the economy of the country. There is no consistency in implementing the rule of law, which attracts foreign investors and it is not easy to communicate important information to foreigners, tourists, and visitors, when they do not enjoy basic human rights.

#### **8.4. Conclusions**

##### **8.4.1. To Examine the Strategic Issues That Need to Be Addressed to Improve Zimbabwe's Brand**

The study concludes that the strategic issues that are affecting Zimbabwe's brand are of a macro-environmental nature. Thus, the economic environment touches on inflation, cash shortages, the monetary policy and fiscal policy. The political environment touches on political stability. The Zimbabwe Government's ideology and system that is followed for governance relate to a partisan approach where members of the ruling ZANU-PF party or the politically connected are never adversely affected by any policy. Also, political processes, the party system and election funding. Although elections are held when they are due, the process is littered with widespread political violence throughout the country, and the financing of the opposition political parties during election periods is not transparently done. Political

instability is rife because the country is heavily polarised between the ruling ZANU-PF party and the main opposition MDC-Alliance party. On the economic front, although the country had economic reforms by removing the multi-currency system, the local currency the ZWL (Z\$) is failing to resuscitate the economy, and the economy is gradually dollarizing, traders having reverted to using the US\$, making goods and services expensive for the average person.

Although the government repealed the two pieces of media laws, The Public Order and Security Act (POSA) and The Access to Information and Protection of Privacy Act (AIPPA), together with The Maintenance of Peace and Order Bill and The Freedom of Information Bill, have resulted in no systemic changes taking place, other than the names of the various Acts. Independent journalists are still being incarcerated, and their rights to freedom of expression and association are not being protected. Corruption by government officials and parastatals like the ZESA is still being reported, but the perpetrators are not being held accountable, signifying poor governance in the country. Due to the negative image of the country, the attraction of FDI has not increased substantially. This means that foreign investors continue to have no confidence in the country, and policy inconsistencies still affect the investment climate, such as with The Indigenisation and Empowerment Act. Lastly, the state of infrastructure is so deplorable, there being glaring evidence of neglect and a general lack of routine and necessary maintenance. The country continues to experience electricity load-shedding and power outages, and shortages of potable clean water, and the rail and road transport systems are in dire need of attention.

#### 8.4.2. To Determine the Key Factors that Influence Zimbabwe's Brand Image

The study concludes that politics, competitive exports, infrastructure, respect of stakeholder interests, and the economic situation are the key factors that influence Zimbabwe's brand

image. Zimbabwe's political environment is heavily polarised, and the terrain is not level. Zimbabwe as an investment destination has been greatly affected by political conflicts, especially after elections where the results are usually contested in the courts. This has tarnished the image of the country to the extent that the tourism sector has been deeply affected, with the country being labelled internationally as an unsafe tourist destination. Civil unrest and turmoil have disrupted the business environment to the extent that foreign investment has been low. The country's exports have been negatively affected by the image of the country despite the high quality of the products, thereby affecting export-related revenue inflows into the country. Property rights are not respected as seen in the Fast-Track Land Reform Programme and other business ventures where properties are seized or expropriated without compensation. The policy inconsistencies and the poor operational business environment have seriously affected the image of the country.

#### 8.4.3. To Evaluate the Dimensions of Nation Brand Measurement Indexes

Anholt's Nation Branding Hexagon (NBH) dimensions were as follows: investment and immigration, tourism, exports, governance, people, and culture and heritage were common with respondents. However, there were other nation branding indexes like the CBI which were not common with respondents.

#### 8.4.4. To Establish the Commonly Used Indexes for Measuring Nation Brand Measuring Image

The commonly used nation branding indexes were NBI and CBI, however, the other micro indexes were not common with respondents in this study.

#### 8.4.5. To Determine the Critical Dimensions to Be Included in Developing a Nation Branding Measurement Framework for Zimbabwe

The critical dimensions to be included in developing a nation branding framework for Zimbabwe were: people, tourism, investment and immigration, culture and heritage, governance, and exports. While with culture and heritage there is a negative association, it is a necessary dimension. Exports and governance reflect adverse effects, but there are essential dimensions in the formulation of a Nation Brand Measurement Framework (NBMF) for Zimbabwe.

Zimbabwe's image is negative and has been greatly affected by the government's policies which are often partisan, populist, and inconsistent. It can thus be concluded that governance is at the centre of Zimbabwe's brand image. The Fast-Track Land Reform Programme, The Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment, and Media laws like The Public Order and Security Act (POSA) and The Access to Information and Protection of Privacy Act (AIPPA) negatively contributed to the current image that is currently present in Zimbabwe. These policies affect citizens, international visitors, and potential investors. Consequently, many Zimbabweans are migrating to greener pastures, international tourists have changed their destinations to neighbouring countries, and foreign investors have found more lucrative investment opportunities elsewhere.

#### **8.5. Recommendations**

In terms of the findings of the research, the following recommendations are made.

- i. Different models or indexes. Apart from the Anholt-GfK Nation Branding Hexagon (NBH) and its six elements forming the foundation of nation branding, other evolving

models or indexes should be used as nation branding elements. In fact, new models may help in bringing different results for different countries, especially countries in the developing world such as Zimbabwe. Models like the NBM have many different dimensions that can be used to formulate a nation measuring framework. The NBM has seven dimensions: science and technology, geography and nature, economy, tourism, society, government, and culture and heritage. The model has an additional dimension which is not like Anholt's NBI. This means that nation campaigns can leverage on that dimension compared to other countries. New and contemporary models have new dimensions and a new focus on the discipline is evolving.

- ii. Critical stakeholders. When formulating nation branding campaigns there is need to involve critical stakeholders. The Government should initiate an independent board to take charge of nation branding issues. If the government remains involved, the campaign will be politicised. A note should be taken from Kenya which formulated an independent board, Brand Kenya Board, and South Africa has Brand South Africa.
- iii. Important elements. From the findings, it has been revealed that the essential elements in the formulation of Zimbabwe's nation branding framework are: people, tourism, investment and immigration, culture and heritage, exports, and governance. This framework will help in that the Board responsible may be directed to start their campaigns by focusing on these elements.

## **8.6. Managerial Implications**

In terms of the findings of the research, the following managerial implication are made.

- i. Genuine reforms. For the image of Zimbabwe to be changed, the political environment should be stabilised. Policymakers should be sincere and willing to make genuine

political and electoral reforms, and political inclusivity should be prioritised and partisan policies and politics, should be avoided.

- ii. Structured roadmap. There is need for a structured road map towards re-engagement with Western countries, including some EU countries with set targets and deadlines.
- iii. Discouraging corruption. Corruption is another vice that is discouraging investment in the country. Corruption in the public sector is endemic. The government should deal decisively with all forms of corruption if inward investment is to increase in the country.
- iv. Infrastructural development. Infrastructural development is key to any economic development in the country. Policymakers should accelerate the maintenance and upgrading of essential infrastructures such as power stations, road and networks, and telecommunications. Advanced infrastructure lures investment in the country.

### **8.7. Contribution of the Study to Theory**

This study contributed to the body of knowledge in four specific ways.

Firstly, by submitting a framework that can be used in measuring Zimbabwe's Nation Brand Measurement Framework (NBMF), as depicted in Figure 6.11 in chapter 6 of this research study. The framework ranked the dimensions in order of importance of Zimbabwe's nation branding campaign:

- i. People;
- ii. Culture & Heritage;
- iii. Tourism;
- iv. Exports;
- v. Investment and Immigration;
- vi. Governance.

The study submits the process of building a nation brand measurement framework utilised Regression Analysis to formulate the relationship between the two variables. In the study, Regression Analysis was employed to establish the influence of independent variable (people, culture and heritage, tourism, investment and immigration and governance) to the Nation Brand Index (Zimbabwe's NBI). It can be deduced that the Zimbabwe nation brand index has a positive relationship with various dimensions of nation brand index (people, culture and heritage, tourism, exports, investment and immigration and governance). The  $R^2$  indicates the 18.6 % ( $R=.186$ ) of Zimbabwe is attributable to the independent variable.

Secondly, the framework can be used when evaluating a nation branding campaign. The findings are likely to be incorporated into methods that can be used when undertaking a nation branding audit.

Thirdly, the study acknowledges that all the dimensions of the Anholt-GfK Nation Branding Hexagon (NBH) are important in determining the image of Zimbabwe, as opposed to using one dimension like tourism or investment. Therefore, a holistic approach is ideal for Zimbabwe's image evaluation.

Fourthly, the research contributes to the literature by identifying the strengths and weaknesses of some models used in nation branding, as well as identifying some of the micro indexes used in conjunction with macro indexes in evaluating a country's image. The theories or models that can be proprietary, academic and default that used to measure nation brand image. The contribution of the study is that the model formulated is conceptual and was developed after reviewing the existing literature. It is useful in that it extends knowledge about nation brand measurement. However, the model is weak in that it was not validated through primary study.

Fifthly, the study contributed to the existing literature through its questionnaire. The questionnaire posed seven questions as compared to other proprietary models that use five questions per dimension. Furthermore, the study used a five-point Likert system, where '1' was Strongly Disagree and '5' was Strongly Agree. Other proprietary models employ a seven-point Likert questionnaire.

Regarding methodology, the study used purposive sampling, where key informants provided credible information about Zimbabwe's country image. Other studies used quota sampling on gender applicable to geography, region, and ethnicity.

Finally, the research findings are linked to the Anholt's model of Nation Branding Hexagon NBI, Festcherin's Country Brand Strength Index (CBSI), and Anholt-GfK Roper NBI as examined in chapter 3.

## **8.8. Limitations of the Research**

In terms of the findings, the following limitations of the research were recognised.

- i. Sample size. The most significant limitation is that the sample size of 510 respondents may not be representative enough to obtain accurate results for the study. Nevertheless, the respondents gave relevant information to the study.
- ii. Composition of the respondents. The composition of the respondents being drawn mainly from local people may not bring the desired results for the study. Nevertheless, the respondents had experience in nation branding.
- iii. Change in government. In 2017, when this study was undertaken, there was a change in government. Accordingly, there was great anticipation of a real change in policies

and government focus. While many respondents responded differently, each fostered hope in the new government.

- iv. Legislation. Government policies, such as The Access to Information and Protection of Privacy Act (AIPPA) of 2002, prevented respondents from many of the embassies participating in the study.

### **8.9. Suggestions for Further Study**

Developing a nation branding measuring framework for Zimbabwe has been undertaken using the Anholt-GfK Nation Branding Hexagon (NBH), where the nation branding hexagon (NBH) has been a foundation of nation branding. Many researchers have highlighted the challenges of the elements of the Anholt-GfK Nation Branding Hexagon (NBH) on nation branding. Accordingly, further research is recommended on developing a nation brand measurement of Zimbabwe using the Nation Brand Strength Index (NBSI) by Brand Finance.

A further area for further study concerns the conceptual framework which was deemed too simplistic. This represents a weakness in that it shows a linear relationship of the variables. Consequently, issues to do with nation brand strategy, formulation details, deployment of resources, and evaluation controls, may need to be considered in the formulation of a conceptual framework for future studies.

### **8.10. Some Final Remarks**

Nation branding is like a coat of paint on a well-built structure. Consequently, it is not advisable to paint a dilapidated structure with a fresh coat of paint and assume one has a new building. The implication is that nation branding cannot be a substitute for vital fundamental change. It is thus recommended that for Zimbabwe's nation branding to be a success, the

government should undertake political and economic reforms. Such actions will ensure that Western countries will make space for the re-engagement process to begin. The UK and USA have each categorically emphasised the need for such reforms. Policy consistency, predictability and transparency should be enforced to improve the ease of doing business in the country.

Furthermore, nation branding is not a marketing communications campaign, but a nation brand audit instrument that must be used to identify reputational gaps inherent in a country that needs redress. Therefore, the country should correct its nation brand policy, what the policy entails, who its stakeholders are, and what it promises them. Political stability, observing human rights, and the end of internal and external conflicts may be the fundamentals necessary for developing a positive nation brand.

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## Appendix A

### Questionnaire to Ministries, Parastatals and Stakeholders

#### Developing a Nation Brand Framework for Zimbabwe

This questionnaire comprises two sections:

Section A investigates perceptions regarding Zimbabwe's nation brand on a 5 point Likert 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 across (X) in the appropriate box.

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 box.

#### Section A. Perceptions Regarding Zimbabwe's Nation Brand

	Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Not Sure (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
<b>A. People</b>					
1. Zimbabweans are competent when communicating with foreigners.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Zimbabweans are friendly people when welcoming foreigners.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Zimbabweans do not discriminate against foreigners.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Zimbabweans are literate people.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Zimbabweans are open (take) different ideas from other nationalities.	1	2	3	4	5

6. In Zimbabwe people observe their own tradition and culture in harmony with others.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Foreigners envy Zimbabwe's education system and want to enrol.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Zimbabweans enjoy a higher quality of life.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Zimbabweans pride in their locally manufactured products.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Zimbabweans are perceived as workaholics by foreigners.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Zimbabweans are disciplined people.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Zimbabweans are peace loving people.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Zimbabweans are family oriented.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Zimbabweans are conservative people.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Zimbabweans are fun-loving people.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Zimbabweans are sophisticated people	1	2	3	4	5
17. Zimbabweans are trendy, fashion-loving people.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Zimbabweans are simple people.	1	2	3	4	5

19. Zimbabweans are ethical / not corrupt in business approach / business transactions.	1	2	3	4	5
<b>B. Culture and Heritage</b>					
1. The media informs and educates the inhabitants of Zimbabwe about the country's products and services.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Local media promotes the image of Zimbabwe worldwide.	1	2	3	4	5
3. One can readily recall the symbols and logos attached to Zimbabwean products.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Media limits exaggeration of the political situation in Zimbabwe.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Knowledge of foreign languages gives Zimbabwe as a nation a competitive advantage.	1	2	3	4	5
6. National identity has a direct implication on nation branding.	1	2	3	4	5
7. In Zimbabwe, religion plays a major role in the educational system.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Cross-cultural communication plays an important role in nation branding.	1	2	3	4	5

9. Zimbabwe's educational level plays an important role in boosting the country's image.	1	2	3	4	5
10. In Zimbabwe religion dictates the functioning of business transactions.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Winning of mega events like world cup soccer, Zimbabwe as a nation to gains nation branding awareness.	1	2	3	4	5
12. The media can play a diagnostic role in pointing out and suggesting control measures regarding corruption, crime, poverty, and other social ills.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Zimbabwean cultural events such as the Harare International Festival of the Arts (HIFA) attract people from various countries into Zimbabwe.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Zimbabwean cultural events such as music galas attract people from various countries.	1	2	3	4	5
15. In Zimbabwe various languages are used on brand labels that attract tourists.	1	2	3	4	5
16. The Zimbabwe's education system enables inhabitants to become better ambassadors of their country.	1	2	3	4	5

<b>C. Tourism</b>					
1. Zimbabwe has a pleasant climate all year round for tourists and visitors.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Zimbabwe has world class hotel accommodation to make tourists, visitors and investors feel at home.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Cultural tourism is a means of economic support for traditional activities.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Zimbabwe has transport services capable of hosting and conveying tourists from one point to another.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Cultural tourism is a basis for preserving a nation's heritage that is important for the purpose of nation branding.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Zimbabwe has established attractions like holiday resorts that can compete globally.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Zimbabwe's image abroad encourages tourist arrivals.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Zimbabwe's tourism sector has not been affected by the country's domestic and foreign policies.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Tourist receipts increased in the last decade (2000-2010).	1	2	3	4	5

10. The tourism sector contributes significantly to the country's GDP.	1	2	3	4	5
<b>D. Exports</b>					
1. Country-of-Origin has an effect on the selection of a product or brand.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Zimbabwean brands bring pleasant memories to people's minds.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Products produced in Zimbabwe are regarded as inferior in quality from those of other countries in the same industry or sector.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The country-of-origin effect has an influence on a country's image with regards to the differentiation and value of the product on the market.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Zimbabwe's brands highly satisfy peoples' needs.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Zimbabwe's brands are easily recognisable among other competitive brands from foreign countries.	1	2	3	4	5
7. People want to buy and use Zimbabwean products more than from other countries.	1	2	3	4	5

8. Zimbabwe excels in promoting the growth of exports and imports of local products to the global market.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Zimbabwean brands are associated with high quality.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Foreigners have a positive attitude towards Zimbabwean products.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Zimbabwe products are frequently purchased in comparison to foreign products.	1	2	3	4	5
12. The country of effect has an influence on a country's image in the differentiation and value a product has on the market.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Zimbabwe ranks high on the World Economic Forum on Global Competitiveness Index.	1	2	3	4	5
<b>E. Investment and Immigration</b>					
1. In Zimbabwe, foreign investors attract talent and expertise into the country.	1	2	3	4	5
2. In Zimbabwe, foreign investors foster successful linkages between international firms and local firms.	1	2	3	4	5

3. The Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment Act attracts Foreign Direct Investment.	1	2	3	4	5
4. In Zimbabwe foreign investors boost the image of the country.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Hosting international events attracts foreign investors.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The economic environment in Zimbabwe promotes the growth of Foreign Direct Investment.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Zimbabwe's infrastructure promotes Foreign Direct Investment.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The Zimbabwe Investment Authority registered an increase of investors in Zimbabwe in the last decade (2000- 2010).	1	2	3	4	5
9. Zimbabwe's natural endowments like minerals attract foreign investors.	1	2	3	4	5
10. The Ease-of-Doing business in Zimbabwe has significantly improved business.	1	2	3	4	5
<b>F. Governance</b>					
1. Zimbabwe promotes a favourable environment for peace, equal opportunity, and economic viability for all inhabitants of the country.	1	2	3	4	5

2. The presence of sophisticated infrastructure and technology in Zimbabwe's tertiary institutions boost the image of the country.	1	2	3	4	5
3. National policies regarding taxation on foreign business investment boosts the economy of the country.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The absence of seizing of assets of foreigners with compensation attracts Foreign Direct Investment.	1	2	3	4	5
5. In Zimbabwe political stability helps to boost the country's image.	1	2	3	4	5
6. In Zimbabwe consistency in implementing the rule of law attracts foreign investors.	1	2	3	4	5
7. In Zimbabwe, it is easy to communicate important information to foreigners, tourists, and visitors.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Zimbabwe's policies give confidence and hope to the investors.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Zimbabwe upholds the repatriation of profits by foreigners to their home countries.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Zimbabwe upholds property rights of both locals and foreigners	1	2	3	4	5

11. Zimbabweans enjoy basic human rights.	1	2	3	4	5
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## Section B: Biographic Information

**1. Please indicate your position in the organisation**

<b>Minister</b>	<b>Chief Executive Officer</b>	<b>Manager</b>	<b>Assistant Manager</b>	<b>Supervisor</b>	<b>Ministry officer</b>
<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>

**2. Please indicate your gender**

<b>Male</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>2</b>

**3. Please indicate your age group**

<b>30-41</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>42-53</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>54 -65</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>Over 65</b>	<b>4</b>
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**4. Please indicate your highest educational qualification(s)**

<b>'O' Level</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>Diploma</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>Bachelor's Degree</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>Post-graduate degree/diploma</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>Other (please specify)</b>	<b>5</b>
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**5. Please indicate your period of current employment (years)**

<b>1-5</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>6-10</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>11-15</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>16-20</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>21 and above</b>	<b>5</b>
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**6. Please indicate in which sector (industry type) your organisation operates**

<b>Line Ministry</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>Mining</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>Parastatal</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>Farming</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>Sport</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>Media</b>	<b>8</b>

<b>Local Authority</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>Tourism</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>Embassy</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>Private individuals specify.....</b>	<b>10</b>

**7. Please indicate the number of employees in your organisation**

<b>50 - 99</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>100 - 149</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>150 - 199</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>200 - 249</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>Above 250</b>	<b>5</b>
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**THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING!**

## Appendix B

### Components of the Questionnaire Variables

Component	Questionnaire Number	Description
1	A1	Zimbabweans are competent when communicating with foreigners.
2	A2	Zimbabweans are friendly people when welcoming foreigners.
3	A3	Zimbabweans do not discriminate against foreigners.
4	A4	Zimbabweans are literate people.
5	A5	Zimbabweans are open (take) different ideas from other nationalities.
6	A6	In Zimbabwe, people observe their own tradition and culture in harmony with others.
7	A7	Foreigners envy Zimbabwe's education system and want to enrol.
8	A8	Zimbabweans enjoy a higher quality of life.
9	A9	Zimbabweans take pride in their locally manufactured products.
10	A10	Zimbabweans are perceived as workaholics by foreigners.
11	A11	Zimbabweans are disciplined people.
12	A12	Zimbabweans are peace-loving people.
13	A13	Zimbabweans are family oriented.
14	A14	Zimbabweans are conservative people.
15	A15	Zimbabweans are fun-loving people.
16	A16	Zimbabweans are sophisticated people
17	A17	Zimbabweans are trendy, fashion-loving people.
18	A18	Zimbabweans are simple people.
19	A19	Zimbabweans are ethical /not corrupt in business approach / business transactions.

20	B1	The media informs and educates the inhabitants of Zimbabwe about the country's products and services.
21	B2	Local media promotes the image of Zimbabwe worldwide.
22	B3	One can readily recall the symbols and logos attached to Zimbabwean products.
23	B4	Media limits exaggeration of the political situation in Zimbabwe.
24	B5	Knowledge of foreign languages gives Zimbabwe as a nation a competitive advantage.
25	B6	National identity has a direct implication on nation branding.
26	B7	In Zimbabwe, religion plays a major role in the educational system.
27	B8	Cross-cultural communication plays an important role in nation branding.
28	B9	Zimbabwe's educational level plays an important role in boosting the country's image.
29	B10	In Zimbabwe, religion dictates the functioning of business transactions.
30	B11	Winning mega events like the world cup soccer, Zimbabwe as a nation gains nation branding awareness.
31	B12	The media can play a diagnostic role in pointing out and suggesting control measures regarding corruption, crime, poverty, and other social ills.
32	B13	Zimbabwean cultural events such as the Harare International Festival of the Arts (HIFA) attract people from various countries into Zimbabwe.
33	B14	Zimbabwean cultural events such as music galas attract people from various countries.
34	B15	In Zimbabwe, various languages are used on brand labels that attract tourists.
35	B16	The Zimbabwe's education system enables inhabitants to become better ambassadors of their country.

36	C1	Zimbabwe has a pleasant climate all year round for tourists and visitors.
37	C2	Zimbabwe has world class hotel accommodation to make tourists, visitors and investors feel at home.
38	C3	Cultural tourism is a means of economic support for traditional activities.
39	C4	Zimbabwe has transport services capable of hosting and conveying tourists from one point to another.
40	C5	Cultural tourism is a basis for preserving a nation's heritage that is important for the purpose of nation branding.
41	C6	Zimbabwe has established attractions like holiday resorts that can compete globally.
42	C7	Zimbabwe's image abroad encourages tourist arrivals.
43	C8	Zimbabwe's tourism sector has not been affected by the country's domestic and foreign policies.
44	C9	Tourist receipts increased in the last decade (2000-2010).
45	C10	The tourism sector contributes significantly to the country's GDP.
46	D1	Country of origin has an effect on the selection of a product or brand.
47	D2	Zimbabwean brands bring pleasant memories to people's minds.
48	D3	Products produced in Zimbabwe are regarded as inferior in quality from those of other countries in the same industry or sector.
49	D4	The country-of-origin effect has an influence on a country's image with regards to the differentiation and value of the product on the market.
50	D5	Zimbabwe's brands highly satisfy peoples' needs.
51	D6	Zimbabwe's brands are easily recognisable among other competitive brands from foreign countries.

52	D7	People want to buy and use Zimbabwean products more than from products.
53	D8	Zimbabwe excels in promoting the growth of exports and imports of local products to the global market
54	D9	Zimbabwean brands are associated with high quality.
55	D10	Foreigners have a positive attitude towards Zimbabwean products.
56	D11	Zimbabwe products are frequently purchased in comparison to foreign products.
57	D12	The country of effect has an influence on a country's image in the differentiation and value a product has on the market.
58	D13	Zimbabwe ranks high on the World Economic Forum on Global Competitiveness Index.
59	E1	In Zimbabwe foreign investors attract talent and expertise into the country.
60	E2	In Zimbabwe foreign investors foster successful linkages between international firms and local firms.
61	E3	The indigenisation and Economic Empowerment Act attract Foreign Direct Investment.
62	E4	In Zimbabwe foreign investors boost the image of the country.
63	E5	Hosting international events attracts foreign investors.
64	E6	The economic environment in Zimbabwe promotes the growth of foreign direct investment.
65	E7	Zimbabwe's infrastructure promotes foreign investment.
66	E8	Zimbabwe Investment Authority registered an increase of investors in Zimbabwe in the last decade.
67	E9	Zimbabwe's natural endowments like minerals attract foreign investors.

68	E10	The Ease-of-Doing business in Zimbabwe has significantly improved business.
69	F1	Zimbabwe promotes a favourable environment for peace, equal opportunity, and economic viability for all inhabitants of the country.
70	F2	The presence of sophisticated infrastructure and technology in Zimbabwe's tertiary institutions boost the image of the country.
71	F3	National policies regarding taxation on foreign business investment boosts the economy of the country.
72	F4	The absence of seizing of assets of foreigners with compensation attracts Direct Foreign Investment.
73	F5	In Zimbabwe political stability helps to boost the country's image.
74	F6	In Zimbabwe consistency in implementing the rule of law attracts foreign investors.
75	F7	In Zimbabwe it is easy to communicate important information to foreigners, tourists, and visitors.
76	F8	Zimbabwe's policies give confidence and hope to the investors.
77	F9	Zimbabwe upholds the repatriation of profits by foreigners to their home countries.
78	F10	Zimbabwe upholds property rights of both locals and foreigners.
79	F11	Zimbabweans enjoy basic human rights.

## Appendix C

### Interview Guide

**Date of interview:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Name of interviewee:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Company name / institution:** \_\_\_\_\_

#### Core questions for the interview:

1. What is the state of Zimbabwe's current country image?
2. Is it positive or negative?
3. If the image is negative what factors has led to the negative image of Zimbabwe?
4. How can the negative image of Zimbabwe be improved?
5. What are the strategic issues that need to be addressed to improve Zimbabwe?
6. What are the key factors that influence Zimbabwe's brand image?
7. What are the commonly used indexes for measuring nation brand image?
8. How are the dimensions of nation brand measuring indexes evaluated?
9. What are the critical dimensions to be included in developing a Zimbabwe's brand measurement framework?

## Appendix D

### Letter of Authority to Carry Out Study

NP/33/450

All correspondence should be addressed to

**"THE SECRETARY"**

Telephone: 730081/7; 791823/7 702731  
Facsimile: 704116/723765/729311  
E-mail: mit@indandcom.co.zw  
Telegrams: "TRADEMIN", Harare  
Private Bag CY 7708, Causeway,  
Zimbabwe



ZIMBABWE

Reference:

**MINISTRY OF INDUSTRY,  
COMMERCE AND  
ENTERPRISE DEVELOPMENT**  
Mukwati Building  
4<sup>th</sup> Street/Livingstone Avenue  
Harare  
Zimbabwe

03 May 2018

Mr Patson Chawuruka  
6804 Westlea  
Harare

**REQUEST FOR AUTHORITY TO CARRY OUT STUDY ON  
DEVELOPING A NATION BRANDING MEASUREMENT FRAMEWORK  
FOR ZIMBABWE.**

Reference is made to your letter dated 29 March 2018 requesting to conduct research on developing a nation branding measurement framework for Zimbabwe.

Please be advised that the Ministry of Industry, Commerce and Enterprise Development has granted you the permission to conduct your research. Please note that you are required to submit a copy of your final thesis to this Ministry for information.

  
Kaerezi W. K.  
**FOR: SECRETARY FOR INDUSTRY, COMMERCE AND ENTERPRISE  
DEVELOPMENT**

cc. Human Resources Section Float

## Appendix E

### Letter of Authorisation to Conduct Research



DTSR/ 04/05/18/mc

05 April 2018

The Supervisor  
Supply Chain Management, Information Technology & Governance  
College of Law & Management Studies  
University of Kwazulu - Natal (Pietermaritzburg Campus)  
South Africa

**ATTENTION: PROFESSOR M. A. PHIRI**

**AUTHORISATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AS PART OF PhD  
QUALIFICATION – PATSON CHAWURUKA – STUDENT NO 216076841**

Reference is made to your letter dated 15 February 2018, in which you sought authorization to conduct research in the tourism industry. The Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA) hereby grants **Patson Chawuruka - Student No 216076841** permission to approach all relevant tourism players to conduct his study on **“Developing a nation branding measurement framework for Zimbabwe”**

ZTA fully supports this study as the results will contribute positively to the development of tourism. It is our sincere hope that he will be able to share his findings from this study with us.



**G. CHIDZIDZI  
ACTING CHIEF EXECUTIVE**



#### HEAD

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## Appendix F

### Permission to Conduct Academic Research

All correspondence should be addressed to

“THE SECRETARY”

Telephone: 706081/9  
Fax: 734646  
Telex: ZIM AGRIC: 22455 ZW



ZIMBABWE

MINISTRY OF LANDS,  
AGRICULTURE AND RURAL  
RESETTLEMENT  
Ngungunyana Building  
1, Borrowdale Road  
Private Bag 7701  
Causeway  
Harare

Ref :J/122

Mr Patson Chawuruka  
6804 Westlea  
Harare

11 April 2018

**REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT ACADEMIC RESEARCH: MR PATSON CHAWURUKA: PHD STUDENT: UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL.**

Reference is made to your letter dated 29 March 2018 on the above subject.

It is noted that you are a PHD student at University of KwaZulu-Natal and you are requesting for authority to conduct an academic research project entitled: **DEVELOPING A NATION BRANDING MEASUREMENT FRAMEWORK FOR ZIMBABWE** in partial fulfillment of the requirements of your academic programme.

In view of the above, authority is hereby granted to conduct the research and to access personnel in the Ministry.

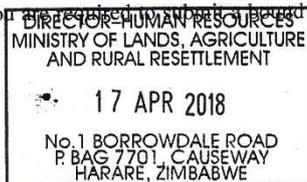
Please be advised that upon completion of your research you are requested to submit a copy of the full final research report to this Ministry.



\_\_\_\_\_  
REF: CHAWURUKA

**SECRETARY FOR LANDS, AGRICULTURE AND RURAL RESETTLEMENT**

Cc File



## Appendix G

### Ethical Clearance Certificate



**UNIVERSITY OF  
KWAZULU-NATAL**

**INYUVESI  
YAKWAZULU-NATALI**

18 July 2018

**Mr Patson Chawuruka (216076841)**  
School of Management, IT & Governance  
Pietermaritzburg Campus

Dear Mr Chawuruka,

**Protocol reference number: HSS/0569/018D**  
**Project Title: Developing a nation brand measurement framework for Zimbabwe**

**Approval Notification – Expedited Application**

In response to your application received 24 May 2018, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol has been granted **FULL APPROVAL**.

**Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment /modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.**

**PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.**

**The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.**

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully

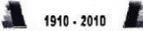
.....  
Dr Shamma Naidoo (Deputy Chair)

/ms

Cc Supervisor: Professor Maxwell Phiri  
Cc Academic Leader Research: Professor Isabel Martins  
Cc School Administrator: Ms Debbie Cunyngame

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**Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee**  
**Professor Shenuka Singh (Chair)**  
**Westville Campus, Govan Mbeki Building**  
Postal Address: Private Bag X54001, Durban 4000  
Telephone: +27 (0) 31 260 3567/8350/4557 Facsimile: +27 (0) 31 260 4609 Email: [ximbao@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:ximbao@ukzn.ac.za) / [snymanm@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:snymanm@ukzn.ac.za) / [mohunp@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:mohunp@ukzn.ac.za)  
Website: [www.ukzn.ac.za](http://www.ukzn.ac.za)



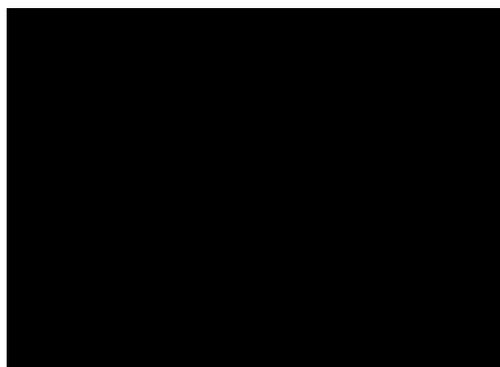
1910 - 2010  
100 YEARS OF ACADEMIC EXCELLENCE

Founding Campuses: ■ Edgewood ■ Howard College ■ Medical School ■ Pietermaritzburg ■ Westville

## **Appendix H**

### **Language Editing Certification**

We the undersigned, do solemnly declare that we have abided by the University of KwaZulu-Natal's policy on language editing. The thesis was professionally edited for proper English language, grammar, punctuation, spelling, and overall academic style. All original electronic forms of the text have been retained should they be required.



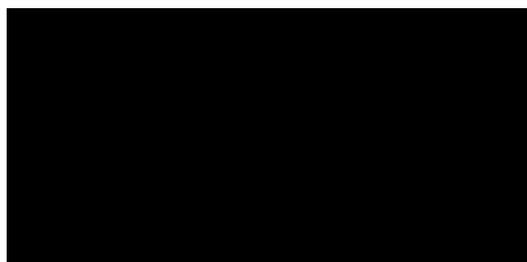
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**Gary Stuart David Leonard**

UKZN Higher Degrees Certified Language Editor

Commissioner of Oaths V3358

29 September 2021



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**Patson Chawuruka**

Student No. 216076841

29 September 2021