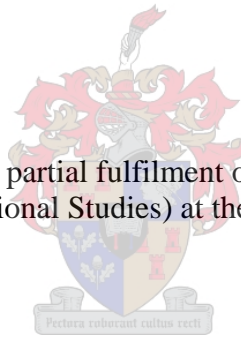# Brand South Africa: Dutch Impressions of the 'Rainbow Nation'

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13586769

Assignment/Thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree
of Master of Arts (International Studies) at the University of Stellenbosch
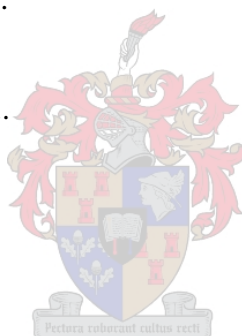
Supervisor: Dr. Janis van der Westhuizen

March 2007

Declaration

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this research assignment/thesis is my own original work and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it at any university for a degree.

Signature:………………………..

Date:……………………………..

Abstract

This thesis aims to assess what perceptions a sample population of Dutch students in Amsterdam have of South Africa from a broad range of social, political and cultural indicators. Until now, research into the existent perceptions regarding South Africa in the international community has been limited, which has implications for the formulation of its branding strategies and the possibility of their successful implementation at a crucial stage in the development of the country's international reputation. Based on a theoretical framework which assumes the potential of nation branding for developing states, this thesis aims to provide an assessment of several historical and contemporary challenges faced by Brand South Africa, the most salient of which are linked to the fundamental need for consistency in the promotion of the nation's identity. This analysis introduces the empirical research upon which the study is based and thereby explains the ambiguous nature of South Africa's post-Apartheid brand identity.

Opsomming

Hierdie tesis poog om die persepsies van 'n groep Nederlandse studente oor Suid-Afrika te evalueer vanuit 'n breë spektrum maatstawwe, nl. sosiaal, polities en kultureel. Tot nou toe was daar 'n tekort aan navorsing oor bestaande persepsies van SA in die internasionale gemeenskap en hierdie tekort het belangrike gevolge vir die land se handelsmerkontwikkeling ('*branding*') strategieë en die moontlikheid van hierdie strategieë se suksesvolle implimentering gedurende 'n belangrike fase in die ontwikkeling van die land se buitelandse reputasie. Gebaseer op 'n teoretiese raamwerk wat die aanname maak dat ontwikkelende state die potensieël het om hulleself te handelsmerk, poog hierdie tesis om 'n samevatting te wees van die mees belangrikste geskiedkundige en kontemporêre uitdagings wat *Handelsmerk Suid-Afrika* moet oorkom. Die grootste van hierdie uitdagings is die fundementele behoefte aan konsekwentheid in die bemarking van 'n staat se identiteit. Hierdie analise lê die empiriese navorsing waarop die studie gebaseer is voor en verduidelik daardeur die dubbelsinnige aard van post-Apartheid Suid-Afrika se handelsmerk identiteit.
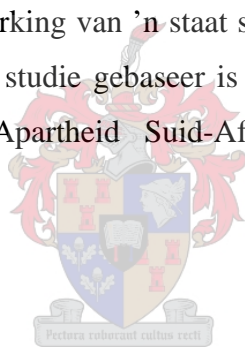
Acknowledgments

- Dr Janis van der Westhuizen at the University of Stellenbosch for his expert supervision.

- The International Office of the University of Stellenbosch for facilitating the exchange programme with the University of Amsterdam, The Netherlands, which enabled me to conduct the empirical research upon which this thesis is based.

- Dr Anthony Leysens for his endorsement of my exchange and his administrative support.

- Professor Peter Van Ham at the Clingendael Institute for International Relations.

Contents

List of abbreviations and acronyms:

AIDS: Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome

ANC: African National Congress

BBC: British Broadcasting Corporation

BVSC: Buena Vista Social Club

CEO: Chief Executive Officer

CNN: Cable News Network

COSATU: Congress of South African Trade Unions

DVD: Digital Video Disk

FAWO: Film and Allied Workers committee

FBF: Film and Broadcasting Forum

FBSC: Film and Broadcasting Steering Committee

FIFA: International Federation of Association Football

GDP: Gross Domestic Product

HIV: Human Immunodeficiency Virus

IMC: International Marketing Council

IMF: International Monetary Fund

IOC: International Olympics Commission

IT: Information Technology

MA: Masters

NEDLAC: National Economic Development and Labour Council

NGO: Non-Governmental Organisation

NP: National Party

PM: Prime Minister

PR: Public Relations

SA: South Africa

SAA: South African Airways

SAB: South African Breweries

SABC: South African Broadcasting Commission

SADC: Southern African Development Community

SAN-ROC: South African Non-Racial Olympic Committee

SASA: South African Sports Association

SRSA: Sport and Recreation South Africa

UCT: University of Cape Town

U.K.: United Kingdom

UN: United Nations

US: United States

UvA: University of Amsterdam

VCR: Video Cassette Recorder

WEF: World Economic Forum

WSSD: World Summit on Sustainable Development

WW2: World War Two
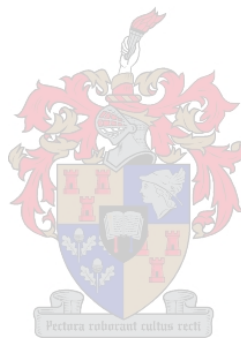
Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

The question whether countries can be repositioned or branded is an entirely relevant one in contemporary political and economic dialogue. In an increasingly competitive and interconnected global economy, how states differentiate themselves and their products has become an important determinant for growth and stability. One need only look at Spain for inspiration of the benefits offered by the consolidation of a positive nation brand. In 1976 Spain emerged from the Fascist rule of General Franco into an international community deeply sceptical of its ideals. Isolated, poverty-stricken and out of step with modern developments, especially in Europe, Spain was suffering from the economic and diplomatic effects of its unpopular history and was faced with an arduous struggle to rebuild its reputation. Fast-forward to the present and the situation could not be more different. Spain is currently one of Europe's strongest economies, an influential player in international relations and diplomacy and imbued with a powerful reputation for cultural vibrancy, tourism and liberalism (Gilmore, 2002). Arguably Spain's greatest achievement has been its ability to alter entrenched international stereotypes and negative impressions of its cultural identity. Accompanied by advertising on a national and regional level, Spain embarked upon a comprehensive promotional programme, making use of Joan Miro's sun and the slogan *Spain: Everything Under The Sun*, to symbolise its new ideals, the success of which facilitated the increased expansion of its multinationals into the global economy.

Spain's transformation was in no ways coincidental. The process explained above was entered into in order to uncover the potential which had been stifled and misrepresented during Franco's autocratic regime. The successful hosting of the Barcelona Olympics in 1992 further concretised Spain's efforts, as did the flaunting of the country's cultural

appeal through the sponsoring of the domestic film industry[1] and the development of museums. The result of the multifaceted marketing strategies employed by Spain has been the complete overturning of its previously negative reputation, leading it to be listed as the 12th strongest national brand in the world in 2005[2]. In addition to proving the potential inherent in successful nation branding, the Spanish example was arguably made possible by two interconnected factors. Firstly, globalisation has, by definition, eroded the control states have over the dissemination of information and the sharing of cultural resources. In this sense, Spain has been able to bypass previously inhibiting state regulations to market its identity to consumers throughout the developed world. A second related factor has been the rise in importance of "soft power" in the contemporary international system, as is evidenced by the power of cultural marketing and other non-coercive means of promoting national interests, all of which form the basis for nation branding.

This chapter therefore aims to map the rise in importance of nation branding as an exemplar of the shift from hard to soft power in international affairs, both of which fall within the globalisation discourse. In emphasising the escalation in the amount of discussion surrounding nation branding over the past decade, a chronological literature review is used, as well as a discussion of the general theoretical developments which have taken place within the same period. Simon Anholt, who is perhaps nation branding's most eminent contemporary scholar, has suggested that successful branding can be a "multiplier of value" for states. Taking this assertion as true, the example of South Africa will be introduced due to the government's acknowledgement of the importance of developing its post-Apartheid reputation to facilitate greater political and economic expansion. From this theoretical basis, the empirical research analysed in chapter three will be introduced.

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[1] In its attempt to depict a more fresh and lively image, the Spanish government made use of the artistic talents of clothes designer Adolfo Dominguez, filmmaker Pedro Almodovar and architect Santiago Calatrava (Gilmore, 2001: 282).

[2] This rating is part of Anholt's 'Country Brand Index' (http://www.nationbrandindex.com).

(1.1.1) *Globalisation and the Retreat of the State*

Globalisation has undoubtedly changed the nature of inter-state cooperation in the contemporary international system. The combination of the ascendance of the "stateless corporation" (Douglas, 1998: 2), the development of an integrated global financial marketplace and an increase in intercontinental migration have all contributed to what Susan Strange has termed the "retreat of the state" (Strange, 1996)[3] in international affairs.

According to Strange, the delegation of power away from the state since the end of World War Two has been due to the "abject failure" (Strange, 1999: 345) of the Westphalian system, from a humanitarian perspective, exemplified by the increasing gaps between rich and poor throughout the world, as well as from a political economy perspective. Strange therefore believed that the rapid pace of the global financial and monetary order has caused power to "leak away" from states due to their inability to adapt to a system in which increasing power is conferred upon non-state actors, particularly firms and systems of governance related to the growth of international markets. As Ohmae (1993: 78) adds, the "nation State has become an unnatural, even dysfunctional unit for organising human activity and managing economic endeavour in a borderless world." Simply put, as capital and services have become more mobile, firms and markets have become more transnational, which has thereby enhanced their power in relation to governments, which remain territorially based.

Emphasising these territorial restrictions has been the emergence of a global information society, which has eroded the traditional power of nation states to control the flow of and access to information throughout the world, which, as Keohane and Nye (1998: 3) suggest, has served to undermine their legitimacy and cohesiveness. The crucial point is that "business abhors borders" (Horsman and Marshall, 1994: 234) and any attempt by

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[3] Strange also published several preliminary works which were of importance regarding the development of her theories of the role of the state in international affairs. Most prominent in this regard were the 2004 articles *Who Governs? Networks of Power in World Society* (1994a) and *Wake up Krasner! The World has Changed* (1994b).

the state to construct such obstacles is invariably met with scathing criticism from the powerful private and international community, led by institutions such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank. In this world, security and force matter less as states are connected by multiple social and political relationships, which has direct implications for the *type* rather than the *level* of power which, when wielded, is able to influence international affairs. Furthermore, as evidenced by the widespread opposition to the US-led invasion of Iraq in 2003[4], as well as a myriad other examples, there has been a shift in focus away from military strength as the determining factor for status in a global system which is increasingly characterised by a far more subtle economic hegemony. Van Ham (2002: 252) believes this shift to have been one in "political paradigms from the modern world of geopolitics and power to the postmodern world of images and influence," which Nye (1990: 178) believes to be a symptom of the increasing significance of what he has termed "soft power" in the determination of status and reputation in the global political economy.

(1.1.2) *Power in the international system: 'From Hard to Soft'*

Nye (1990: 178) defines power as "the ability to achieve one's purposes or goals," with soft or "co-optive" power being the ability to "make people want to do what you want them to do." Soft power therefore involves the ability to get others to do what they would otherwise not do, without threat or coercion. According to Keohane and Nye (1998: 7), soft power is a form of behavioural power, which involves the ability to obtain desired outcomes, by making others "want what you want." For states, the successful wielding of soft power allows them to elevate their international status and set the framework for interaction with competing entities through the promotion of an image of strength and solidity. Soft power is therefore generated through the direct and indirect promotion of a state's cultural identity, intellectual property, multinational institutions and successful commercial enterprises, all of which can be said to vary over the course of

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[4] Once again the example of Spain is relevant. After the terrorist bombings on 11 March 2004 in Madrid, Prime Minister-elect Jose Luis Rodriguez Zapatero pulled all 1,300 Spanish troops out of Iraq and has ridden a wave of public popularity since. Europe remains polarised on the issue, with British Prime Minister Tony Blair being called to resign and US President Bush's ratings at their lowest levels since he took over from former President Bill Clinton in 2000.

time. Creating a solid reputation, a precursor to the successful wielding of soft power, is a complex process involving the promotion of society through various interconnected political, cultural, economic and institutional channels.

Despite the nature of the shift explained above, it is true that hard and soft power are in many ways complementary. Critics of Nye's have gone as far as to assert that soft power is inconsequential without a solid hard power basis, which facilitates the dissemination of a state's cultural values throughout the international community. According to this view, hard and soft power are fundamentally linked due to the fact that it is in many ways the prevalence of the former which presents the opportunities to enforce the latter. The most formidable example cited in this regard is the US, which has been accused of forcing its cultural identity upon the world over the course of its post-WW2 era of global domination through the flexing of its military might. The attraction of American values, which several of its major brands such as Coca-Cola and Levi's have leveraged, is therefore emphasised and built upon the country's vast military capabilities and its long history of aggression in enforcing its principles throughout the world. However, while this distinction is perhaps overlooked in many ways by Nye, it is the implementation of power which is of key importance in this regard. Hard power is implemented through direct, forceful and coercive means, whereas soft power involves a far less tangible effort on the part of the state as its implementation is the result of a diverse range of activities and institutions, several of which are beyond the direct control of the state in question. Furthermore, the wielding of hard power is limited to those with large military and industrial capabilities, most of which reside in the developed world, whereas soft power can be leveraged by weaker developing states, providing them with an unprecedented ability to promote their identities and potential to a global audience.

(1.1.3) *Soft Power in the Information Age*

The fundamental differences between hard and soft power are most obvious when one considers the rise of the global information society mentioned above. The free and unrestricted distribution of information vastly increases the potential for persuasion held

by states and non-state actors in world politics. This so-called information revolution has been sustained by the Internet, which is available to all institutions regardless of their affiliation to the state and has become the principal means through which state authority and jurisdiction can be circumvented on a daily basis. Therefore, as Keohane and Nye (1998: 10) warn, "if governments or NGOs are to take advantage of the information revolution, they will have to establish reputations for credibility amid the white noise of the information revolution." One way this could be done is through the use of the free access to information and the ease with which global interactions are facilitated within the global information society in the promotion of a state's cultural values and attributes. Widely referred to as nation branding, this process gives states the chance to regain lost authority and the ability to control the creation and refinement of their own international reputations, as is evidenced by the Spanish example mentioned at the beginning of this chapter.

The links between soft power and branding are therefore direct. Building on his definition of soft power, Nye states that nation branding is about "making people want to pay attention to a country's achievements, and believe in its qualities," which in turn makes it the "quintessential exemplar of soft power" (Anholt, 2003: 13). Further emphasising the fact that hard and soft power are complementary, Van Ham (2003: 441) suggests that public diplomacy, or branding, has become an "essential 'soft power' tool in the US war on terrorism." However, it is important to note that public diplomacy, while similar in many ways to branding, is a process whereby states have full control over the image broadcast. On the other hand, branding includes a distinctly elusive component, which reduced the power of the state in the determination of the image portrayed to the international community. Following this line of reasoning, Yan (2004: 6) rather idealistically goes as far as to state that, "nation branding could promote a sense of the international community and prevent countries from following a course of realpolitik at the expense of global harmony."

Given this potential, and the fact that nation states have created their own fate, the failure of the contemporary state is likely to be more a result of its ability to adapt to a

competitive world in which there is indeed "no place to hide" (Underhill, 2000). As Keohane and Nye (1998: 7) summate, "the future lies neither exclusively with the state nor with transnational relations as territorially-based states will rely less on material resources and more on their ability to remain credible to a public with increasingly diverse sources of information." Seen in this light, the continued success of the modern nation state rests in part on its ability to be agile and innovative, much like a transnational firm and thereby ride the waves of global change, which effective marketing can facilitate.

(1.1.4) *Nation Branding*

The abovementioned growth in the international media and the vastly improved networks of information distribution has also meant that it has become far harder to be "seen" and to carve out a unique identity amidst intense international competition. The competition between Microsoft and Apple, Burger King and McDonald's and Sony and Phillips force each enterprise to generate new, exciting and innovative ideas in order to maintain consumer loyalty and create a crucial competitive edge to drive profit margins, especially in light of the rise of new commercial challengers from countries such as China and India. There is no room for complacency. The same can now be said of traditional tourist locations, such as Spain and Greece, emerging economies such as Malaysia and Brazil, and openly multicultural states such as South Africa and Canada. Even states with well formed identities, such as France, the US, Italy and Switzerland, need to ensure that the niche which they have carved out in Van Ham's (2001: 3) "postmodern world of images and influence" remains attractive to a consumer public which is increasingly becoming spoilt for choice. Therefore, in order to be differentiated from the competition, active marketing strategies need to be pursued, the result of which should be the consolidation of a unique and consistent national brand identity which sets the country apart and affords it a much-needed competitive edge. Simply, it is "branding or bust" (Van Ham 2002: 252) for the modern nation state.

1.2 Conceptualisation

By means of definition, place branding is the process whereby commercial branding strategies are applied to the development and the marketing of places, ranging from cities and regions to entire nations and continents. According to Papadopoulos (2004: 36), the intent of these practices is to achieve one or more of the following four objectives: "enhance the place's exports, protect its domestic businesses from 'foreign' competition, attract or retain factors of development and generally position the place for advantage domestically and internationally in economic, political and social terms." The concept of a nation is a convenient way of encompassing a set of values, which in turn makes the advertising of such attributes far more practical and coherent. Nation branding is therefore a process of creating value for places by unlocking, developing and communicating the potential of its people, companies, organisations and institutions.

However, the fusion of state and marketing and the very concept of a nation as a brand has excited an almost "visceral animosity" (Olins, 2002: 241) in people due to branding's unethical motives and the implications of globalisation for the world's most marginalised states. These concerns are central to Naomi Klein's groundbreaking book 'No Logo' and the anti-globalisation movement which it gave birth to. The idea amongst the sceptics of nation branding is that a nation has a superior dignity due to its substance and depth, which a corporation cannot enjoy, meaning that the desire to link the two is disrespectful to the historical and cultural identity of the state in question. However, nation branding academics assert that it is the poor *practice* of branding, rather than branding itself, which is problematic. In this sense, it is the word brand which people find so objectionable and not the concept that it is premised upon.

Furthermore, despite its contemporary rise, the practice of branding is not a new phenomenon as nations have made a concerted effort since the emergence of Wallerstein's modern world system to emphasise their comparative strengths in order to gain greater regional and international status and credibility. For example, France has violently and sporadically rebranded itself throughout the course of modern history as it

has attempted, with each revolution and change of rule, to maintain its cultural integrity and status as a powerful international force, the implications of which have been vast. The same is true of the United States, which has more recently attempted to rebrand itself in the Middle East due to the unpopularity of its aggressive policies in its region since the invasion of Iraq in 2003[5]. According to Papadopoulos (2004: 41), the most recent development which helped to "catapult" governments throughout the developed world into country branding and to "marketise" the mindsets of their policy makers, was the fear of major losses to inward foreign direct investment.

There are also salient differences between marketing and branding which in many ways assuage the problematic links described above. Marketing is geared primarily towards generating greater profit from a product by prioritising consumer satisfaction, often at the expense of ethics and morality. In contrast to this, branding has managed to go beyond Public Relations and marketing in its attempt to transform products, services and places into something deeper by seeking to add an emotional dimension with which people can identify on a more personal level. This is particularly true of the internal goals of nation branding as the state seeks to enhance pride and association to its cultural identity amongst its electorate. The goals of branding are also more diverse as they seek to encourage foreign direct investment, create internal pride or be a support for exports or any enterprise that a nation may undertake. In the context of this thesis, branding is the product of several marketing disciplines and is often used interchangeably with advertising, marketing, PR and sales promotion. According to this definition, branding refers in a general way to all modern selling activities with its success being in the creation of a *brand identity* which adds emotional value and prestige to an otherwise generic product. (Anholt, 2005: 116)

A *brand identity* is therefore defined as being the end result of a branding or marketing campaign and is the image of a product or, in the context of this thesis, a country, which is held by the targeted consumer public. As mentioned, the brand identity of a country

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[5] To do this, Washington appointed Charlotte Beers, the former chairman of advertising agencies J. Walter Thompson and Ogilvy & Mather, as Under Secretary of State for Public Diplomacy and Public Affairs.

should be consistent and consolidated in order to counter the inevitable negative perceptions which may be attached to it in the international context. In the case of South Africa, the creation of a strong and positive brand identity which can be promoted to the international community is more of a work in progress than an achieved and sustainable final product.

However, regardless of the objections and historical bases, the discourse surrounding nation branding has increased dramatically over the past decade for several of the geopolitical reasons outlined in this chapter. It is therefore important to discuss the most important developments which have taken place within the theoretical framework of place branding and thereby outline the parameters of this thesis.

1.3 Literature Review

Broadly speaking, there are two main strands of place branding theory; the conventional theory of place branding explained above and 'product-country image' or 'country-of-origin' image which has diversified the extant literature on the topic over the past five years. The purpose of this literature review is to outline the developments of these two interlinked fields of thought by emphasising the most influential scholars and articles which have defined the scope and focus of the theory over the past decade. However, it is imperative to state that a full analysis of all of the literature regarding place branding would be nearly impossible to compile. The literature review provides merely a cursory view of the most prominent fields and academics in the field, whereas, with theoretical application, a more comprehensive analysis will emerge throughout this thesis.

Discussion surrounding place branding was significantly influenced in its early stages by the work of Kotler, who was responsible for four major publications on the topic during the 1990s, the first of which, *Marketing Places: Attracting Investment, Industry, And Tourism to Cities, States and Nations,* was published in 1993[6]. Apart from the work of

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[6] Kotler's other works included *Marketing For Hospitality And Tourism* (1996), *The Marketing Of Nations* (1997) and *Marketing Places Europe: Attracting Investment, Industry, And Tourism To European Cities,*

Kotler and his associates during the 1990s, the majority of the direct discussion which has defined the contemporary discourse has arisen since the turn of the century.

In this sense, Dinnie (2004: 106) points at three landmark texts which have had a major impact on the theory of place branding. Firstly, *Destination Branding: Creating the Unique Destination Proposition* (Morgan *et al*., 2002), which is a collection of papers discussing topics ranging from destination branding and the web (Palmer, 2002), to the politics of branding cities and regions (Ryan, 2002), and branding and national identity (Hall, 2002). Secondly, the special issue on nation branding that appeared in the April 2002 edition of the *Journal of Brand Management*, comprising ground-breaking papers on nation branding from prominent academics, several of whom are cited heavily throughout this dissertation. Thirdly, Anholt's book *Brand New Justice: The Upside Of Global Branding*, which expanded the ideas of nation branding to include wider social concerns and ignited discussion surrounding the country-of-origin benefit to branding[7].

Another landmark text was Van Ham's 2001 article "The Rise Of The Brand State" which in many ways gave rise to the term 'brand state' coined the 'brand state' and created greater interest in the multidimensional field. Van Ham (2002) has also been influential in discussing how branding and PR affect and are affected by international relations theory, as well as introducing the importance of public diplomacy in nation branding strategies. The historical significance and evolution of place branding has been outlined by Olins (2001) and Papadopoulos (2004), both of whom emphasise the fact that contemporary theoretical developments in the field have their basis in greater geopolitical shifts throughout the international system. The complex nature of place branding has been dealt with in several case studies and sector-specific analyses over the past five years. For example, the significance of sport as a determinant of country image perceptions has been outlined by Brown *et al* (2001), as well as and Gilmore (2002), with specific emphasis being placed on the benefits of hosting major sporting events for a

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Communities, States and Nations (1999). Kotler updated this theory in 2002 with the article *Country as brand, product and beyond: A place marketing and brand management perspective.*

[7] A significant contribution was also made by Jaffe and Nebenzahl (2001) towards the growing body of place branding literature during its formative stages.

country's international reputation. Van der Westhuizen (2000) and (2002) expanded on this topic by including the hosting of major diplomatic events and conferences, such as the effect of hosting the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) in South Africa, on the country's image abroad.

The role of culture in creating and sustaining a country's brand image has also been highlighted primarily by Anholt in several articles, while Kotler and Gertner (2002) have assisted in emphasising the role of cultural aspects such as film, music, theatre and food on a country's international branding strategy. Papadopoulos and Heslop (2002) have acknowledged that multiple cultural indicators are responsible for channelling and creating a country's international reputation. Some case studies have been conducted by states concerned about their cultural identity and its portrayal internationally. The International Marketing Council of South Africa has been influential in this regard, publishing studies of India, Brazil, Thailand and Spain, while others for Scotland, Croatia and Ecuador have all contributed to the expansion of the practical understanding of place branding. In addition to this, several business analysts and marketing experts[8] have contributed to the development of place branding theory with valuable insights from the predominantly commercial sector.

Tourism and branding is another fundamental link, one which is often given disproportionate attention in related to the equally important factors mentioned above. Gnoth (2002), for instance, acknowledges the power of tourism as a determinant of country image perceptions and attempts theoretically to develop a model of leveraging a country brand through a tourism destination brand, whereby the services facilitating the tourism experience at a destination would be employed to develop the country brand across different industries. This importance has also been emphasised by Cornelissen (2004), with specific reference to the impact of the hosting of "mega-events" on tourism and country perceptions in Africa. Anholt (2003) asserts the importance of the relationship between tourism and nation branding, although he rightly states that it is

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[8] Most prominent in this regard have been Malcolm Allan (2004), Nicholas Ind (2003), Jack Yan and Sicco van Gelder (2003).

crucial to consider both independently rather than as a single unified objective. Tourism facilitates nation branding, but is most certainly not alone in being able to do so.

The most recent addition to the field has been the establishment of the *Place Branding* journal, which has been set up by Anholt and has in its first three quarterly editions featured contributions from several prominent academics, many of whom are mentioned above, dedicated to expanding the level of discussion of branding, marketing and public diplomacy.

1.4 Framework for analysis

The second strand of place branding theory, 'country-of-origin' image has been pioneered by Anholt with his 2003 book *Brand New Justice: The Upside of Global Branding.*[9] Anholt's central assertion is that branding, if done correctly, has the potential to be a "multiplier of value" (2003: 1) for countries in the contemporary international system. In this sense, brands are able to use their country-of-origin provenance as a marketing tool to carve out a more competitive and unique identity in the global marketplace. Justifying his emphasis on the power of branding, Anholt (2003: 2) estimates the value generated by brands could be as much as one-third of the value of global wealth, thereby emphasising its economic importance. In order for this partnership between state and commerce to function, a consolidated national identity is required, which in turn is used in the marketing of the product in question. Brands in developed nations in Europe and North America have been using this value multiplying potential for decades. The success of Mercedes Benz is in many ways based on the highly regarded reputation Germany enjoys for engineering precision and excellence, a reputation which Mercedes helped to create. The same can be said of Italian fashion design label Armani, Japanese electronics conglomerate Sony and Swiss watch manufacturer Rolex, all of which have fed off the positive images held by their respective home countries in

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[9] This is not to say that the concept is a novel one. On the contrary, research on country-of-origin has been conducted over the past 40 years, much of which can be found in Baughn and Yaprak (1993), Liefeld (1993), Peterson and Jolibert (1995) and Verlegh and Steenkamp (1999).

marketing their unique appeal internationally. Their success has in turn reinforced and enhanced the national identity upon which they were able to launch.

Anholt (2003: 43) believes that linking product marketing with country culture provides corporations with an "almost ineradicable competitive advantage" over others as consumers want brands that come *from* somewhere and are imbued with an additional sense of emotional attachment and value. "Commercial brands," he states, "whether we like it or not, are increasingly important vectors of national image and reputation, even of culture". However, the positive effect of country-of-origin provenance has its definite limits and can potentially stifle the growth of specific industries which are not in line with the identity and reputation of the state in question. While Germany's reputation for efficiency, precision and reliability may provide a significant advantage for its car manufacturers, it could in turn provide a significant barrier to the success of its more flamboyant industries, such as fashion and cuisine which would be creatively stifled by such associations. Country-of-origin associations have also been 'hijacked' by foreign company's intent on leveraging the positive reputation offered by associating with strongly branded states. For example, Japanese and German cars with Italian names like the Nissan *Figaro*, the Daihatsu *Cuore*, the Volkswagen *Scirocco* and the Opel *Corsa* are aimed at using the recognised "halo of recognition" (Anholt, 1998: 396) of Italian passion, style and flair to sell a product from a country with very different, although no less positive, associations.

However, despite these fabricated linkages, which are perhaps inevitable in the marketing domain, there can be no substitute for true originality and provenance in the appeal of a particular product. While more readily available to developed states with strong commercial brands, this opportunity is one Anholt believes to be equally accessible to developing states intent on narrowing the gap between rich and poor in the contemporary system. Anholt therefore believes that the value multiplying effect of branding can and should be used by developing states for three main reasons. Firstly, the promotion of a strong international identity can help to elevate the economic and diplomatic standing of weaker states and thereby gain it a greater stake in the determination of their own fates, a

luxury which has eluded them due in part to the paternalistic relationship between North and South in the post-WW2 era. Secondly, consumers in the developed world are yearning for new and exotic products after decades of the same Western brands being repackaged and marketed in a different light. Developing countries with unique cultural identities which have yet to be exhausted in the international market have a competitive advantage which needs to be leveraged before brands in the developed world see the opportunity and do so themselves.

Finally, Anholt believes that nation branding offers the process of poverty alleviation and the pursuit for global equality with a sense of pragmatism which previous humanitarianism and aid-centred approaches lack. At present poorer countries are selling unbranded goods to richer nations at low profit margins, which is exacerbated by the relative lack of authority held by the state in enforcing trade subsidies with its developed partners. This creates a situation whereby Ethiopian coffee is sold in raw form to European manufacturers, who use their abundant resourced to create a brand identity for the product based on intelligent use of East African cultural symbolism in order to sell it for exorbitant prices on the Western market. Anholt's critics therefore assert that branding remains the exclusive domain of the 'haves' and further entrenches the failure of the global system so vehemently opposed by Strange. However, Anholt idealistically maintains that developing states can use the "sword of branding" to cut through global inequality by making use of existing channels of communication, readily available in the international information society, and leveraging their soft power abilities to uncover their cultural exoticism and economic and political potential.

The evidence in favour of place branding's potential for the expansion of a state's economic and political status is therefore compelling. For the purposes of this thesis Anholt's belief in the value multiplying effect of branding is accepted, due in part to the limited scope of this study. More importantly however, Anholt's assumptions seem to be accepted in policy initiatives, not only of the South African government, but of several others throughout the developed and developing world. From Prime Minister Tony Blair's failed 'Cool Brittania' campaign, Spain's commendable efforts to rebrand itself in

the post-Franco dispensation, Ireland's ability to rebrand itself as a major economic power and investment opportunity and Germany's recent rebranding campaign launched in partnership with the 2006 Soccer World Cup, it is clear that nation branding is a top priority within what Van Ham (2002: 259) has termed the "master brand" of the European Union.

More importantly, Anholt is vindicated in his beliefs by the efforts made by several developing nations over the past five years to recreate their brand identities. Former Soviet Bloc states such as Estonia and Croatia have entered into nation branding strategies, the latter in consultation with Anholt, in an attempt to market an identity which previous political isolation served to distort and conceal. In addition to this, several African states have entered into nation branding strategies in order to break free from the consistently negative image of the continent held in the West. In April 2006, the Tanzanian government hosted a two-day international conference in Dar-es-Salaam devoted to its "nation branding" strategy, while Botswana recently announced plans to start working on a branding project of its own, a process which it has called on foreign agents and donors to assist it with (Gumbel, 2005). Rwandan President Paul Kagame recently spoke of his intention to brand Rwanda as an IT hub in central Africa in order to launch itself out of the negative stereotypes associated with the genocide which ravaged the country in 1994. Kagame has realised that creative marketing is one way in which the two of the country's strategic weaknesses, namely its lack of access to land and sea trade and its underdeveloped neighbour states, can be converted into a significant advantage. Assisting these states, and further emphasising the importance afforded to branding on an international level, is the UN World Intellectual Property Organization, which has reiterated its commitment to aiding countries in the process of nation branding in order to multiply the value of their resources and potential.

In marketing the self-professed 'Rainbow Nation' to the world, the post-Apartheid government in South Africa has undoubtedly acknowledged the potential of nation branding in reversing its international isolation and overcoming the ambiguity of its historical identity. Most salient in this regard has been its ambitious bidding for

international sporting events, such as the Rugby World Cup in 1995, the Cricket World Cup in 1999 and the successful bid to host the Soccer World Cup in 2010. However, while sport has undoubtedly occupied a significant amount of South Africa's branding efforts, there have been several policy initiatives which have added strength to the claim that the government has actively engaged in the process of nation branding. In addition to the establishment of the International Marketing Council and the government's endorsement of the *Proudly South African* campaign, the Department of Foreign Affairs recently cited imaging and branding as one of the country's foreign policy goals. The promotion of South Africa's tourist potential has also been used simultaneously in the government's branding initiatives, which has been enhanced by the country's status as a top venue for the hosting of international diplomatic events, such as the World Economic Forum in 2006 and the World Summit on Sustainable Development in 2002. Therefore, Anholt's value multiplying assumption is not challenged in this thesis. The justification for this perceived omission resides in the fact that the South African government has accepted the value of nation branding and acted accordingly over the course of the past 12 years. This thesis therefore aims to prove how this has been the case from the South African government, rather than directly testing Anholt's assertion.
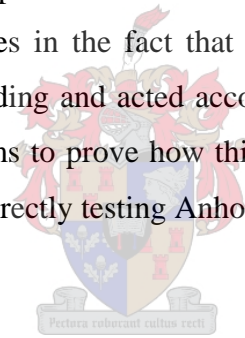
1.5 Problem Statement

The extent of the branding efforts made by the South African government indicates that the country is intent on recreating its global brand identity in order to reap the potential benefits of nation branding. However, as has been explained, the simple marketing of a country's potential does not immediately translate into the creation of a nation brand. In this sense, a brand is the end product of a successful marketing campaign which is able to promote a consistent and reliable identity of a product or a state to the international community. For developing countries such as South Africa which have recently emerged from decades of international isolation and misrepresentation, the creation of this consistency is perhaps the greatest challenge within the process of nation branding. Before a consistent brand identity can be marketed internationally it needs to be endorsed and accepted by the domestic population of the state in question. In a country as divided

and diverse as South Africa, deciding on a common identity to be broadcast is by no means a simple process. South African policy makers feel this challenge acutely and have in many ways attempted to overcome it by promoting the country's all-encompassing "diversity" to the international community.

However, due in part to the ambiguous concept of diversity and South Africa's isolated and fragmented past, the process of agreeing on a single coherent image to be portrayed in its nation branding strategies is perhaps its greatest challenge. The international community has a crucial role to play as it is able to act as an extra representative in the advertising of South Africa's cultural identity on a global scale, particularly if the image portrayed is to be attractive, consistent and realistic. If not, an adverse effect may occur as South Africa runs the risk of confirming past stereotypes, primarily linked to Apartheid, of its potential, influence and capabilities in the contemporary global political economy. Therefore, research into the way South Africa is perceived by the international community should be a crucial aspect in the channelling of its nation branding strategy, especially in terms of the need to identify the most salient obstacles preventing the emergence of the desired national image. Without such research, it is the opinion of the author that South Africa's international branding strategies run the risk of failing to promote its international identity in a sustainable and proactive manner.

(1.5.1) *Research Question*

How is South Africa's contemporary *brand* identity perceived by a cohort of Dutch students in Amsterdam?

1.6 Aims and Significance

The primary aim of this research project was to discover what South Africa 'meant' to the respondents, what stereotypes they held of its cultural, political and social identity and what they perceived to be its most salient characteristics. The significance of the study was due primarily to its ability to highlight the most pressing challenges faced by

Brand South Africa at a crucial time in the formulation of its post-Apartheid brand identity. Furthermore, despite the rapid developments which have been noted in the field of place branding over the past decade there has until now been limited empirical research conducted into assessing what perceptions exist about South Africa amongst the international community. The primary research upon which this thesis is based is unique in the sense that it is the first to assess how the specific sample population of Dutch students in Amsterdam perceive South Africa and it is therefore able to offer worthwhile insights aimed essentially at exposing the inconsistencies and challenges which South Africa may face in the creation and consolidation of its international brand identity.

1.7 Methods and Limitations

Due to several justifiable limitations regarding the scope of a master's thesis it would have been impossible to measure the way South Africa is perceived by the 'international community' at large. Therefore, due to the author's presence in Amsterdam completing the MA course requirements, a sample population of Dutch students was isolated for direct empirical evaluation. In addition to the benefit of proximity, the Dutch example was deemed to be particularly interesting from the outset due to the country's historical connections with South Africa and the general awareness that Dutch citizens seem to possess regarding contemporary international affairs.

A qualitative research process was therefore entered into whereby a series of in-depth face-to-face interviews were conducted with Dutch students in order to assess what values they attached to South Africa, what knowledge they had of the country and how aware they were of the identity the government has attempted to portray through its erstwhile branding initiatives. As is explained by the benefits of qualitative research, the nature of the interviews facilitated greater understanding of the meanings respondents assigned to social phenomena and to illuminate the mental processes underlying their behaviours.

The reason for choosing Dutch students as the sample population was two-fold. Firstly, the author's proximity as a student at the University of Amsterdam made it far easier to find respondents wiling to engage in the interviews which, given the average duration of approximately 90 minutes, was a significant advantage. Secondly, in their capacity as university students, the respondents were likely to have travelled abroad and able to articulate comparative evaluations.

Due to the fact that the academic area being entered into was fairly unchartered, the research project was entered into in order to find patterns rather than assess, prove or disprove existing or perceived ones. In this sense, the research process was predominantly *inductive* as the research question and the nature of my hypothesis was channelled and ascertained during the interview process and the analysis of the resultant findings rather than entering into the procedure with the intention of validating an existing concept or pattern. This option was beneficial in several ways, most prominently due to the fact that it afforded the author with the freedom to truly assess the perceptions which exist about South Africa without any particular ulterior motive in the interview process. Furthermore, this process inherently reduced the possibility of researcher bias and facilitated the generation of interesting and surprising patterns of relevance to the South African government in guiding its place branding efforts.

In addition to the pilot study, 35 full interviews were conducted in total, all of which were private, face-to-face and uninterrupted. Of the 35 complete interviews only 30 were analysed due to the fact that the remaining five had been conducted as pilot studies and certain questions had been changed for the ensuing research. The pilot phase of the study was aimed at testing the validity of the questionnaire and assessing whether the right values were being assessed. Following the pilot phase, several questions were changed, added and omitted from the original questionnaire in order to create a final version which the author would be able to use for the formal interviews to come. Another product of the pilot phase was an awareness of the need to simplify the grammar used as three of the five interviewees found difficulty with several of the terms and phrases used. In addition to this, the structure of the questionnaire was altered in order to make the respondents feel

more at ease. Initially the questionnaire started with a series of questions aimed at assessing the respondent's factual knowledge of South Africa. However, with each of the five pilot interviews, this proved counterproductive as the respondent seemed evidently embarrassed at their lack of knowledge of South Africa and displayed an eagerness to finish the interview as soon as possible to avoid further discomfort. In order to address this issue, the author shifted broader questions, based primarily on opinion rather than fact, to the beginning of the questionnaire. As a result of this alteration, the 30 interviews which followed were marked by an increase in confidence shown by the respondents and a greater level of interest shown in the survey. By the time the factual questions came in the interviews, the respondents were comfortable enough to openly state that they did not know much about South Africa, with many adding that they would be interested to learn more.

The interviews were conducted over a three month period between April 15 and July 20 2006, with the results being analysed and tabulated upon the author's return to South Africa and the subsequent consultation with his thesis supervisor. The benefits of face-to-face interviews were significant as the author was able to press respondents for more particular justifications for interesting answers and thereby truly grasp the nature of the image of South Africa which existed in their minds. In addition to this, respondents were far more interested in the interviewing process than they would have been had it been conducted via email, telephone or written survey, especially given the fact that all of the answers were filled in by the researcher, giving respondents the freedom to say as much, or as little, as they chose. The nature of the research lent itself to the benefits of face-to-face interviews as several questions needed to be placed in context and explained. In addition to this, the fact that respondents were not native English speakers meant that, where necessary, the researcher was able to translate and explain problematic terms and concepts.

As mentioned, the largest limitation confronted in the research process was one of *scale*, mostly in terms of the number and diversity of the sample population. However, the in-depth and time-consuming face-to-face interview process, as well as the specific isolation

of the sample population, meant that 35 respondents (including the five pilot interviews) proved an adequate amount given the circumstances and resources available to the author[10]. Below is a table of the 30 analysed interviewee's basic details, including gender, age, field of study and whether they had travelled to South Africa in any capacity. The purpose of this table is to further contextualise the information analysed in chapter three.

Respondent	Gender	Age	Field of Study	Been to South Africa? If so, in what capacity.
Respondent 1	Female	23	Sociology	No
Respondent 2	Male	23	International Relations (IR)	No
Respondent 3	Female	20	Sociology	No
Respondent 4	Male	25	Information Technology	No
Respondent 5	Male	22	Law	Yes, for the World Summit on Sustainable Development
Respondent 6	Male	25	Politics	No
Respondent 7	Female	25	Ethnic Studies	No
Respondent 8	Male	23	IR	Yes, spent a semester on exchange at the University of Stellenbosch in 2004
Respondent 9	Female	26	Journalism	Yes, father was the Dutch ambassador to Cape Town for four years
Respondent 10	Female	21	Law	Yes, for Worlds Debating Tournament
Respondent 11	Male	27	Information Technology	No

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[10] The decision to limit the scope was vindicated by the recommendations of Van Ham, who the author met to discuss the research project in The Hague in April 2006.

Respondent 12	Male	22	IR	No
Respondent 13	Female	22	Sociology	No
Respondent 14	Male	25	Media Studies	No
Respondent 15	Male	26	Economics	No
Respondent 16	Male	24	Commerce	Yes, family holiday visit
Respondent 17	Female	22	International Law	No
Respondent 18	Male	25	Economics	No
Respondent 19	Male	25	Law	No
Respondent 20	Male	20	European Studies	No
Respondent 21	Female	21	Politics	No
Respondent 22	Female	22	Sociology	No
Respondent 23	Female	21	Law	No
Respondent 24	Female	28	Economics	Yes, visited her sister for a holiday
Respondent 25	Female	20	Sociology	No
Respondent 26	Male	25	IR	No
Respondent 27	Male	22	Journalism	No
Respondent 28	Male	22	European Studies	No
Respondent 29	Female	23	Music	Yes, holiday
Respondent 30	Male	27	Law	No

The questionnaire was compiled with a view to offering respondents an interesting and interactive experience in which they were able to learn about South Africa while answering the questions posed (See Appendix A). In order to do this, several different types of questions were included, scaled, closed and open-ended, and a flip chart of brand and product logos strategically placed in the middle of the interview to offer a refreshing alternative to the written answers leading up to and following it. Emphasis was placed on the flow of the questionnaire, ensuring as far as possible that each question followed on

smoothly from its predecessor and thereby assisting the respondents in the coherent representation of their impressions. Closed-ended and Likert-scaled questions were chosen in certain cases in order to be able to easily tabulate and order responses which were most readily suited to this form of assessment.

A mixed method approach was used, with aspects of both qualitative and quantitative social research. In this sense, 19 of the questions were open-ended, while the remaining 30 were closed-ended, with predetermined and easily coded response categories provided. An explanation of the reasons for choosing the answer categories used for the closed-ended questions is included within the data analysis in chapter three. Due to the exploratory nature of the study, the author was not testing a specific hypothesis, as would have been the case with an exclusively quantitative study. It was rather the aim to explore the attitudes and impressions of the sample population in as unbiased and open a manner as possible. The use of visual aids to questions and the author's desire to measure attitudes and brand awareness linked the study to the field of marketing research.

No specific studies were used as a methodological template upon which to base the study. It was however a theory driven questionnaire in the sense that the author attempted to capture responses which were relevant to the theory of place branding, and were thereby able to test Brand South Africa in the context of the existent literature on the topic. For example, in question 4 the author asked respondents to state which of the listed country's they would most like to spend a week's summer holiday at. In addition to South Africa, the following options were given: New Zealand, Brazil, Croatia and Australia. The purpose of this question was to test the theoretical link made by several scholars between tourism and branding and thereby assess whether South Africa is, relative to the other country's listed, a desirable tourist destination. Once this had been ascertained, it was the hope of the author that further questions regarding the strength of the South African brand in the minds of the respondents would have been contextualised.

The open-ended questions were chosen to allow for the identification of possible new concepts and/or relationships between concepts. These questions in many ways yielded

the most interesting results as causal relationships behind the responses given were able to be extracted which highlighted patterns from a sample population which would have otherwise been fairly limited. Another aspect of the questionnaire's structure was aimed at ensuring that respondents felt confident at all stages and not insecure due to their relative lack of knowledge about South Africa. In this sense, the interview was started with informal conversation before the first group of questions were asked, all of which were purely aimed at assessing preferences rather than knowledge, which served to ease respondents into the interview (Gilbert, 1993).

As far as data analysis was concerned, the closed-ended questions were pre-coded in simple numerical order. The first step in coding the open-ended responses was to identify general ideas and themes which were then clustered into response categories to facilitate further analysis. For example, in question six respondents were asked to mention what they believed to be the biggest problems facing the South African government. In order to accommodate the vast array of responses anticipated, the author collected responses into several broad categories, such as: Apartheid, HIV, Crime, Poverty, Income Inequality, Education and Unemployment. Categories were then given numerical code labels, which were then entered into a data matrix together with the responses given to the closed-questions. This way of coding and structuring the data made it easier to identify patterns and relationships between the responses given.

1.8 Overview

From the theoretical basis provided in chapter one, this thesis will aim to focus on South Africa's nation branding efforts, challenges and opportunities. In chapter two, this will be facilitated by an in-depth analysis of South Africa's historical and contemporary efforts in the field of nation branding. In addition to outlining the intended image the government has aimed to promote over the past 50 years, chapter two offers an insight into the key inconsistencies which have plagued the creation of the country's brand identity throughout the period since 1994. Chapter three therefore aims to make use of primary information to further assess the extent to which the challenges highlighted in

chapter two are being met and the reality of the perceived ambiguity of South Africa's international reputation, as evidenced by the perceptions of the sample population assessed. In chapter four some concluding points are offered as well as salient policy suggestions regarding which would enhance the creation of South Africa's brand identity through the use of facilities and channels of communication already at the government's disposal.

Chapter 2: 'Uncovering the Cover-Up'

Brand South Africa's shift from Apartheid to democracy

2.1 Introduction

The potential of branding in leveraging the shift in global power highlighted in chapter one is not, as Anholt suggests, equally accessible to all states in the international system. Developing states need to compensate for their lack of access to major public diplomacy programmes and communication networks by utilising other means in order to market their unique appeal. In South Africa, sport has emerged as one of the most prominent ways through which the country has marketed its national identity. However, while such efforts have peaked over the past 12 years, they are not unique to the post-1994 era. Even during Apartheid South Africa sought to engage in various forms of international marketing, many of which were met with international condemnation due to the controversial nature of the regime. The Apartheid state's isolation and the growing international support for democratic transformation in South Africa afforded the country an unprecedented amount of publicity in the immediate aftermath of the elections in 1994 (Geldenhuys, 1991). This attention and the self-proclaimed "miracle" of South Africa's transformation has centred on the symbol of Nelson Mandela, who has almost single-handedly altered the image of South Africa abroad.

This chapter therefore seeks to broadly map the changing context within which the South African state has sought to market itself, by contrasting efforts by the Apartheid state and the democratic state in the fields of sport, film, music, public diplomacy and the promotion of international brand ambassadors. The purpose of this discussion is to emphasise the importance afforded to nation branding by the South African government and thereby introduce the effect of these initiatives on a sample of Dutch respondents analysed in chapter three.

2.2 Brand South Africa's shift from Apartheid to democracy

There can be no doubt that the Apartheid government had a deep appreciation for the need to rebrand itself in terms more favourable to the international community in the post-WW2 era of global governance, especially with the collapse of colonialism and the liberation of much of the African continent from oppressive minority rule. From the very outset in 1945, the newly-formed United Nations expressed its disapproval of South African domestic politics, regarding both Apartheid and the continued occupation of South West Africa (Namibia). Due to its unpopular and contradictory policies, South Africa came to be regarded as a 'pariah' state by the developed world and therefore the government's attempts to brand itself as anything more subtle and humanitarian were eyed with inherent scepticism, and even contempt (Geldenhuys, 1991). However, for much of the Apartheid era in South Africa, these obstacles did not prevent the National Party (NP) from pursuing its marketing strategies abroad as there was an underlying belief that the longevity of the regime depended on greater global "understanding" for its cause.

This attitude was most clear in the Apartheid state's extensive involvement in the Information Scandal which rocked the highest echelons of NP power in the 1970s. Otherwise known as the "Muldergate Scandal", named after Minister of Information Dr Connie Mulder, the scandal involved the Department of Information's attempt to manipulate and neutralise the international media treatment of South Africa in order to counter what was believed to be an ongoing 'hate South Africa crusade' (Reese and Day, 1980). The Apartheid state was convinced that the local English newspaper *The Rand Daily Mail* was spearheading the opposition rhetoric and therefore sought to counter its influence by opting for a "propaganda war" of its own. Broadly speaking, this 'war' began in 1973 when Prime Minister Vorster accepted Mulder's plan to shift approximately R64 million from the defence budget to undertake a series of propaganda projects, the most important of which involved the issuing of bribes to international news

agencies and the establishment of a state-controlled newspaper, *The Citizen*, to represent its domestic policies in a favourable light (Sanders, 2002: 868).

Paradoxically, the scandal which erupted following the leaking of the misappropriation of state funds to support the propaganda war brought the injustices of the Apartheid regime into greater focus internationally. One of the consequences of this, apart from greater diplomatic pressure exerted on the NP to reform, was a rise in the number of foreign journalists interested in covering South African affairs from within the country, which intensified the pressure on the NP and contributed to the premature retirement of Vorster, Mulder and Rhoodie. Therefore, while catastrophic for the ruling party, the Information Scandal proved the Apartheid government's awareness of the need to market its ideologies, albeit through distorted propaganda, to counter negative views expressed within the country and by the international community for its segregationist policies. The cover-up had been uncovered and the consequences, especially when exacerbated by the much-publicised Soweto Uprisings in June 1976, were crippling for the state's international reputation (Sanders, 2002).

It is also important to note that South Africa's reputation before the Apartheid era was held in fairly high regard in the West after its collaborative efforts during WW2 in fighting alongside the Allied Forces and its general prestige as a regional economic and political power. In this sense, the negative image created by the Apartheid government was not inherited but created by the replacement of any residual sense of national identity which existed during British and Dutch colonial rule of the country leading up to independence. As Sara Pienaar noted in her seminal study on South Africa's relations with the League of Nations, the founding of the UN marked the beginning of the country's "descent from paragon to pariah, from a respected and active member of the international community to the defensive and embattled figure it cuts today" (Geldenhuys, 1991: 112). Geldenhuys (1991: 145) adds that Apartheid had developed into the "world's number one moral issue," a regime which no amount of marketing expertise or propaganda could idealise. It is of paramount importance therefore to note not only that South Africa became one of the most globally pressurised regimes towards

the end of Apartheid, but also that the ramifications of this were indeed realised by the NP, resulting in its attempts to generate a more positive view of its racially segregationist policies in line with the domestic party manifesto. The marketing strategies employed by the NP therefore "sought to brand South Africa as a society in which ethnic separation was required to ensure political stability, and most importantly as a bulwark against Communist expansionism" (Van der Westhuizen, 2000: 8), an image that the international community was, quite fortunately, not naïve enough to accept as the truth.

Therefore, with the regime change in 1994 came the necessity to completely alter South Africa's marketing framework, with the shift essentially being from a 'cover-up' to an 'uncovering' of the country's vibrant culture and limitless economic and industrial potential. As Van der Westhuizen (2000: 5) suggests, "in branding terms, the contrast between the Apartheid state and the new South Africa could not have been greater. Whereas Pretoria had been the polecat of the world, isolated, treated as a pariah if not a 'rogue' state, the new SA enjoyed a degree of symbolic power that was unprecedented." The attention focused on South Africa following its democratic transformation allowed it to "blaze the trail" (Gumbel, 2005) in Africa in terms of nation branding as it was able to make use of disproportionate media coverage to launch its contemporary identity to an interested international community. In the post-1994 era, Pretoria has realised the need to market itself in a manner consistent with its status as a rising, multicultural and vibrant country and moved to implement the necessary processes and mechanisms in order to do so successfully (Van der Westhuizen, 2000: 15). However, before discussing these contemporary institutional efforts, it is important to examine the different manners through which South African culture was marketed during Apartheid and in the era since democratic transformation.

(2.2.1) *Branding South African culture*

Aware of the power of culture in branding, the NP audaciously attempted throughout Apartheid to broadcast a cultural identity of South Africa which was consistent with its ideology. However, the NP's efforts in this regard were regularly stifled by the General

Assembly, which constantly re-established its cultural boycott of South Africa, the first resolution (Resolution 2396) to this effect being passed in December 1968[11]. The NP's efforts manifested themselves in the realm of music, film, sport and literature, the most important aspect of which was the ability to suppress expressions of discontent from the liberal and artistically talented domestic community. In this sense, one of the Apartheid government's biggest marketing obstacles was trying to somehow silence its expatriate community, the most vocal members of which had either fled the country due to its political tensions or had been exiled due to their respective campaigns against the state.

Against this backdrop the NP attempted to draw upon the country's marketing power to sell Apartheid to the world. As outlined in chapter one, marketing a country, for whatever means, is a two-pronged activity as the state is required to promote and sell a chosen set of values first to its domestic national population before attempting to export them abroad. This element of the Apartheid regime was no more evident than in the realm of sport.

(2.2.1.1) *Sport*

For a devout sporting nation such as South Africa, international isolation from major events was one of the most constantly despised aspects of the Apartheid regime. Therefore, the UN and independent sports authorities from the international community were aware of the effect the sporting boycott on South Africa would have, especially in terms of allowing the country to expand its marketing power. In this sense, the Apartheid state sought to brand 'separate development' with international respectability by insisting upon separate sporting teams, a position only slightly altered by Vorster in 1971 by introducing the concept of 'multinational' versus 'racial' sport with the former applicable in cases where more than two countries were involved as in the Olympics (Barber and Barratt, 1990). Another example of the Apartheid state's efforts is the organisation of the

[11] As far as diplomatic restrictions were concerned, the UN General Assembly passed Resolution 1761, which condemned South African Apartheid policies on 6 November 1962.

South African Games, which aimed to attract foreign teams to the country in order to bypass international sporting sanctions.

There were a myriad of committees publicly backing the acceptance of non-racial sports teams in international competitions despite the general boycott against South African sports. In this sense, a Committee for International Recognition was formed by non-racial sportsmen in 1955 and was succeeded by the South African Sports Association (SASA) in 1958 and the South African Non-Racial Olympic Committee (SAN-ROC) in 1963 (Reddy, 1998) with prominent activists such as the current SA Olympic Chief Sam Ramsamy pushing for continued pressure against the Apartheid regime. Of course, they were heavily restricted by the Apartheid state, especially during the Vorster regime where open government interference in sport was epitomised by the Proclamation in February 1965, under the "Group Areas Act", which prohibited any mixed sports or even mixed audiences, except by permit (Reddy, 1998). Symbolically, this was the first time that segregation in sport was passed as law, before it had been "custom".

Once again, the Apartheid state's efforts to brand itself, this time with sport, were stifled by the attention given by the international media to Apartheid and the much-publicised refusal of several teams to play against SA or even in a sports tournament in which it was involved. Massive demonstrations greeted the South African rugby team on its tour to Britain in 1969 and in Australia in 1971, the intensity of which forced Queensland authorities to declare a State of Emergency in the province. The global opposition to South Africa's participation in sporting competitions forced the Apartheid state to take drastic measures in order to market its sporting prowess internationally. As Reddy (1998) asserts, Pretoria began to send teams abroad with no advance publicity and spent millions to try and persuade foreign sportsmen and teams to play in South Africa. In addition to this, the government began making public concessions to the international community by allowing black sportsmen and women the chance to represent the country at national level. However, this superficial attempt at reconciliation was not accepted by sporting bodies worldwide, due primarily to the fact that it was still a far cry from the principle of non-discrimination promoted by the International Olympics Commission (IOC).

The Apartheid state chose sport as a marketing tool for two primary reasons. Firstly, it was a medium which all South Africans could understand and relate to and, secondly, the global attention sport receives was a means through which to transfer this call for understanding to the international community. The emphasis on sport was more detrimental to the NP than it anticipated as the publicity generated by sporting boycotts against the state further isolated the regime and galvanised international support for democratic transformation.

(2.2.1.2) *Sport after 1994*

Given the above discussion, it was inevitable that democratic transformation in 1994 would alter the ability of the South African government to use sport in marketing its cultural identity. This renewed policy is no more evident than in the ANC's promotion of the nation's sporting passion and prowess through the sponsoring and hosting of major events. Generally speaking, the importance of hosting sporting events in rebranding a nation has been exemplified by several contemporary international examples, with that of the 2002 Korean Soccer World Cup and the 1992 Olympic Games in Barcelona, Spain, being perhaps the most relevant for South Africa. While it is beyond the scope of this study to enter into a detailed discussion of the abovementioned case studies, it is salient to note that both Korea, which continued to battle from the crippling effects of the Korean War, and Spain, which until 1992 remained stigmatised by the autocratic regime of General Franco which ended in 1976, used the respective sporting events to successfully rebrand themselves on an international scale. From a reputation marred by war and infrastructural weakness, Spain rapidly became one of the fastest growing economies in Europe, with Barcelona elevating its status through a massive inflow of tourism revenue over the past decade. While entering into the event with a stronger international identity, Germany has also reaped the branding benefits of hosting the 2006 Soccer World Cup as it has begun to shake off the stereotype of staid efficiency and replaced it with a more exuberant, lively and exotic image (IMC 3, 2005).

This potential has been realised by the ANC, which has set up a special governmental agency, Sport and Recreation South Africa (SRSA), to market and promote the country's sporting achievements, as well as launching bids for international sporting events. The focus placed on sport as a powerful means to create cross-cultural unity in South Africa and to market its potential to the international community was undoubtedly another aspect of Mandela's lasting legacy. For example, when 'Madiba', dressed in full national rugby colours, handed over the Rugby World Cup trophy to Springbok captain François Pienaar on the 24th of June 1995, the country was elevated to a status of unity that no political leverage could have achieved. As a BBC journalist wrote of the occasion, "Post-Apartheid South Africa had been welcomed back into the international sporting frame and the World Cup was their first chance to unite a nation and prove things had changed" (BBC Online, 1995)

It was also no coincidence that Mandela endorsed South Africa's bid for the Rugby World Cup as opposed to another equally important international sport. As was evidenced by the intense boycotts held against the South African rugby team during Apartheid, the sport had long been seen as a symbolic pastime of the oppressor (Black and Nauright, 1998). The World Cup thereby afforded Mandela a priceless opportunity, equipped with an international platform, to promote the quality of reconciliation and transformation which characterised his term in power. Galvanised by the marketing success of the Rugby World Cup, the ANC has continued to zealously bid for the hosting of similar sporting occasions in the country, the first of which was for the 2004 Olympic Games. Despite the fact that the Olympic bid was unsuccessful, it clearly defined the ANC's belief in its ability to host events of such a scale, as well as its belief in the long-term advantages such an event would create for a developing country such as South Africa.

A year after the Rugby World Cup, South Africa hosted and won soccer's African Cup of Nations and Mandela was once again on hand, this time dressed in 'Bafana Bafana' kit, to hand over the trophy to the team's white captain Neil Tovey. The fact that both the national soccer and rugby teams won these hosted events, especially given the fact that

both performed poorly in defending their titles, facilitated the use of the term 'miracle' to be used in connection with the country's democratic transformation. Apart from being able to beam an image of strength and unity globally, these events did much to elevate a sense of forgiveness and reconciliation in South Africa. Following on from the established trend and growing in confidence, South Africa hosted the World Cup of Athletics in 1998 and the All Africa Games in 1999, both of which again proceeded without any significant problems. While the transition from Mandela to Mbeki in 1999 may have led to significant structural changes in the way the country was marketed, the influence and importance of sport was undiminished. In this sense, Mbeki continued to support the use of sport in marketing the country, backing the successful bids to host the 2003 Cricket World Cup and golf's 2002 Presidents Cup as well as the failed bids to secure the 2006 Soccer World Cup and the 2011 Rugby World Cup. However, these events, and the myriad of smaller equivalents which have taken place over the past decade, pale in scale and significance when one considers the potential impact of the Soccer World Cup to be held in South Africa in 2010 (Morgan, 2004).

(2.2.1.3) *2010: 'Africa's time has come'*

In order to ensure that the World Cup is a success, the South African government has set up the 2010 National Communications Partnership, the sole mandate of which is to market the country in the build-up to the event in four year's time. As Germany and South Korea would attest to, the Soccer World Cup provides its host nation with a rapturous international audience, an unprecedented inflow of tourists and an ability to redefine, strengthen and market its unique cultural, economic and political appeal. As the International Marketing Council's Yvonne Johnson stated at the 2006 World Economic Forum on Africa, "the World Cup is 43 days that can completely change the perceptions about our country (South Africa) and our continent" (WEF on Africa, 2006: 21). Of further symbolic importance regarding South Africa's bid has been its direct link to Africa. Government Communications CEO Themba Maseko went as far as to claim that organisers should place the slogan "*Africa's time has come*", which was used in the bidding process, at the heart of all preparation for the 2010 games, an ideal which is in

line with Mbeki's evocation of an 'African Renaissance' and his Pan-African approach to continental affairs. Reiterating Maseko's claims, Minister in the Presidency Essop Pahad, has stated that South Africa needs to use the platform provided by 2010 to market the country in line with the slogan "Alive with Possibility" and thereby elevate its international status in reducing the gap between foreign perceptions and the real strengths of the country.

2010 therefore provides a succinct example of the ability of the post-Apartheid state to use sport in order to market its identity and potential on a global scale. During Apartheid, sporting boycotts would have prevented the NP from being able to host the events which have been so instrumental in recreating South Africa's reputation over the past 12 years. On another level it is significant in the sense that it displays South Africa's ability to punch well above its weight globally. Realising this, the ANC has made calls for assistance from the International Federation of Association Football (FIFA) and previous host nations in order to make 2010 a success (Pahad, 2006). During Apartheid the NP's attempt to market its cultural identity through sport performed was a powerful element in increasing its international isolation and condemnation. Since 1994, the ANC has seized upon this incumbent potential and used sport to uncover the country's talent and culture and consolidate its identity. 2010 will in many ways be the ultimate judge of its success in this regard.

(2.2.1.4) *Cinema*

Cinema is increasingly becoming one of the most powerful avenues available to states aiming to market their cultural identity on a global scale. The importance of film as a "vehicle for people to articulate their different social affiliations and define their respective historic cultures, traditions, social and political experiences" (Blignaut and Botha, 1992: 88) was acknowledged by the Apartheid state, which tried desperately to control the industry through heavy state subsidies and regulation of the themes covered. Broadly speaking, the NP aimed to depict racial segregation, with special emphasis placed on the Homelands, as a natural and harmonious process which was not met with

significant opposition by the black majority within the country. The films, such as *Inkunzi* (1976) and *Maloyi* (1978), endorsed by the NP and the South African Broadcasting Commission (SABC) during Apartheid therefore reinforced these ideals, negating the film industry's natural role as a catalyst for social change and a means to foster multi-cultural understanding and respect. Several scholars, including Blignaut and Botha (1992) and Tomaselli (1989) have commented on the role of film during Apartheid, emphasising the fact that the NP's approach towards it epitomised its general naivety concerning nation branding in general.

Therefore, between 1956 and the introduction of a regulated subsidy system, government and big business in South Africa collaborated to manipulate cinema in the country. In this sense, "ideology and capital came together to create a national cinema that would reflect South Africa during the Verwoerdian regime" (Botha and Van Aswegen, 1992: 56). Of the 60 films made in South Africa between 1956 and 1962, 43 were in Afrikaans, while 13 were in English and four were bilingual. The incentive for movie producers was that once a film had earned a specific amount of money at the box-office, it qualified for a substantial state subsidy, which went a long way to covering the costs of production. The films made were also unremarkable due to the "idealistic conservatism" (Botha, 1992) upon which they were based.
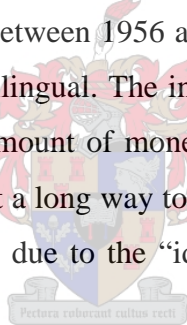
The limited scope and appeal of the Afrikaner film industry lasted a little more than two decades before its minority viewing public became more interested in international alternatives, mostly from Hollywood. Coinciding with this was the creation of the "Bantu" film industry during the 1970s by the NP, with the aim being to create films for the black community which portrayed the urbanisations of blacks as "uniformly negative" (Gavshon, 1983: 18), with homeland life being promoted as a natural alternative. Furthermore, any film purporting that the Apartheid state was in turmoil was immediately banned by the state, or received no distribution rights and therefore failed to qualify for a subsidy (Botha, 2002). Throughout Apartheid, cinemas were segregated and largely controlled by one of the two main distribution agents, Ster-Kinekor and Nu-

Metro, with very few independent options available for the screening of controversial films which represented a more honest view of reality.

However, due to the regulations and restrictions imposed by the Apartheid state on the film industry, several independent film makers exported their work to Europe and America, which also contributed towards the pressure on the NP to reform. The architects of the regeneration of South African film created FAWO (Film and Allied Workers committee) in September 1988, the aim of which was to "unite all film makers within South Africa to establish a democratic society" (Botha, 2002). Full-length films such as *Mapantsula*, which participated in the 'Un Certain Regard' section at the Cannes Film Festival, *Marigolds in August*, which won two Silver Bear Awards in Berlin and *The Road To Mecca* were made, all of which highlighted themes of racism, injustice and inequality in Apartheid South Africa (Botha, 2002). The NP had by this stage almost completely lost control of its ability to control the film industry and market its own chosen themes both domestically and abroad.

Therefore, due primarily to the deliberate suppression of cultural creativity during Apartheid, the South African film industry was deeply fragmented with virtually no national identity leading up to 1994. Ironically, it was through the NP's efforts to use film as a tool to create social cohesion in South Africa by promoting its ideological themes that led to the demise of the state-sponsored industry towards the end of the 1980s and gave rise to a new era of independent filmmakers galvanised through a common contempt of Apartheid injustices. In addition to the increase in pressure from independent filmmakers and the rising international pressure felt by the NP, the demise of the state-sponsored film industry was in many ways brought about by its limited viewing public. The film industry was, like much of Apartheid, geared towards the minority white population and, when this group became more interested in glamorous Hollywood productions due to the inferior quality of domestic films, which were usually poor imitations of American genre productions, the domestic box office plummeted.

As was the case with sport, the Apartheid state was driven by a naïve belief that the promotion of its ideals through film could foster greater understanding for its cause. These attempts were stifled by the suppression of domestic filmmakers and the control of the themes covered at a time when global cinema was booming. For the South African film industry, democratic transformation could not have come sooner.

(2.2.1.5) *Cinema after 1994*

While the fragmentation of the South African film industry was a result of Apartheid, the moves to rescue it from stagnation occurred before democratic transformation took place in 1994. These efforts were embarked upon by private institutions and interest groups rather than government, an offshoot from the rise of independent filmmakers towards the end of the 1980s. The first notable step in this regard was the establishment of the Film and Broadcasting Forum (FBF) in 1991, which led to the creation of the Film and Broadcasting Steering Committee (FBSC) in 1993, a single body representing the eight major film organisations in local cinema. The FBSC welcomed democracy in 1994 and has over the past 12 years facilitates the gradual rise of South African cinema.

This rise has been characterised by the emergence of a new generation of independent filmmakers[12], several of whom have produced internationally successful movies, and stars who have managed to gain fame in Hollywood such as Charlize Theron and Arnold Vosloo. Although mostly insular, the local film industry has received international accolades, the most recent of which being for Gavin Hood's South African drama *Tsotsi*, which won the Academy Award for Best Foreign Language Film in 2006. Based on Athol Fugard's novel of the same name, *Tsotsi* follows a day in the life of a township thug who changes his criminal ways after unintentionally finding himself responsible for a one-year-old child. Directed by a South African, comprising a fully South African cast and based on a book written by a South African author and playwright, the film elevated the local industry to perhaps its highest level since 1994. However, Hood and the film's

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[12] New voices in the local film industry include director Gavin Hood (*A Reasonable Man, Tsotsi*), Zola Maseko (*Mr Drum, The Life and Times of Sara Baartman*), Akin Omotoso (*God Is African*), Darrell Roodt (*Yesterday*), Jason Xenopoulos (*Promised Land*) and Mark Dornford-May (U-Carmen eKhayalitsha)

producer Peter Fudakowski were forced to seek assistance from the UK Film & TV Production Company plc (of which Fudakowski is CEO), the Industrial Development Corporation of SA and the National Film and Video Foundation of SA in order to make the film a reality due to a lack of participation by the South African government. The success of *Tsotsi* therefore highlighted an ironic shift in the domestic film industry as the fervent desire for independence which originated during the Apartheid era had forced filmmakers to shun financial backing from government for fear of its hidden agenda in controlling the themes covered. Moreover, the South African government has, since 1994, not displayed as active an interest in backing the local film industry as it has for the promotion of its alternative cultural indicators and has therefore yet to fully benefit from the branding potential which it is able to create on an international scale.

The lack of government involvement in the film industry has also led to a preponderance of negative themes broadcast internationally. With few exceptions such as *U-Carmen e-Khayalitsha*, which was screened throughout Europe, South African films over the past decade have covered themes of HIV, crime, inequality, poverty and historical injustice. While *Tsotsi* may end with a vague message of redemption and hope, the film depicts life for black South Africans as one of hardship and poverty, driven to crime and alcoholism as a last resort given their inability to leverage the benefits of the New South Africa.

In contrast, Hollywood has subtly and overtly promoted America's foreign policy goals and displayed its cultural strength through a biased depiction of current and past events with its blockbuster-style movies. As Nye (2003: 12) states, Hollywood has made America attractive to the international community through its dual promotion of consumerism, sex and violence, as well as "individualism, upward mobility and freedom." This use of soft power is an essential component of nation branding and one which the ANC has yet to make use of. Furthermore, Hollywood films such as *Red Dust* and *Stander*[13], both based on true-life South African stories, hint at an interest in the

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[13] *Red Dust*, which starred Academy Award-winning actress Hilary Swank, was based on the emotionally turbulent Truth and Reconciliation Commission hearings in South Africa, while *Stander* documented the true-life story of notorious South African bank robber Andre Stander.

country from the world's biggest film industry which, unless regulated, could delegate the representation of South African cultural identity through film to the United States.

Therefore, the South African film industry has undoubtedly gained momentum and strength since its near collapse towards the end of Apartheid, but the symptoms of the regime have continued to stifle creativity and limited government involvement in the post-1994 era. While it is true that the film industry, as an essential means of communication and democracy, should be kept independent, the South African government has yet to realise its importance in the wielding of soft power internationally. Examples could be taken from Nigeria, where the local film industry has grown to become the third biggest in the world, behind Hollywood and Bollywood and thereby given itself the title 'Nollywood'. Nigerian President Obasanjo recently realised the potential in the rise of the industry, which is estimated to be worth approximately $100 million per year [14] and has provided governmental support to leverage its growing capacity to alter perceptions of the country as being corrupt, war-torn and poverty-stricken. The local industry in South Africa has the talent, the interest and an enviable supply of stories. What it has yet to gain is the local financial backing to support it, a caveat which the success of *Tsotsi* and the incumbent need to market the country leading up to 2010 may well remedy.
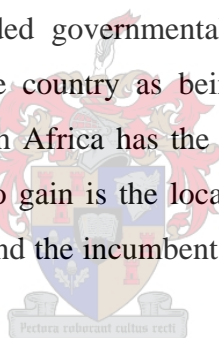
(2.2.1.6) *Cultural Ambassadors*

Perhaps no other aspect of the representation of South African culture epitomises the shift from the 'cover-up' to the 'uncovering' of the country's identity than the role of its brand ambassadors to the international community. The greatest irony in this regard is that South Africa's most influential brand ambassadors in the first decade of transformation were in many cases the same as during the last decade of Apartheid. The simple difference being that during Apartheid their role in representing South Africa was not endorsed by the government, which did everything in its power to suppress voices of

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[14] Moran, N. (2004) 'Nollywood or bust Lock, Stock Star', *The Guardian Unlimited* (Online Edition). January 19, 2004
http://film.guardian.co.uk/features/featurepages/0,4120,1126184,00.html

dissent through imprisonment, exile or death. It was these voices, from musicians such as Hugh Masekela, Miriam Makeba and Dollar Brand (Abdullah Ibrahim), as well as poets, Breyten Breytenbach and Jeremy Cronin and actor John Matshikiza that were most vocal in the representation of South Africa to the international community during Apartheid. Naturally, their message was inconsistent with that of the NP, resulting in the attempt by the government to stifle its influence. Political icons such as Steve Biko, Oliver Tambo and Nelson Mandela were more influential, even in death, exile and imprisonment, than NP officials could be towards the end of Apartheid in the creation of South Africa's international reputation.

Furthermore, Apartheid's growing status as "the world's number one moral issue" in the 1980s allowed the cultural ambassadors championing the liberation struggle to call on international assistance in spreading their message. Bands such as Irish rock group U2 were instrumental in this regard, as were organisers of international events which afforded Masekela a global stage from which to perform his protest song 'Bring Him Back Home', which became an anthem for the release of Mandela after its release in 1987. In contrast, the NP had no memorable cultural ambassadors which successfully promoted understanding for its cause, due in many ways to the international awareness of its controversial policies. The NP's inability to control the voices of its opposing ambassadors, especially given the fact that several of them were strategically placed throughout the West with access to powerful channels of communication, was further cause for isolation and its attempt to conceal its real identity from the international community.

In contrast, the message of freedom and equality spread by the cultural icons mentioned above was flaunted and constructively promoted by the post-Apartheid government. The role of brand ambassadors has therefore been embraced by the ANC over the past 12 years, with any relative success directly and eagerly advertised on as global a scale as possible. In addition to the political and cultural icons already mentioned, the South African government has made extensive use of contemporary events and achievements to market its potential. In this sense, symbolic events such as Charlize Theron's Academy

Award for Best Actress in 2003, entrepreneur Mark Shuttleworth's status as the first African to travel into outer space as well as the country's Nobel Prize Winners, JM Coetzee and Nadine Gordimer (Literature) and Albert Luthuli, Desmond Tutu, Nelson Mandela and FW De Klerk (Peace) have been constantly flaunted by the government in its domestic and international marketing campaigns.

Returning to the importance of sport in its marketing campaigns, the government has done much to herald its sporting achievements, constantly promoting its achievers as national heroes, which is perhaps most evident with its Olympic gold medallists[15]. The status of Lucas Radebe, former Bafana Bafana captain who made his name in England playing for Leeds United, within South Africa is an apt example of the country's respect for its sporting ambassadors, as is the role played by golfer Gary Player in generating interest in South Africa amongst the international community. The South African government since 1994 has therefore had the ability to promote the same ambassadors which the NP was forced to suppress in an attempt to regulate its international identity. In addition to elevating the status of these ambassadors locally, the government has actively sought to provide them with the necessary means to spread their message globally, a strategy which is in direct contrast to that employed by the NP. These cultural, diplomatic and commercial ambassadors have therefore proved an essential and powerful component of the ANC's international marketing strategies and initiatives over the past 12 years.

    (2.2.1.7) *Music*

There can be little doubt that music, as one of the essential cornerstones of South Africa's cultural identity, played a significant role in the liberation struggle against Apartheid.[16] Not only in terms of the role played by the exiled musicians described above, but also in terms of the way music served to unite the oppressed majority in the country through the promotion of songs of freedom and unity. Aware of its influence, the Apartheid

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[15] South Africa's Olympic Gold medallists include marathon runner Josiah Thugwane and swimmers Penny Heyns, Ryk Neethling, Lyndon Ferns, Roland Schoeman and Darian Townsend.
[16] The role of music in the struggle was depicted in the 2003 documentary 'Amandla: A Revolution in Four-Part Harmony', which was directed by Lee Hirsch, an American filmmaker with foreign financial backing.

government manipulated music in a similar way to film through the deliberate promotion of themes consistent with its segregationist ideology. The nature of South African music endorsed by the NP through the SABC was an intentional distortion of reality and inevitably led to a fragmentation and lack of identity within the local industry. This distortion was exacerbated by the cultural boycott against South Africa which continued throughout the 1980s and cast a negative light on any artists aiding the musical representation of the Apartheid regime. For example, American musician Paul Simon bore the brunt of severe criticism, mainly from the UN Anti-Apartheid Committee, following the release of his album 'Graceland' in 1984 as he was accused of breaking the cultural boycott against South Africa by collaborating with local all black gospel choir Ladysmith Black Mambazo.

The attempted use of music as political propaganda by the NP was most obvious by its sponsorship of radio throughout its reign. With an estimated 10 million sets in South Africa, radio is easily the most widely used medium of communication with access into the poorest regions of the country. Intent on reinforcing tribal identity and fostering "greater adherence to separate development" (Van der Westhuizen, 2000: 6), the NP established Radio Bantu in 1962 which made use of monolingual programming and refused airtime to artists such as Johnny Clegg and Sipho Mcunu due to the inconsistency of their message with NP rhetoric. The SABC, which controlled Radio Bantu, allowed only two independent radio stations during Apartheid: Radio 702 and Capital Radio with strict laws in place to punish maverick agencies using the radio as a means to communicate an agenda contradictory to government ideology. Therefore, as Van der Westhuizen (2000: 10) asserts, state control of the music industry via radio during Apartheid "ensured that only music which tended to reinforce tribal identities and lyrics which avoided socio-political issues, township slang or reflections about the depressing aspects of Apartheid life, would be given airtime."

As far as the use of music was concerned, the Apartheid government was in many ways fighting a losing battle. In this sense, the relative influence of any of its self-promoted musicians and its attempt to control the type of music exported was rendered insignificant

by the power of the international artists actively opposing the regime. In 1985, activist performer Steven Van Zandt formed the group 'Artists United Against Apartheid', which protested the existence of the regime in South Africa and included musicians such as Bob Dylan, Bruce Springsteen, Lou Reed, Miles Davis, Pete Townshend and Ringo Starr. Put simply, the influence of such artists far outweighed any attempt by the NP to promote its version of South African musical identity on a global scale. Facing further isolation, the NP began to seize greater control of the local music industry, the effect of which left it in a similar state to film, lacking identity and suffering fragmentation to the extent that it was unable to represent South African culture truthfully or coherently to the international community.

(2.2.1.8) *Music after 1994*

Naturally, given the importance of music in the country, the end of Apartheid gave rise to a boom in the local industry in South Africa. Driven by independent labels, artists from impoverished communities began to see music as a way out of poverty and appreciation for local music began to grow rapidly. Between 1992 and 1996 the South African music industry grew by 70.7 per cent, with local radio stations compelled by the Independent Broadcasting Authority to air at least 20 per cent South African content (Van der Westhuizen, 2000: 5). More recent statistics show how local music in South Africa has continued its rapid ascent, with local sales nearly tripling from R135-million to R383-million in the five-year period between 2000 and 2005 (Gedye, 2006). This growth is in contrast to global trends, which has seen the rapid shrinking of the global music industry, especially in the developed world.

The main reason for the growth in the industry has been the interest shown by black South Africans in new forms of music, the most prominent of which is the street-style music Kwaito[17], the emergence of which coincided with Mandela's release from prison in the early 1990s. Mandela, with his famous shuffle, has actively promoted music in his

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[17] In addition to Kwaito, recent studies show how Zulu folk music, gospel, house and Afro-pop have also contributed growth in the local industry (Gedye, 2006) and (Swink, 2003)

attempt to market South Africa's cultural identity. Combining marketing with humanitarian efforts, Mandela used music to highlight South Africa's contemporary problems and potential with his 46664 concerts in 2003 and 2005, both of which attracted major international stars and thereby ensured the event reached its intended global audience. The success of the industry can be attributed to the strength of independent labels in South Africa, which have access to the means to effectively market South African music overseas through so-called niche markets.

Benefiting from this independent consolidation of the music industry, the post-Apartheid government has been less sluggish than it has been with film in supporting music as a means to market the country's contemporary identity. These efforts have been in line with its desire to promote an image of multiculturalism and a fusion of traditional and modern culture to the international community. This attitude is most clear with the ANC's support for Cape-Town based Afro-fusion band Freshlyground, which has, over the past four years been used by government to represent its cultural image at several local and international events. Freshlyground has been described as a "multiracial, multinational seven-piece ensemble that perfectly blends Afro beats, funk, dance, classical influences and jazz" (www.freshlyground.com) and has developed a strong and devout following in the domestic music scene. The band, consisting of five South Africans, a Zimbabwean and a Mozambican, first played in front of President Mbeki at the opening of Parliament on the eve of celebrating 10 years of South African democracy in 2004 and has since been sent to Japan by the ANC to represent the country at the cultural Expo 2005 in Aichi, Japan in March 2005. In January 2006, the band also played at the formal launch of the ANC's 2006 local government election campaign at Athlone Stadium in Cape Town, which was attended by Mbeki. In addition to this, the band were scheduled to play at the World Cup Soccer closing ceremony in Berlin in June 2006 prior to the symbolic handing over of the hosting duties for 2010 to South Africa before the event was cancelled due to torrential rains in the German capital.

The financial backing provided by the South African government has allowed Freshlyground to embark on international tours which most local bands are unable to find

sponsorship for. Its success in this regard led to interest from major record labels, which culminated in the band signing with Sony/BMG Africa in 2005. While indicative of the ANC's intentions in using certain types of local music to promote the country's cultural identity, the example of Freshlyground is not an isolated one. The government's endorsement of local music styles and artists such as Zola, Johnny Clegg and Mafikizola is a clear indication of its awareness of the marketing power the state accrues through their increased international exposure. Despite enjoying domestic success, most South African bands are still unable to afford exorbitant international touring costs and would benefit greatly from government assistance. This mutually-beneficial relationship is one the ANC is in a position to make use of, a liberty which the Apartheid government was denied due to international pressure and its distorted view of South Africa's musical identity.

2.3 Moving on from Mandela: Mbeki and Brand SA

As evidenced by the above discussion, Mandela has played a pivotal role in the creation of South Africa's post-Apartheid cultural identity. As the country's greatest brand[18], Mandela epitomises all that is positive about South Africa and has almost single-handedly recreated the country's international reputation over the past 12 years. Armed with his evocation of a "Rainbow Nation", Mandela promoted South Africa as a multicultural and vibrant country dedicated towards peace and reconciliation, an ideology which led to the country's transformation being branded a 'miracle'. However, his symbolic power has led to what Van der Westhuizen (2002: 1) terms "Mandelamania" in South Africa, a factor which has in many ways stifled the emergence of a national identity outside of the former president's profound influence. In this sense, media attention "evolved and revolved" (Van der Westhuizen, 2002: 11) around Mandela in the years following the democratic transition which developed a sense of complacency within Brand SA and led to the downplaying of the country's more concrete potential, in real economic terms, as a developing state and a regional power in Africa.

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[18] In a recent study, Mandela was found to be the world's second most widely recognised 'brand' after Coca-Cola (Van der Westhuizen, 2002: 11).

According to Anholt (Ikalafeng, 2006: 3), Mandela is "90 per cent of the image of South Africa", meaning that "companies, tourism, other people, sport and culture need to be promoted to "round out" what is still a pretty thin brand." Therefore, the end of Mandela's presidency necessitated a shift in foreign policy and in the focus of South Africa's marketing strategies, which was characterised by the adoption of a characteristically pragmatic stance on the creation of the country's domestic and international image by Mbeki. The difference between the two leaders regarding the effect of their policies on Brand SA has been summed up by South African mining magnate and former Apartheid activist Tokyo Sexwale, who said, "With Mandela we had a man who brought hope and promise and reconciliation. But he was what I would call the non-executive head of South Africa Inc.; we needed an executive chairman and CEO ... that's Mbeki" (Robinson, 2004).

South Africa's marketing strategies regarding the promotion of cultural symbols, of which sport remains the most consistently flaunted, has been maintained over the course of Mbeki's presidency. However, in line with Mbeki's managerial and institutional style (Mtshali, 2006), several addition steps have been taken by Pretoria over the past seven years to establish the country's brand identity, the most concrete example of which has been the establishment of the International Marketing Council (IMC). Set up in 2000, the IMC formed part of government's Brand South Africa project embarked upon at the same time. As a public-private partnership, the IMC has been tasked by the government to create and promote a unified brand image for the country. Armed with the slogan 'Alive With Possibility', the IMC has made use of its international networks, as well as television and radio advertisements[19], in order to create a positive brand image for South Africa. The IMC's most recent initiative is the 2010 National Communication Partnership Team, the mandate of which is to promote South Africa leading up to the Soccer World Cup in four year's time.

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[19] Certain of the IMC's adverts were recently voted among the 10 most memorable advertisements by European readers of leading international business publication The Economist (IMC 4, 2006).

Another public-private initiative which has emerged during the Mbeki presidency is the Proudly South African campaign, which was officially endorsed by government at the 1998 Presidential Job Summit. Loosely modelled on the successful 'Made In Australia' campaign, Proudly South African is driven by the National Economic Development and Labour Council (NEDLAC) and enjoys the support of the South African Chamber of Business as well as the Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU). The purpose of the campaign is in line with the South African government's acceptance of Anholt's value multiplying effect regarding products and country-of-origin provenance, the success of which is indicated by the 2500 firms that currently use the logo on their products.

In his own capacity, Mbeki has affirmed his belief in the power of nation branding through his attendance at the 2006 World Economic Forum in Cape Town, where he attended talks aimed at outlining the need to develop a stronger brand for the African continent[20]. Addressing delegates, Mbeki claimed that branding in South Africa should be done properly "to tell this very, very positive story" (WEF on Africa, 2006). Mbeki's reiterated his support for nation branding at the last meeting of his International Investment Council in June 2006 in Cape Town, where he warned that South Africa should step up efforts to market the country if it wanted to compete with other economies for foreign investment. Briefing the media after the meeting, Mbeki said there was an "imbalance between the perceptions and the reality of South Africa" (WEF on Africa, 2006) among some members of the international community, which can only be altered through the marketing of the country's economic progress and success stories. In one of Mbeki's recent presidential entries on the ANC website, he stated that the image of South Africa conveys "vibrant and limitless possibilities" (Press Release Newswire, 2006) which will be realised through the consolidation of its national brand and its ability to meet the expectations it has set itself. The enlargement of South Africa's international appeal and the consolidation of its brand character are therefore central aspects to Mbeki's contemporary policies.

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[20] Also in attendance was Anholt, as well as several African heads of state and IMC CEO Yvonnne Johnson.

Mbeki's branding promises are also in line with his ideological desire to promote South Africa as an African country rather than a Western enclave in the continent. Pretoria's contribution to the formation of the African Union and Mbeki's foreign policy towards troubled African states such as Zimbabwe and the Democratic Republic of Congo are indicative of the Pan-African stance adopted by the government since 1999. While South Africa's confirmed status as an African country poses significant branding difficulties, it also affords the government the opportunity to market its regional strength and influence in international diplomatic circles, a factor which has aided Pretoria's application for a seat on the extended UN Security Council. The impression of its regional strength has been boosted by South Africa's capacity to host major diplomatic events such as the constituting conference for the African Union, the 2000 International Conference on AIDS, the 2001 World Conference Against Racism, Racial Discrimination, Xenophobia and Related Intolerance and the 2002 UN World Summit on Sustainable Development. Due to its relative success in hosting these events, as well as several others, South Africa was recently voted 22nd in the world as a convention location, which, despite the controversy certain of the events has courted, has helped to portray the country as one capable of "accommodating difference, disagreement and contestation" (Van der Westhuizen, 2000: 2) in the post-September 11 world order.

2.4 Conclusion:

This chapter has described the differences between the branding efforts made by the South African government during Apartheid as opposed to the post-1994 era. The comparison between the NP's attempt to conceal its true identity with propaganda and manipulation of the country's cultural symbols left a country with a fragmented, distorted and inconsistent identity upon its collapse in the early 1990s. In contrast, the post-1994 government has engaged in a campaign to uncover the country's cultural diversity and potential through various branding initiatives, the most salient of which has been by the hosting of major sporting events and its promotion of sporting and cultural ambassadors to the international community. However, regardless of the efforts made to recreate a

multifaceted reputation for the country, South Africa's brand identity is still heavily dependant on Mandela and continues to battle with the residual effects of the cultural fragmentation of its identity caused by Apartheid. Cognisant of this, Mbeki has attempted to establish institutional structures mandated to market the country in the build-up to 2010, a task which is hindered by the absence of a coherent and consolidated national brand.
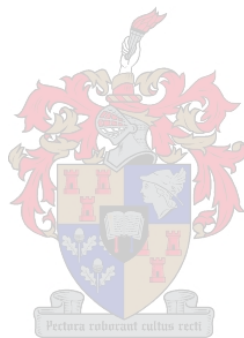
## Chapter 3: Dutch Impressions of the 'Rainbow Nation'

3.1 Introduction

The discussion in the first two chapters has emphasised the realisation by the South African government that for any branding effort to be successful, the country must be marketed internally, to its own population, and externally, to the international community. *Proudly South African* and the IMC have both focused on boosting pride amongst South Africans in order to develop a stronger legion of 'Brand Ambassadors' to directly and indirectly market the country. In this sense, research has been conducted which hints at a rising sense of patriotism amongst South Africans over the past 12 years. For example, the 2004 FutureFact poll showed that national pride is becoming an intrinsic part of South African culture with 93 per cent of the respondents claiming to be proud to be South African (IMC 1, 2004). However, while internal pride in South Africa may have been registered, it is perhaps external acknowledgement of the country's successes and marketing realities which is of more concrete significance to Brand SA. Realising the importance of creating international branding standards, Anholt developed a 'Country Brand Index', which in its most recent edition placed South Africa 22nd in its international ratings, thereby emphasising the country's ability to punch well above its weight regarding the promotion of its relative strengths through a pragmatic national brand strategy, one which posits a particular ideal to the international community (Ikalafeng, 2006: 3).[21]

This introduces perhaps the greatest challenge facing Brand SA regarding its ability to live up to expectations, those created through internal marketing campaigns, through the influence of Mandela as a global icon and the country's well-documented democratic

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[21] In Anholt's National Brand Index, Australia came in first, followed by Canada and Switzerland. As far as developing countries were concerned, Brazil came 15th, with Egypt topping African competition at 17 and China coming in one position ahead of South Africa in 21st position. South Africa was deemed a more consolidated national brand than Czech Republic (23), Russia (24) and Turkey (25).

transformation in 1994. Furthermore, South Africa has clearly decided to include its African identity as an integral aspect in its national brand strategy, a move which, while ideologically commendable, may provide significant obstacles to the creation of a reputation for financial strength, harmony and infrastructural capability. This is, of course, if South Africa is successful in convincing the international community that it is an African state and not, as several critics within SADC have highlighted, an island of affluence amidst a foreign continent of instability and weakness. As Swart (2005) explains, the underlying motif for South Africa's image construction has been the principle of '*Ubuntu*', which can be described as a respect for other people's values and a deep sense of hospitality, unity and warmth. In addition to this, openness epitomised by the slogan 'South Africa: Open For Business' and a flaunting of the natural South African reputation for optimism and friendliness seems to be the basis for its marketing efforts thus far. Central to this process has also been Mandela's 'Rainbow Nation', which implies a desire to market the country's diverse, multicultural population which is able to live harmoniously in the post-Apartheid era. The question is whether this identity has registered on a domestic and international level and therefore whether Brand SA could be said to be consolidated, the importance of which must be dealt with before the analysis of the empirical data.
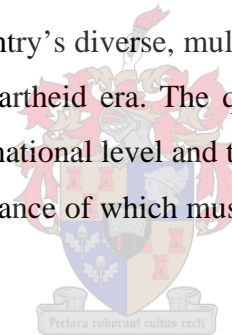
It is an uncontested fact that the power and significance of a brand identity is severely diminished unless it has been consolidated. This consolidation is a complex process involving the promotion of a coherent brand identity to a national population and domestic commercial enterprises, which are then able to transfer the same identity globally. Therefore, for products or nations to be entrenched in the minds of the international audience the image portrayed must be as coherent and consistent as possible. In fact, consistency in many ways separates branding from marketing in the sense that it is the result of marketing consistency (Anholt, 2002: 232). Of equal importance to consistency is the country's ability to deliver on the brand promise, which can only be done if the image portrayed is a realistic depiction of the country's capabilities and opportunities. As Papadopoulos (2004: 43) states, "brand image theory

makes it clear that consistency, clarity, ability to deliver on brand promise and other well-known criteria are central to successful branding."

Consistency offers consumers a guarantee, thereby ensuring that they are aware of what your product stands for and what they can expect upon buying into it, a crucial aspect of commercial enterprises and the success of nation brands. Put simply, a clear national identity is a prerequisite for the consolidation of a clear national brand (Van der Westhuizen, 2002: 9). In order for states to produce such a consistent image a proactive national brand strategy is required, which effectively links private and public enterprises in order to consolidate the image to be marketed, which needs to be reinforced by every act of communication between the country and the rest of the world.

Brand SA undoubtedly faces several formidable challenges in the creation of a strong and consolidated national and international identity. Most salient in this regard is the fact that, as Anholt (2003: 45) states, "brand constituencies need to be more aware of the possible incongruence between brand projection and brand perception." In this sense, the intended image being portrayed by South Africa and the relative levels of success achieved thus far, mostly on a domestic level, does not automatically transfer internationally. The perceptions of South Africa, the values attached to the country in the post-Apartheid era and the knowledge which exists regarding its status in international affairs are all indicators of the possible incongruence mentioned by Anholt.

This chapter consists of an analysis of the research conducted by the author in Amsterdam in order to assess the nature of this incongruence on the various levels explained in chapter one. A cursory glance of the most salient findings displays an underlying uncertainty in the understanding and awareness of post-Apartheid South Africa. In the eyes of the respondents, the image of South Africa was one riddled with ambiguity, conflicted with positive and negative associations and lacking the essential consistency highlighted above. Firstly, the juxtaposition of positive and negative attributes is discussed in light of the research findings. This, perhaps more than any other trend, explained the lack of a coherent image of South Africa. Secondly, the residual

effect of Apartheid on the perception of South Africa by the respondents is discussed, in relation to the consistency of Brand SA but also in particular contrast to the intended image portrayed in marketing campaigns by the IMC. Thirdly, the appreciation of South African culture is analysed as a trend which confirms the country's status in the minds of the respondents as both African and Western, developed and developing and without a clear cultural identity. Finally, an analysis of product and country-of-origin linkages is discussed in light of findings in contrast to Anholt's assumptions in *Brand New Justice*.

As mentioned in chapter one, the research was conducted by means of inductive face-to-face interviews. The interviews were formal, with an effort made to ensure that respondents felt at ease to speak openly, without fear of offending the South African researcher by expressing negative views about his home country. All of the 35 interviews were conducted privately and without time limitations. In several of the questions, South African products, cultural symbols and ambassadors were listed alongside those of other countries. The countries chosen ranged from Brazil and Canada to Guatemala and Kenya and were all selected in light of the nature of the specific question due to the similarities reflected with South Africa. Furthermore, each comparative country was chosen in order to facilitate a clearer analysis of the status of South Africa in the minds of the respondents. For example, whether South Africa was seen as economically similar to Canada or Kenya assisted the process of assessing where the country stands in relation to Africa. When considering cultural symbols, only those from developing countries (with the exception of Australia) were chosen as comparisons with more established developed world symbols would have been futile. To compare Charlize Theron to Indian actress Aishwarya Rai presents a fair analysis of the relative strength of the two in imprinting their respective countries' national identity on a global scale. To do the same between Charlize Theron and between 'Tsotsi' and 'Titanic' would have been less significant.

Trend 1: Juxtaposition of positive and negative attributes

Perhaps the most strikingly evident pattern, if it can be referred to in this way, in the research was the juxtaposition of strongly negative and strongly positive perceptions of

South Africa by the respondents. What is most interesting in this sense is that no single respondent was comprehensively positive or negative, but almost invariably held both polar opposite perceptions of South Africa, simultaneously attaching positive and negative associations to the country from a wide array of viewpoints. As an underlying current throughout my interviews, this juxtaposition introduced the ambiguity of South Africa's brand identity.

This dynamic was most clear when respondents were given a table of five countries (Zimbabwe, New Zealand, South Africa, Canada and India) with a comprehensive list of adjectives[22] which they were asked to match to the country which they thought was most applicable. The results affirmed the powers of country-of-origin perception as neither Canada nor New Zealand were labelled with a single negative association. In contrast, the top six attributes for Zimbabwe were: Poverty, Crime, Weakness, Racism, Autocracy and Laziness. New Zealand on the other hand was seen by the respondents as being a country epitomised by Democracy, Safety, Wealth, Modernity, Cleanliness, Harmony and Tolerance, with Canada recording a similarly positive impression, although Efficiency, Diplomacy and Diversity were included in the most frequently cited associations.

The most frequently cited association with South Africa was Diversity, which 79 per cent of the respondents listed. A positive start which then led to Racism (68 per cent) and Crime (68 per cent), followed by Opportunity (68 per cent), Poverty (64 per cent), Possibility (61 per cent), Growth (57 per cent), Renewal (54 per cent), Democracy (39 per cent), Excitement (39 per cent) and Tradition (36 per cent).

The full list of attributes associated with South Africa by the respondents continued in this contradictory manner, with Modernity (32 per cent), Wealth (25 per cent) and Tolerance (21 per cent) being juxtaposed with Autocracy (7 per cent) and Laziness (7 per cent). By and large, the impression of SA measured in this question was generally

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[22] The listed adjectives were as follows: Efficiency, Laziness, Energy, Wealth, Strength, Weakness, Cleanliness, Filth, Democracy, Diplomacy, Poverty, Opportunity, Growth, Crime, Safety, Tradition, Modernity, Tolerance, Autocracy, Racism, Excitement, Creativity, Diversity, Renewal, Possibility, Harmony

positive, especially when compared to Zimbabwe and India, with the latter being branded with the term Filth by 61 per cent of the respondents. The three most salient attributes which India shared with South Africa were Diversity, Opportunity and Poverty, which indicates a fairly strong similarity in the minds of the respondents regarding these two countries. Therefore, the impression of Canada, New Zealand and Zimbabwe could not have been clearer, while that of South Africa was riddled with ambiguity.

(Table 1) Top associations with South Africa

Values/Atrributes
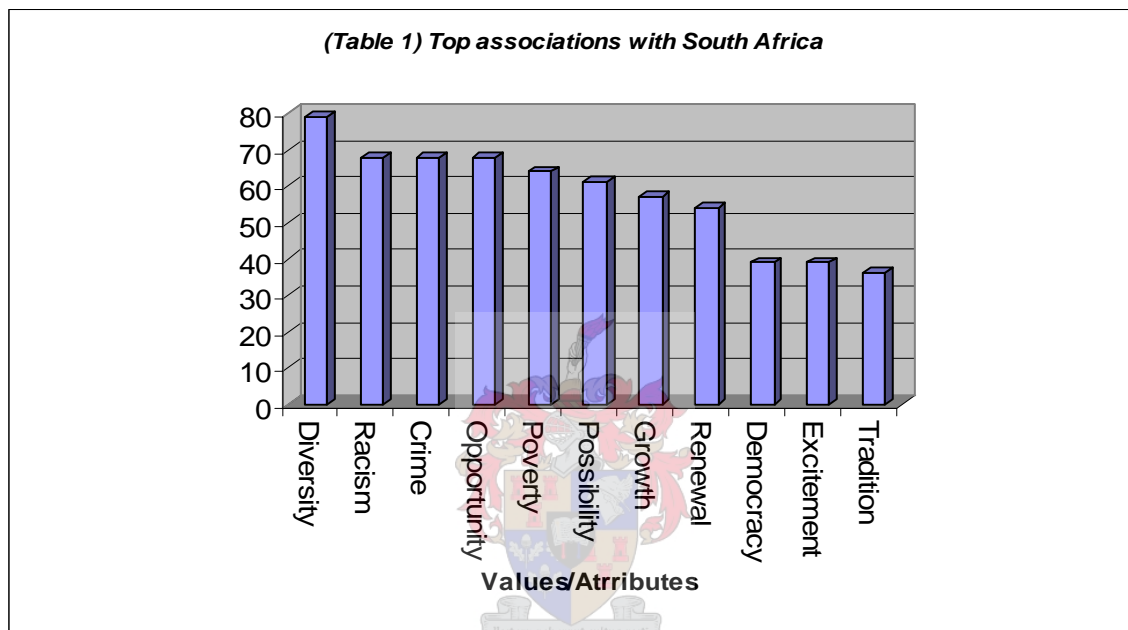
The simple fact that Diversity, generally regarded as a positive attribute, is flanked by Racism implies the impression that SA has a multicultural society but has yet to celebrate this fact with racial tolerance and equality. In addition to this it strongly suggests that the concept of diversity is understood on a superficial level by the respondents, who likened it more to demographic variables than any of the deep sense of unity, cultural respect or harmony which the term carries in South African marketing campaigns. The portrayal of diversity, itself an ambiguous concept, as a point of departure for marketing South Africa's potential is therefore sure to create inconsistency and lack of clarity internationally, especially when preaching to non-English speaking nations such as The Netherlands.

Moving on, as far as the other indications of the juxtaposition of positive and negative associations were concerned, the positive aspects of South Africa's image in the minds of the respondents seemed to be heavily linked to *tourism*. In the first question of the interview, respondents were asked to mention the first two words which came into their minds when they thought about South Africa. The benefit of beginning the interview in such a spontaneous manner meant that the respondents were unable to form impressions of South Africa through the process of the interview and their answers were therefore untainted.

The second most frequently mentioned word after Apartheid (which will be analysed later in this chapter) was Mandela, which 29 per cent of the respondents mentioned. The rest of the words were all related to tourism, with Cape Town (25 per cent), Nature (18 per cent), Landscape (18 per cent), Table Mountain (7 per cent), Warmth/Climate (7 per cent), Wine (7 per cent) and Beach (7 per cent) all being mentioned, in addition to Kruger National Park, Stellenbosch and Sun, each of which were mentioned once. Added together, these obviously tourist-related attributes were mentioned by 75 per cent of the respondents, with Apartheid 68 per cent and Mandela 29 per cent. Inevitably given the numbers mentioned, most of the respondents mentioned a positive and a negative association in question 1, confirming the ambiguous image in their mind regarding South Africa. In this sense, Mandela, which is an intensely positive image in the minds of the international community, was only ever mentioned along with Apartheid, and always as the second word mentioned.

Furthermore, the remaining respondents who mentioned Apartheid or any other related negative association such as War, Racial Clash and Crime/Aggression, all contrasted this impression with a positive association either after or before the negative. Mentioning Apartheid and Cape Town together, or Crime and Beach, both real examples, indicates the clash in the minds of the respondents. One respondent, a female Social Science student, said that the first word which comes to mind is Beautiful Nature, but soon thereafter added that she associates South Africa with Crime and Aggression. Another

respondent simply mentioned Nature and Racial Clash as the first two words that entered his mind when he thought about SA.

It therefore seems as if tourism marketing is being done well, but South Africa is falling short in its ability to market its actual ability as a developing nation that offers not just possibility and promise but real advantage and profit which can be made by investing in the country. Furthermore, it appears that the potential link between the promotion of a country as a tourist destination brand and the leverage this can create for its products and services in export markets has only recently been realised by the IMC, which has prioritised the resultant process under the 2010 National Communications Partnership. As Gnoth (2002: 262) explains, to affect the abovementioned leverage, it is essential to conceptualise the tourism system as a "network of interacting service providers rather than as a channel of distribution." If successful, increased tourism can allow Brand South Africa to link the tourism experience with the products and services which facilitated it in the minds of the visitor, thereby creating a far more sustainable and holistic brand identity. Given tourism's status as the world's biggest industry, this link is absolutely essential, especially for a country such as South Africa with such infinite potential in this regard.
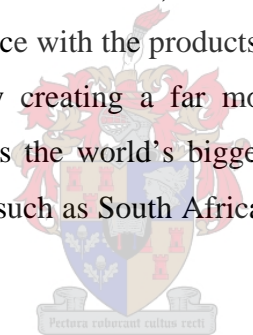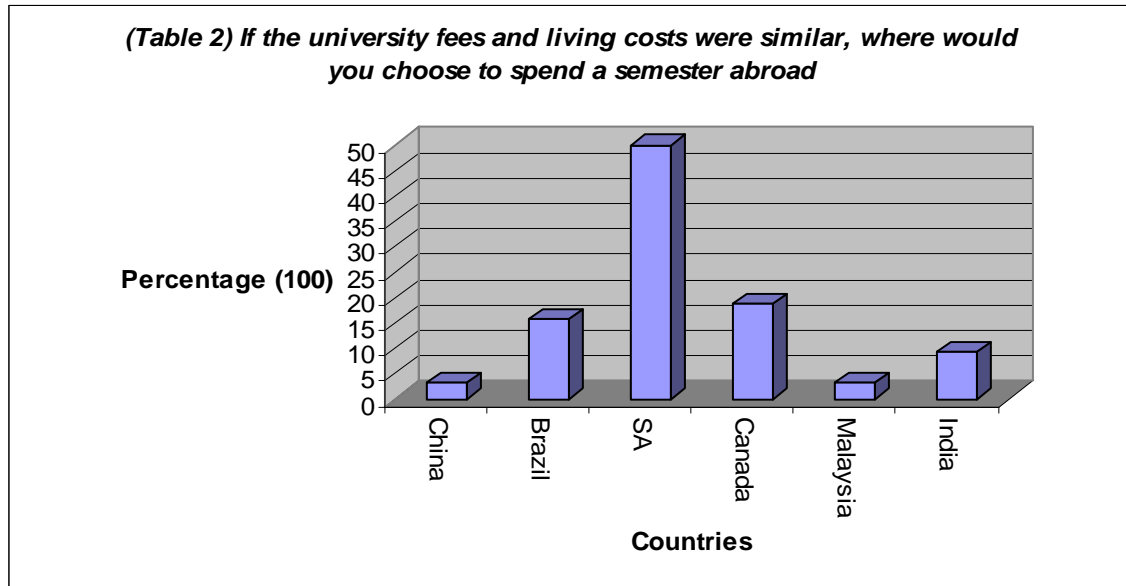
Furthermore, in order to measure the desirability of South Africa as a tourist location, respondents were asked which of the listed countries (New Zealand, South Africa, Brazil, Croatia and Australia) they would most like to win a week's summer holiday to. The results showed that an equal amount (36 per cent) of the respondents chose Brazil and Cape Town, although the reasons given differed significantly. Those who would have chosen South Africa explained their choice by citing very positive associations with the country's natural beauty, with one respondent even saying that it is "the most beautiful country in the world", while others mentioned having heard stories of its beauty from friends who had visited. 36 per cent of those that would have opted for South Africa had heard extremely good things about the country as a tourist destination. New Zealand was chosen by 25 per cent of respondents, for very similar reasons to those mentioned in favour of SA, mostly linked to the nature and physical beauty, while Brazil's appeal

seemed to be more linked to the people and the culture rather than the landscape. Interestingly, only 11 per cent of the respondents chose Australia as a destination, while even less (4 per cent) opted for Croatia, the explanation simply being that if the holiday was free they would choose to head out of Europe.

One respondent, a female student who boasted to having visited every continent except Africa, mentioned that she would choose South Africa as she sees it as a "good starting point" to explore the continent as a whole.

South Africa's desirability was far more conclusive when respondents were asked to state which of the listed countries (China, Brazil, South Africa, Canada, Malaysia and India) they would choose to spend a semester abroad, provided the university fees and living costs were much the same. In this sense, South Africa towered over the competition, 60 per cent of the respondents choosing the country, far ahead of Canada (20 per cent) and Brazil (17 per cent). This could partly be explained by the fact that there is a strong connection between the University of Amsterdam and the University of Cape Town and the University of Stellenbosch, meaning that many students have taken the gap year in South Africa and encouraged others to follow suit by recounting their experiences in the country. Several respondents cited the high standard of universities in SA, all of which they believe to be well-equipped in terms of facilities, academic and extra-mural. One respondent spoke of how the atmosphere in South Africa seemed very "international", with a good campus environment and many diverse courses offered. Two respondents also spoke of the benefit of not having to handle a language barrier due to the ease with which they could understand Afrikaans and English.

(Table 2) If the university fees and living costs were similar, where would you choose to spend a semester abroad

Many respondents also spoke of the fact that South Africa is the perfect place to visit as a student as it is both luxurious and challenging. In this sense, several added, India would be very interesting and challenging but would not offer the same leisurely tourist environment which South Africa provides. By process of elimination, several others spoke of how Canada would be "too much like Europe", while they would not trust Brazilian universities and would be too daunted by the prospect of spending a semester in China, something only one respondent found appealing.

The important links which exist between tourism and branding have already been outlined in chapter 1, with emphasis being placed on the importance of slogans or catch phrases to market a country successfully. In order to assess the success of South Africa's logos I placed a select few on a flip chart along with several product logos and brands[23]. The 'South Africa: Alive With Possibility' header was included, along with the SA Tourism logo, with the successful 'Espana' logo, New Zealand's Silver Fern and Croatia's 'Hrvatska' included for comparison. Unsurprisingly, 79 per cent of the respondents were familiar with Spain's tourism symbol, while only 11 per cent recognised the 'Alive With Possibility' slogan and 25 per cent the SA Tourism logo,

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[23] This flip chart was designed to represent many of important brands from South Africa and other developing countries, which formed the basis for the discussion later in this chapter regarding the links between products and their country-of-origin.

despite the fact that there was a tram on one of Amsterdam's central routes which had been decked out in the advertisements for over a year.

One of the respondents, an outspoken Accounting student who was the Chairman of the International Student Network at the University of Amsterdam, spoke passionately of how ineffectual he found both of the South African slogans. According to this respondent, the 'Alive with Possibility' phrase was both uninspiring and unoriginal and would not make him want to visit, least of all invest in, South Africa. His suggestion was that the IMC adopt an Afrikaans slogan for The Netherlands in order to create connection with the Dutch people and thereby increase their interest in the country's development. Using the Spanish example, he spoke of how the Espana logo epitomised the experience one hopes for in the country and is effective in evoking the spirit of the country.

When respondents were asked where they would go if they could only visit five cities for the rest of their lives, Cape Town ranked third, surrounded by a top five which included New York, Rio de Janeiro, Amsterdam and Rome. The reasons given for choosing Cape Town, which 32 per cent of the respondents did, were emphatic, with one calling the city the "most beautiful in the world." Another, a female student who had spent time in Cape Town while her father was working as an ambassador for the Dutch government, noted how the city epitomised the ultimate tourist destination in terms of factors such as beauty, culture and economy.

The generally positive tourism image which respondents had displayed was balanced when asked they were asked what if anything would be their reservations when considering travelling to South Africa. 50 per cent indicated that crime and safety would be their biggest reservation, with a further 14 per cent speaking of violence and aggression being the major deterrents. All of these respondents admitted that they would not travel alone due to their concerns. The explanations for such reservations were wide-ranging, with one respondent saying that she had heard stories of foreigners being raped in South Africa, adding that her mother's friend had needed a bodyguard on her most recent trip to Johannesburg. Many of the respondents expressed an appreciation of the
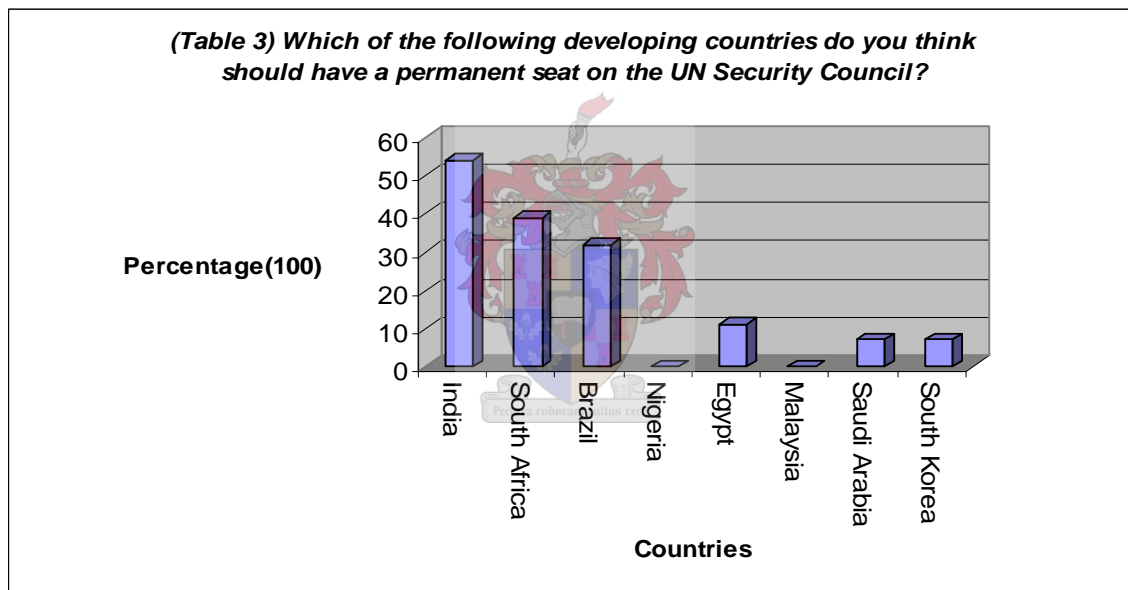
fact that crime in South Africa is mostly located in the big cities and a simple process of researching where not to go would ease their concerns considerably. Other respondents regurgitated stories related to them of the high murder and theft rate in South Africa, although none of them were able to cite an example from a personal friend or acquaintance that had visited the country and been affected by crime. One respondent admitted that, while she would be cautious in South Africa, she is aware of the fact that the type of crime the country is known for can happen in any major city in the world. Two respondents felt that being white would increase the chance of them being targeted by criminals in South Africa, although neither believed the fear to be sufficient to deter them from visiting the country.

This relates perhaps to the results recorded from the question where respondents were asked what the greatest problems are facing the South African government. As will be discussed later, the majority mentioned Apartheid-related issues, with poverty and HIV close behind. 29 per cent mentioned that criminality and violence are amongst the biggest challenges for the ANC, which indicated that, while the problem is most certainly acknowledged, it is not regarded as being as all-encompassing as many within South Africa may presume. While general safety concerns dominated the responses for this question, one respondent interestingly noted how he would feel uncomfortable travelling in South Africa for holiday purposes as he would be surrounded by poverty for the first time and would, he thought, feel guilty for living in the "lap of luxury" while others live such modest lives. The remaining respondents, 36 per cent of the total, stated confidently that they would have no reservations when considering travelling to South Africa. Of this number, 90 per cent were male.

3.2.1 *Political and Economic Power*:

Another indication of the juxtaposition of positive and negative associations regarding South Africa is in its regional and international political and economic influence.

In an attempt to assess South Africa's status in this regard, respondents were asked to mention which of the listed developing countries[24] they thought should have a seat on the United Nations Security Council. Due to the fact that several of the respondents were neither involved nor particularly interested in international affairs, I had to explain the function and the make-up of the Security Council in order to ensure that their responses were valid. I allowed respondents to mention as many of the eight listed countries as they saw fit, a liberty which two took to say that all should be allowed a seat due to the need for greater representation in the UN. Two others did not believe that any of the countries listed deserved such a high position of power, due to the fact that the Security Council is "war-based" and needs to be dissolved rather than reformed.

(Table 3) Which of the following developing countries do you think should have a permanent seat on the UN Security Council?

Nevertheless, of the eight countries listed, 54 per cent believed that India should be provided with a seat, while a further 39 per cent saw South Africa as a worthy member and 32 per cent opted for Brazil. The explanations given for choosing these three countries were notably similar, the most common link being the appreciation for the need for a "regional superpower" in Asia, Latin America and Africa respectively, which, due
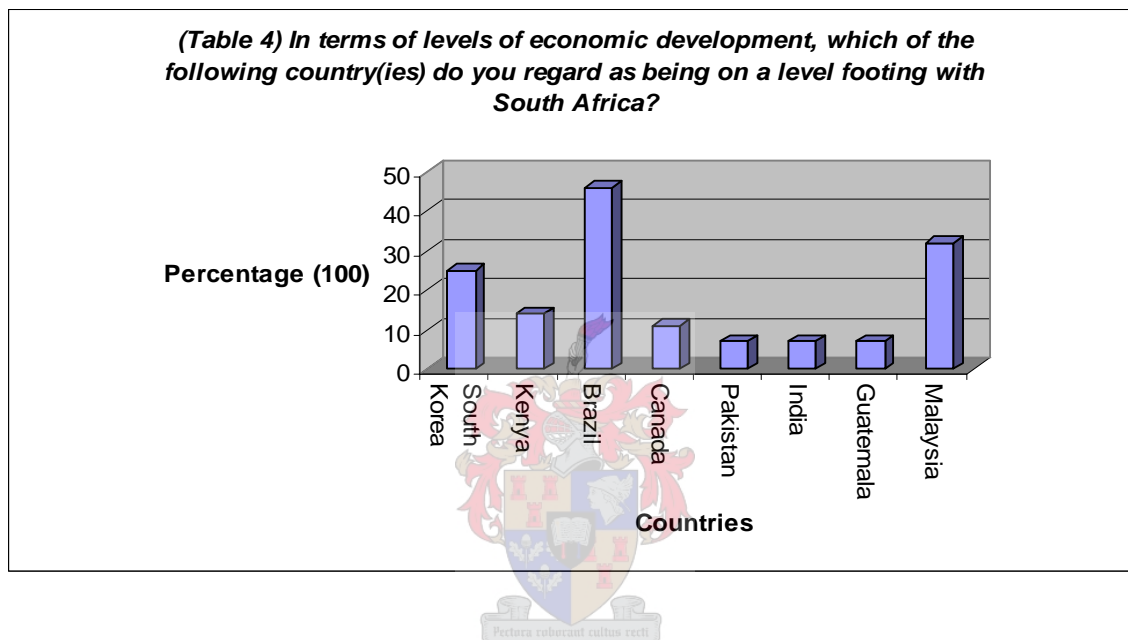
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[24] In addition to South Africa the following countries were listed: India, Brazil, Nigeria, Malaysia, Egypt, South Korea (although now a member of the OECD) and Saudi Arabia, all of which are strong and relatively influential developing states.

to the size of the population of all three countries, affords them the right to justifiably represent the needs of the region in question. India was described by several of its advocates as a "continent on its own" due to its size and strength and its incumbent ability to represent the sub-continent as a regional superpower.

One respondent spoke of South Africa's established diplomatic power in explaining his choice, saying that the country already has a strong negotiating framework which has been used by both Mandela and former Archbishop Tutu on global and domestic scale. Another respondent lauded South Africa as "the most stable country in Africa", which she emphasised the importance by explaining the example it is able to set for its neighbouring states. Using the same analogy, albeit to oppose South Africa's bid for a Security Council position, one respondent referred to the country as "an island in Africa", meaning that it had become too isolated from its continental neighbours in order to accurately represent their prime concerns. Most of the respondents chose South Africa after acknowledging the need for African representation at the highest level of the UN, something which the respondents felt Nigeria, which only received the two blanket votes mentioned above, and Egypt, which only received three votes, were ill-equipped to do. In addition to this, South Africa was mentioned along with Brazil by 80 per cent of those who acknowledged the power of the latter country, which indicates an appreciation of their joint roles in their respective continents.

In another question respondents were asked which of the listed countries they would regard as being on a level footing economically with South Africa. The most often cited example was Brazil, which 46 per cent believed to be similar in scale and global significance to South Africa, with several respondents mentioning the clash of wealth and poverty, as epitomised by the townships flanking modern developments, in big cities such as Cape Town and Rio de Janeiro as being indicative of their economic similarities. 32 per cent of the respondents felt that Malaysia was the most similar to South Africa, due primarily to its status as a middle-income country with rich resources and a developing market. While most of the respondents, for lack of immediate knowledge, relied on impression to answer this particular question, 14 per cent likened South Africa to Kenya,

half of whom did so after visiting Nairobi and believing South Africa to be much the same in scale and wealth. Interestingly, 25 per cent believed South Korea was the most obvious match to South Africa, although once again this was more based on impression than any real knowledge of the economic situation in either country. 11 per cent believed that Guatemala and South Africa were similar, although this was balanced by the fact that the same amount cited Canada as the nearest competitor on the list.

(Table 4) In terms of levels of economic development, which of the following country(ies) do you regard as being on a level footing with South Africa?

Throughout the open-ended discussion which accompanied this question it was evident that a majority of the respondents were aware of Canada's economic superiority to South Africa and India's far greater size and developmental capacity. One respondent summed up the confusion which several others quite obviously felt by saying that South Africa is, in his mind, neither first world nor third world, but is located in the middle. "If there were such a thing as a second world", he stated, "South Africa would be defined in this way." Another respondent echoed his peers by saying that South Africa is not a rich country but is also not regarded as being as poor as Guatemala and Kenya, for example. A female respondent who had travelled extensively in South America mentioned that she regarded South Africa as being wealthier than Brazil and Malaysia and, while close to South Korea, she added that she felt it was "moving towards Canada" in terms of economic

development. Once again there was no consensus on where South Africa was located in the minds of the respondents, even when offered a scale of competing nations.

Several of my questions in which respondents were asked to scale statements from Agree Strongly to Disagree Strongly were aimed at assessing how South Africa's real power was perceived.

The statement *South Africa is too Western and liberal to be considered an African state* was generally greeted with disagreement. In this sense, 61 per cent disagreed with the statement, 21 per cent of whom disagreed strongly with only 18 per cent agreeing. One respondent found the statement to be controversial in the sense that it was based on an implicit presumption that African states aspire to be Western, which he disagreed with. Therefore, while most respondents felt that South Africa was developed, perhaps more than most of the sub-continent, it is still perceived as an African country in terms of its identity and status.

(Table 5) South Africa is too Western and liberal to be considered an African country
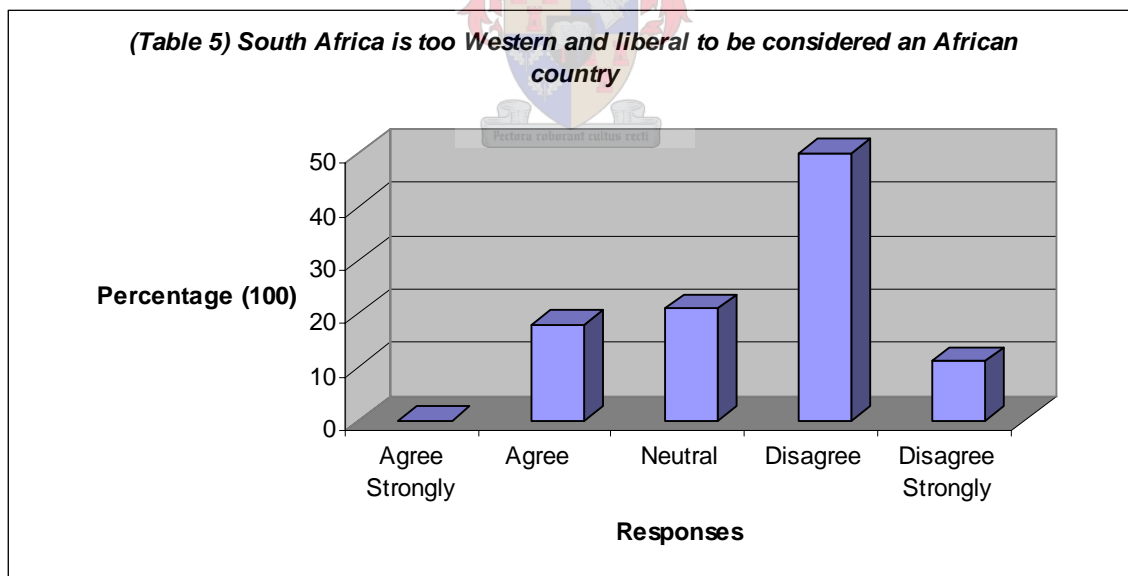
61 per cent disagreed with the following statement: *South Africa is likely to succumb to the same developmental problems as Zimbabwe*, with the remaining 39 per cent neutral due to not being aware of the current situation in President Robert Mugabe's country.

One respondent explained his answer by saying that South Africa's constitution is too strong and would not allow the type of abuses which are occurring in Zimbabwe, while another reiterated his belief in South Africa's status as a second world country, while Zimbabwe was, as far as he was concerned, the epitome of a third world state.

Furthermore, 57 per cent agreed with the statement *The South African government faces severe problems of corruption*, which was relevant given the fact that so few had ever heard of former Deputy President Zuma or acknowledged having heard about his recent corruption trial. In this sense, the informal responses to a later question in which respondents were asked to respond to the statement *South Africa was recently polled by Transparency International as the most corrupt country in Africa* were interesting, as respondents generally disagreed that South Africa was the *most* corrupt country in Africa, but seemed to associate domestic politics with the stereotypical scepticism associated with African politics which is held throughout the Western world. One particular respondent admitted that he was prejudiced in the way he perceived African politics as being primarily "family centred", which increased the chance of corruption, something which he had also witnessed while living in Trinidad during his childhood.

Despite the negative associations listed above, 82 per cent agreed with the following statement: *As the most powerful economic market in Africa, South Africa offers major benefits to foreign investors*, with the remaining 18 per cent neutral. One respondent praised South Africa's "booming economy" in this regard and emphasised how returns on investment would certainly be significant in such an environment. Another respondent, an Economics student at master's level, explained that South Africa is a perfect "starting point" for corporations interested in expanding into Africa, which would in turn serve to integrate Africa into the global economy.

Another example of South Africa's perceived regional prestige is the response to the statement *South Africa has the ability to reverse the world's negative perceptions about Africa,* which 80 per cent of the respondents agreed with, while 10 per cent disagreed and 10 per cent remained neutral. One respondent emphasised her opinion that South Africa

is "very different to the rest of Africa" and would have to "represent itself as an African nation culturally and politically" in order to alter people's perceptions of the continent.

Therefore, it seems South Africa's positive/negative association is very intimately linked with its status as an African country. This is undoubtedly in line with ANC policy, as is evidenced by its 2010 slogan "Africa's time has come" and president Mbeki's evocation of the need for South Africa to lead the 'African Renaissance', the spirit of which was explained in his famous "I am an African" speech to parliament in 1997. Mbeki's Pan Africanism is also relevant in his foreign policy initiatives, the most recent of which is his move to have South Africa awarded temporary seat on the United Nations Security Council and his stance on states such as Zimbabwe. The strategy of aligning closely with Africa has its very definite disadvantages, most of which are linked to the overwhelmingly negative image the continent has in the eyes of the international public.

Consistent with the general belief that South Africa is not a very tolerant country racially and religiously, was the assertion by the majority of the respondents that gay marriage is not legal in the country. In this sense, 89 per cent disagreed (39 per cent of whom disagreed strongly) to the statement that *Gay marriage is legal in South Africa.* 89 per cent disagreed. The main reason for this was that most respondents felt that if this were indeed the case and gay marriage had been legalised then it would have been broadcast as widely as it has been in Spain and The Netherlands. Others believed that gay marriage was only legal in The Netherlands and therefore thought it impossible that South Africa had followed suit. Two respondents, one of whom had recently completed an essay on HIV in South Africa, refused to believe that the statement could be true due to South Africa's conservative attitude towards religion and the Aids pandemic. Another emphasised once again the residual effect of Apartheid on creating a society based on segregation and intolerance which, despite the fact that he acknowledged the changes which have occurred over the past decade in the country, would render legal gay marriage highly unlikely.

(Table 6) Gay Mariage is legal in South Africa

Percentage (100)

Responses
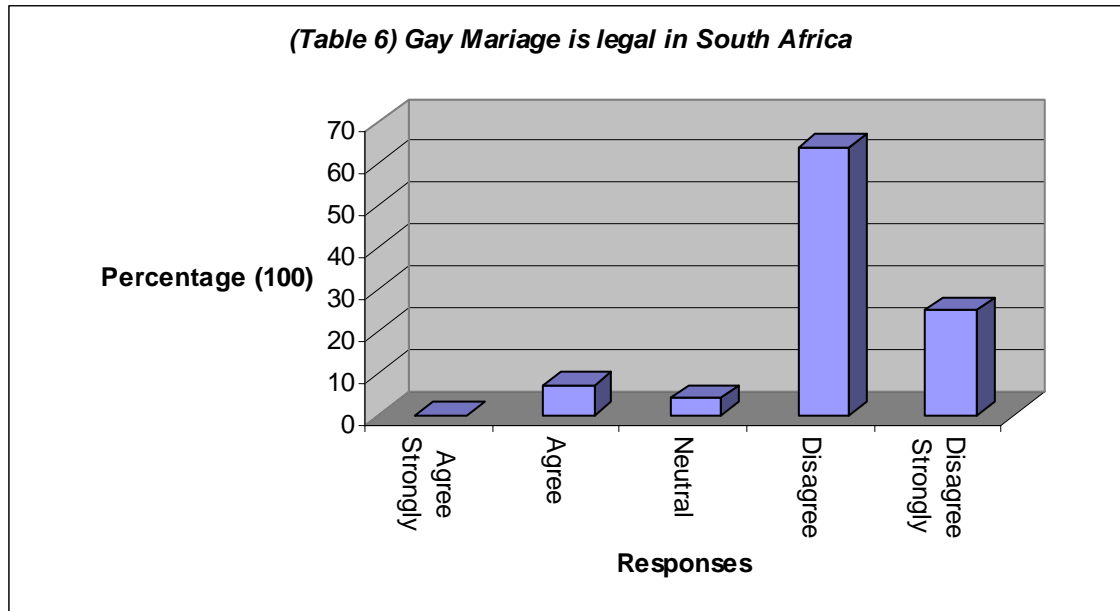
A close inspection of the dynamics of the specific interviews disproves the assumption that that the juxtaposition of values described above could quite simply be explained by certain respondents being overwhelmingly positive in contrast to others, who dwelt on the negative. No single respondent could be said to have held consistently positive or negative associations about South Africa. For example, 80 per cent of those respondents that associated South Africa with the word Poverty also listed Wealth, with 68 per cent listing Growth as well. In addition to this, of the 79 per cent of respondents that listed Diversity as one of South Africa's prime attributes, 72 per cent also listed Racism. The list of ambiguity is endless, which seems to suggest that the respondents were not positive *or* negative but rather positive *and* negative at the same time, a crucial difference in terms of South Africa's international image.

Trend 2: Lingering association with Apartheid

Another trend confirming the ambiguity of South Africa's image in the minds of the respondents was the fact that they seemed to still link South Africa strongly with its Apartheid past, both in terms of the greatest challenges facing the country in the contemporary era and, perhaps more importantly, the cultural image which exists in their

minds of the New South Africa. While this may seem inevitable and perhaps obvious to some, the examples, when compared to certain other findings, yielded some interesting results.

The response to the first question, in which respondents were asked to mention the first two words that come to mind when they thought about South Africa, was fairly unanimous, with 60 per cent of the respondents mentioning 'Apartheid' as one of the two words, 88 per cent of whom mentioned it as the first word. In addition to this, it is relevant to note that 51 per cent of the respondents in total mentioned Apartheid as the first word that came to mind. Furthermore, if one adds the three terms 'Soweto', Racial Clash' and 'History' with Apartheid as the terms were each mentioned once by various respondents, then the figures increase accordingly. In this sense, the word Apartheid and certain obviously linked attributes were mentioned by 68 per cent of the respondents. Despite the fact that the respondents were reassured that they should feel entirely free to say what did indeed come to mind without reservation, several of those mentioned above that impulsively said Apartheid as their first response went on to apologise for this. What this perhaps indicates is an appreciation of the fact that Apartheid is indeed officially over, but they have yet to mentally alter the association in their minds from this historical reality.
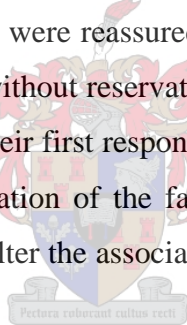
Respondents were asked to list the greatest problems they believe to be facing the current South African government. The question was open-ended and respondents were urged to mention as many things that they could think of, without limit. By far the most predominant category can be tied into the residual problems associated with Apartheid. Many of the respondents, in citing a problem such as income inequality and racial tension used the word "still" in order to emphasise the fact that the origin of their perceptions lies in the association of South Africa to Apartheid.

In this sense, 71 per cent of the respondents mentioned Apartheid related problems, with one, a female psychology student, noting that the "international stigma of Apartheid" will continue to plague the country for several decades to come. Another respondent, a male

international relations student, mentioned that while he knew the South African constitution enabled equality in the country, he was sure that the "old sentiments" still remained, adding that the "legacy of Apartheid still torments" the country and will not easily be overcome. Within the abovementioned category, 50 per cent of the respondents saw the government's major challenge as being to keep the country united, racially and economically, in the post-Apartheid era.

The fourth most cited problem was the abovementioned issue of income inequality, which was mentioned as a problem by 39 per cent of the respondents. There was an almost complete appreciation of the fact that the gaps which exist between the rich and the poor in South Africa are a result of oppressive Apartheid policies and therefore relate to the above category. A female Social Sciences student responded that the segregation was caused by the fact that the rich in the country, which she saw as being predominantly white, are refusing to "give in" to post-Apartheid change, adding that they are deliberately isolating themselves from the rest of the country. Therefore, if one considers income inequality alongside the residual social and economic problems brought about by Apartheid, it appears that this is, as far as the respondents were concerned, the most pressing challenge facing the ANC at the current stage of development. If one adds poverty, which was mentioned by 46 per cent of the respondents as a problem, HIV, 43 per cent, and Criminality/violence, 29 per cent, one reaches roughly the same level as Apartheid-related problems alone. Therefore, it appears that in the eyes of the respondents, historical problems dominate South Africa's contemporary challenges, as is evidenced by the table below.

*(Table 7) What are the greatest problems facing the South African government*
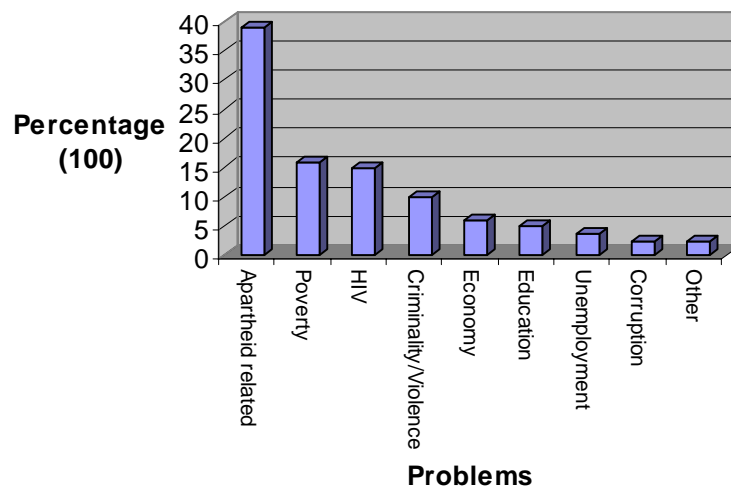
Interestingly, if one considers the 2003 FutureFact survey, these responses are inconsistent with the general ideas held within South Africa regarding the lingering effect of Apartheid on the fabric of social interaction[25]. In the same poll, the South African respondents unanimously highlighted HIV/Aids, crime and unemployment as the major concerns of ordinary South Africans across all racial and income divides as the country enters its second decade of freedom. Therefore, the impression which can be extracted from my interviews seems to be in direct contrast with that held by South Africans regarding the impact of Apartheid on contemporary life. While South Africa and its citizens may have moved beyond the stigma of the past, it appears that the international image it has carved out has yet to match this contemporary reality, a fact which has implications for the consistency and coherency of the country's branding strategy.

In another question, respondents were asked to list on a scale ranging from 'Agree Strongly' to 'Disagree Strongly' their impression to the following statement: *South Africa is a very tolerant society when it comes to racial and religious differences between its citizens*. The responses to this statement were even more conclusive in terms of indicating

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[25] In the FutureFact survey, in which 7,625 South Africans took part, 90% agreed with the following statement: *"It is no use blaming South Africa's problems on the past, we should all pull together and start working to solve the country's problems."* (IMC 1, 2004)

the level to which the respondents linked South Africa to its Apartheid past as no less than 64 per cent disagreed with this statement, 17 per cent of whom disagreed strongly. Due to these relatively unexpected results, respondents were urged to explain their statements.

(Table 8) South Africa is a very tolerant society when it comes to racial and religious differences between its citizens
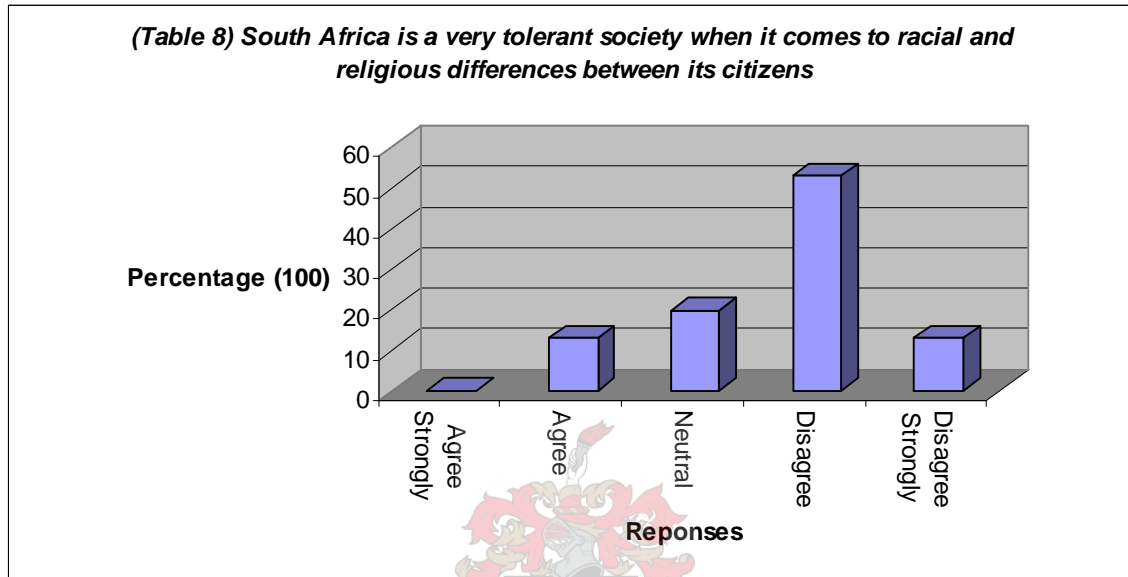
The most salient explanation came from a male respondent who stated that tolerance in post-Apartheid South Africa is "forced" by the government and is therefore neither genuine nor sustainable. Backing up his claims, another respondent explained that the problem with racial intolerance is exacerbated by the economic gaps which exist between racial groups in South Africa, meaning that Apartheid may be "officially over" but has not yet shed its negative consequences. In summary, several respondents said that they cannot think of South Africa as a racially tolerant country due to the most obvious and immediate association to Apartheid.

However, while the responses indicated in the above table were fairly unanimous, they were not entirely negative. While only 14 per cent of the respondents agreed that South Africa is a very tolerant country, several of those that disagreed indicated that they were aware of the effort being made by the ANC and the South African people in general to deal with racial tensions, but added that Apartheid had created divisions which would take far longer than a decade to eradicate. One such respondent acknowledged South

Africa's multiculturalism as a positive factor in the country, but one which makes racial equality harder to create. A female respondent who had travelled in Africa extensively, and had visited South Africa for a debating tournament in 2003, disagreed with the statement but added that she believes South Africans think more about racial issues and are "trying to be equal" by making a more concerted effort to ease tensions in the country than several European states. However, she was nevertheless sceptical to be emphatic in her appraisal as she saw the prevalence of townships in South Africa as a constant reminder of the divisions created by Apartheid.

Finally, in the last question I asked whether the respondents had any stereotypical image or impression of what an archetypal South African would look like or how he or she would behave. In order to explain this unusual question the stereotypes which exist in Western Europe based on physical characteristics and behavioural tendencies were emphasised. To further clarify this point several examples of were given, such as the belief that Dutch people are generally tall, the Swedish blond and blue-eyed, while the Germans are regarded to be punctual and efficient and the Spanish lazy, none of which are of course true but exist nonetheless in the subconscious prejudices of many in Europe and the world. While many respondents stated that South Africa is simply too diverse a country to have one set stereotype, several others confirmed certain images which clearly stem from a residual belief in the effect of Apartheid on the country. In this sense, most respondents who offered comments differentiated clearly between black and white South Africans. White South Africans were labelled physically as being big, "macho" farmers, mostly Afrikaans, while also being "European" in their countenance. In terms of behaviour, the respondents were generally very positive about white South Africans, with most believing them to be "open-minded", "very friendly", "laid-back" and "calm". However, 20 per cent of those who offered comments noted that they see white South Africans as being stereotypically racist, with one even suggesting that this mindset has led to an "arrogant" sense of pessimism in the white South African community.

In contrast, the stereotypical image of black South Africans was far more sympathetic and positive, although it must be noted that only two of the respondents had ever met a

black South African and the indications here are therefore fairly unquantifiable. Reinforcing the Apartheid stereotype was a male respondent who, after labelling a typical black South African as a "ghetto kid", went on to state that he thinks of white South Africans as being far less happy than their black countrymen, who he likened to African American gospel music in their lust for life and attitude towards their community. A 22-year-old female who had not travelled outside of the Netherlands nor met any South Africans in her life, stated that she believed black South Africans would look different due to having "experienced hardship", while white South Africans physically resemble Western Europeans, in addition to being "politically sensitive and aware" as well as "hard working and easily offended".

A female Psychology student whose mother was born and raised in South Africa, spoke of how there is no common ground between black and white South Africans in physical or behavioural characteristics. Throughout the interview this particular respondent constantly referred to her understanding of contemporary South Africa as being a land of contradiction, with white 'Europeans' dominating the access to and generation of wealth and black 'Africans' suffering modern forms of oppression and inequality. On a slightly more positive note, another respondent, who had spent the majority of his life living abroad due to the fact that his father is diplomat for the Dutch government, mentioned how his impression of South Africans as being particularly relaxed and calm was perhaps due to the fact that the realities of life in a country like South Africa, with crime, poverty and inequality lingering in the air in the post-Apartheid era, force upon its citizens an ability to handle crises which those in protected Western states would not have the capacity to handle effectively.

To expose the dynamics and possible root causes of the above findings, the answers given by the respondents which indicated a belief in the residual effect of Apartheid were compared with their knowledge of contemporary South African facts. The first comparison was between the question where respondents were asked to name the South African president, which was compared with the question asking the biggest problems facing the ANC. This was done in order to find whether there may be a link between

awareness and knowledge of South Africa's contemporary problems. It was therefore imperative to find out if those respondents that were indeed aware of the developments which have characterised the past 12 years in the country, still believed that Apartheid is South Africa's greatest challenge.

In this sense 43 per cent answered correctly when asked to name the President of South Africa, with 3 per cent guessing it was still Mandela and 54 per cent not knowing either way. Furthermore, of the 43 per cent that correctly named Mbeki as the president, 83 per cent mentioned Apartheid-related issues as the biggest problems facing the South African government, with the remaining 17 per cent concentrating on social issues such as HIV and poverty. While this may seem conclusive from the outset, it is relevant to note that of the 54 per cent who did not know who the president of South Africa is, 79 per cent listed the residual problems of Apartheid as the ANC's major challenges.

The same comparison with South Africa's biggest problems was then applied with the question in which respondents were asked to name the capital city of South Africa from a list including Pretoria, Johannesburg, Cape Town, Bloemfontein and Port Elizabeth. The results of this juxtaposition were similarly inconclusive, with 76 per cent of those who correctly chose Pretoria as the answer to the question mentioning Apartheid related issues as the biggest problem facing the ANC. Of the 46 per cent of the respondents who believed that Johannesburg is the capital of South Africa, 66 per cent listed historical problems associated with Apartheid as the ANC's greatest challenges, with 75 per cent of the remaining 29 per cent that guessed Cape Town to be the capital city stating the same.

Of the 11 questions asked regarding factual issues about the New South Africa, which ranged from the name of the president, to the estimated size of the population and the number of official languages, 36 per cent of the respondents were able to answer more than 50 per cent correctly. Taking 50 per cent as somewhat of a benchmark, the answers given by the respondents indicating an above average knowledge of South Africa in the two questions above (regarding the president and the capital city of the country) were considered. Of these respondents, 70 per cent mentioned Apartheid as one of the first two

words that came to mind when thinking about South Africa and 67 per cent mentioned Apartheid-related issues as those most pressing for the South African government, which once again reinforces the finding that knowledge, albeit fairly limited, of post-Apartheid South Africa does not appear to reduce the association with Apartheid. This attitude was summed up succinctly by one respondent, who incidentally scored the highest mark in terms of her knowledge of South African facts, who admitted that her impression of the country, especially after spending time in Johannesburg, is still heavily linked to Apartheid due to the simple fact that the end of the oppressive regime was "not too long ago."

The responses tabled above indicate another level of the ambiguity of the perceived image of South Africa in the minds of the respondents. This is most obvious in the balance between the historical association between South Africa and Apartheid and an awareness of the country's democratic development over the past 12 years. However, it appears to be the Apartheid stigma which still lingers predominantly over South Africa's overall reputation, meaning that contemporary reality has yet to comprehensively replace these negative associations held by the respondents.

3.4 Trend 3: The representation of South African culture

Culture, as has been emphasised in chapter one, is an essential aspect of national branding. However, due to its sensitive nature it is often not sufficiently flaunted for fear of affording a commercial value to a deeply significant aspect of a nation's historical and cultural composition. This view is being altered by the rise in nation branding as the representation of culture is becoming the means through which countries are able to promote their true essence and spirit and thereby leverage their unique advantages over the competition. Anholt (2002: 235) believes that culture plays an essential role in the process of "enriching a country's brand image, in driving the process from the initial shorthand of media communications towards a fuller and more durable understanding of the country and its values."
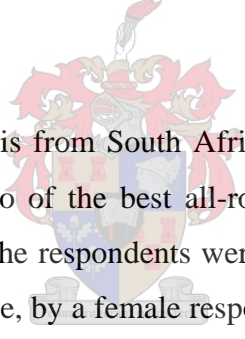
The challenge for a country such as South Africa, which has a rich cultural framework to underlie its marketing strategies, is two-fold. Firstly, it needs to be able to represent its troubled history in such a way that a sense of pride, dignity and strength is portrayed and, secondly, it needs to be innovative in the way it promotes its cultural diversity in light of the need to create a consolidated and consistent brand image. This consistency is difficult in a country as racially, ethnically, religiously and historically segregated and diverse as South Africa. Unless countries are able to create a powerful international cultural brand they will be forced to constantly re-establish their identity at great cost in order to ensure its "right to be noticed and remembered" (Anholt, 2002: 240) on a global scale. A cultural image should therefore link a country's past with its present and, in so doing, represent the rich fabric of social and institutional aspects of the society in question.

For South Africa, which has such a diverse and multicultural environment, the potential for successful marketing is indeed limitless if cultural factors are the basis for such a campaign, which can in turn spearhead the value multiplying effect of branding which has been acknowledged throughout this dissertation. Therefore, due to the abovementioned importance of culture, it was set about to assess how the respondents perceived South African culture from a wide range of angles and subjects. In this sense culture was broadly defined to include sport, religion, food and wine, film, music, literature, and the crucial role of ambassadors, political, cultural, commercial and humanitarian, in the representation of a nation's identity. While the results themselves vary in significance and relevance, a simple appreciation of the level to which South Africa's cultural identity is stamped on the fabric of international awareness is interesting to assess.
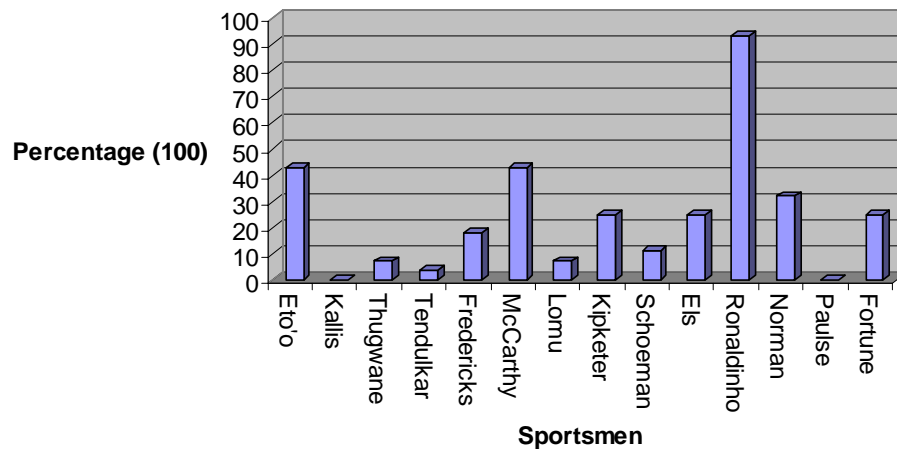
3.4.1 *Sport*

As part of a general question aimed at assessing the impact of South African cultural images, several sportsmen were listed with respondents being asked to indicate which of them they were familiar with and, if so, whether they knew the relevant country of origin. The list was a mixture of South African and international sportsmen of varying

disciplines and levels of fame. Scoring most highly was Brazil and FC Barcelona's iconic striker Ronaldinho, who has been widely regarded as the greatest footballer in the world for the past two years. An unprecedented 93 per cent of the respondents recognised Ronaldinho, with the same number knowing that he hails from Brazil. In terms of South African footballers, Bennie McCarthy's name was recognised by 43 per cent of the respondents, with 92 per cent of them being aware of his South African heritage. This is easily explained by McCarthy's dominance in the FC Porto Champions League winning team of 2003, a team which was coached by Chelsea's current manager Jose Mourinho. McCarthy was recognised by exactly the same percentage of respondents as Cameroon and FC Barcelona striker Samuel Eto'o, who received widespread fame and respect in Europe after winning the Champions League in 2006 with FC Barcelona. South African midfielder Quinton Fortune was recognised by 25 per cent of the respondents, due primarily to his position in British football club Manchester United's starting line-up for the past two years.

The listed cricketers, Jacques Kallis from South Africa and Sachin Tendulkar of India, both of whom are regarded as two of the best all-rounders in the world, were almost completely insignificant as far as the respondents were concerned, with Kallis not being recognised and Tendulkar only once, by a female respondent who had spent several years in India. Interestingly, especially given the fact that golf is not a major sport in The Netherlands, South African golfer Ernie Els was recognised by 25 per cent of the respondents, while former Australian golfer and former world number one Greg Norman was recognised by 32 per cent of the respondents, although only 11 per cent knew that he was Australian. In contrast, 56 per cent of those who recognised Els knew that he was South African.

(Table 9) Recognition of South African and international sportsmen

Percentage (100)

Sportsmen

Eto'o, Kallis, Thugwane, Tendulkar, Fredericks, McCarthy, Lomu, Kipketer, Schoeman, Els, Ronaldinho, Norman, Paulse, Fortune

Rugby players Jonah Lomu from New Zealand and Breyton Paulse from South Africa were largely unrecognised, with the former only being listed twice, while Paulse failed to be recognised at all. This is surprising given the fact that, as my results in question 22 indicate, 54 per cent of the respondents believe that rugby is South Africa's most popular sport, with 39 per cent opting for cricket from the given list and only 11 per cent listing soccer. This is in direct contrast to the knowledge of specific sportsmen highlighted above as the two South African soccer players were well recognised, while the rugby and cricket players were almost entirely insignificant. The trend in this regard can perhaps be answered by culture as the majority of the respondents, while knowing nothing about rugby, still believe South Africa to be a predominantly rugby-playing nation, a link which, as the final question regarding stereotypes indicates, is one heavily influenced by the residual image of Apartheid. Of course, it could simply be that South Africa is a formidable force in international rugby, while in soccer the country battled even to stamp its authority on the African league and failed to qualify for the 2006 World Cup.

In yet another deviation from any assessable pattern, the responses for another question, where the same 'Agree Strongly' to 'Disagree Strongly' scale was offered for the statement that *South Africa has the ability to host a successful 2010 Soccer World Cup*, were overwhelmingly positive. In this sense, 93 per cent of the respondents agreed with

the statement, 27 per cent of whom agreed strongly, while only 3.5 per cent remained neutral and 3.5 per cent disagreed.

(Table 10) South Africa has the ability to host a successful 2010 Soccer World Cup
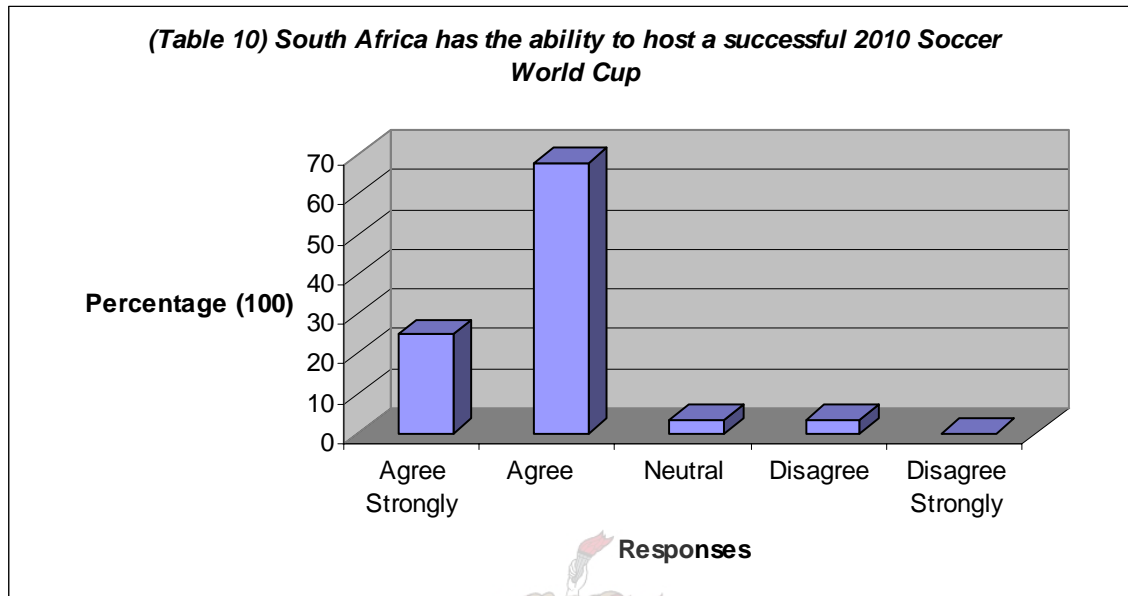
Surprisingly, given the fact that soccer is easily the most popular sport in The Netherlands, only one respondent mentioned that a major problem facing the South African government is preparing adequately for the World Cup in 2010. Either this indicates another affirmation of the trust displayed in the above table regarding South Africa's ability to host an event the size of the World Cup adequately, or else the respondents were aware of the greater long-term problems faced by the ANC in the New South Africa. Either way, 2010 confidence was surprisingly high.

Another indication of the impression of South Africa's sporting ability arose when respondents were asked the following question: *Given that Australia won 49 medals in total, India won 1 and Brazil won 10 at the Athens Summer Olympics in 2004, how many do you think South Africa won?* The correct answer for South Africa was 6, but the mean average once all of the estimates from the responses given had been added was 14.7, more than double the real figure. The average was significantly raised by the fact that two male respondents guessed that SA would be "about the same" as Australia at 49 medals, which once again indicates how the country is pitching an image significantly greater

than the reality. Only three respondents guessed less than 6, with most obviously regarding SA as a far superior sporting nation to India and marginally superior to Brazil, despite the significant population advantage the South American country has.

3.4.2 *Film and literature*

In order to assess the impact South African movies had made on the respondents, I asked them to mention which of the listed movies they had heard of or seen and, if so, whether they knew in which country the relevant film originated[26].

Of the South African films listed, the Oscar winning Gavin Hood directed drama 'Tsotsi' was most recognised, with 43 per cent of the respondents having heard of it, 75 per cent of whom knew it was South African. 'The Gods Must Be Crazy' was recognised by 32 per cent of the respondents, none of whom believed it to be South African. The South African big-screen opera 'U-Carmen e-Khayalitsha' was only recognised by one respondent, despite screening in cinemas throughout Amsterdam, while the 2005 Oscar-nominated HIV drama 'Yesterday' was not recognised by anyone. While the abovementioned awareness may be low, it is important to consider the fact that two Hollywood-produced films based on South African themes, the true-life TRC drama 'Red Dust' and 'Sarafina', were also not well recognised, with the former not being listed a single time. While in many ways inconclusive, this does indicate that it is perhaps not only the size and ability of South African movies to market themselves in relation to Hollywood that is the determining factor in assessing the industries expansion into the developed world.

However, in relation to the international movies listed, South African films were far less significant in my findings. The Dutch Palestinian film 'Paradise Now' was the most well-recognised with 86 per cent of respondents having heard of it or seen it, while the

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[26] The South African films listed were: Tsotsi, Cry The Beloved Country, U-Carmen e-Khayalitsha and Yesterday, as well as the South African themed Hollywood productions Sarafina and Red Dust. The international films listed were: Crouching Tiger, Hidden Dragon (China), The Sea Inside (Spain), City Of God (Brazil), Bride And Prejudice (India), Paradise Now (Palestine) and Hotel Rwanda (US).

Brazilian drama 'City Of God' was known by 72 per cent and Ang Lee's Chinese film 'Crouching Tiger, Hidden Dragon' recognised by 79 per cent of all respondents. Perhaps the most obvious factor to consider here, especially given the fact that all of the films listed were produced in or based on the developing world, is the fact that the most recognisable were all nominated for the Best Foreign Language Film Academy Award over the past five years. The recent victory of 'Tsotsi' is even more significant in this regard as it shows how powerful such accolades can be in broadcasting national culture to an eager international audience through film.

The awareness of South African and international films highlighted above confirms the strength of Hollywood as an agent through which national values can be broadcast to a global audience. As mentioned in chapter 2, Hollywood producers are in desperate need of new, inspiring themes and stories for films and the South African post Apartheid miracle is one waiting to be flaunted in this regard. As Anholt confirms, developing nations need to use the avenues of communication and information that exist rather than "reinventing the wheel" and embarking on costly attempts to carve out new means of communicating their contemporary identity.

Amongst some of the most powerful vectors of national culture are the state in question's *ambassadors* to the international community. These ambassadors include the sportsmen mentioned above, but include a wide range of personalities, from the political and diplomatic sphere, to music, literature, film, human rights and business. It is a simple process whereby the strength of a country's ambassadors is an integral factor in the marketing of its potential and expertise in any of the abovementioned fields. It is of course not sufficient for the international community to be aware of the ambassador, but they need to also know his or her country of origin.

Naturally, one of the most obvious cultural fields is *literature* as it encompasses the strength and ability of a nation's authors and poets to depict reality, facilitate change or convey hope to the outside world. In this sense, my list of authors was compiled with the intention of finding out whether South African authors are more widely recognised than

their African and developing world competitors in order to assess their ability to portray the country's cultural identity. Knowledge of the authors was generally fairly limited on the side of the respondents, with controversial author Salman Rushdie being recognised by 86 per cent of the respondents. However, only 29 per cent of these same respondents knew he was from India, with 25 per cent believing him to be Iranian and 21 per cent British. South African Nobel Prize winning author JM Coetzee was also well recognised, with 68 per cent of stating that they were familiar with his work, 42 per cent of whom knew his nationality. Interestingly, 14 per cent of the same group believed Coetzee to hail from The Netherlands, due primarily to the fact that his surname is typically Dutch. One respondent stated confidently that Coetzee is definitely Dutch, but the themes in his novels are primarily centred on South African issues. The only other author to be remotely well recognised was Nobel Prize winner V.S. Naipaul, who 32 per cent of the respondents claimed to be familiar with, although 67 per cent of the same respondents had no idea where he is from.

The other listed South African authors Zakes Mda, Alan Paton and Athol Fugard were fairly insignificant, with Paton and Fugard only being recognised once, and Mda not at all. Interestingly, African author Chinua Achebe, who is well-known in postcolonial discourse circles, was also only recognised once, while his contemporary, Nigerian author Ben Okri, was known by 14 per cent of the respondents.

As far as the statesmen were concerned, Nelson Mandela and Mahatma Ghandi were, quite unsurprisingly, recognised by 100 per cent of the respondents, all of whom knew Mandela was South African. Interestingly, while 82 per cent of the respondents knew that Ghandi was Indian, 14 per cent thought he came from South Africa due to their knowledge of his time in the country as a lawyer. In addition to this, South African former Archbishop Desmond Tutu was also widely known, with 71 per cent of the respondents recognising his name, although only 60 per cent of them knew he was South African. Linked to this is the fact that only 11 per cent answered correctly to question 15 when asked who the chairman of South Africa's Truth and Reconciliation Commission was. Most of the respondents had never heard of the TRC, with 29 per cent thinking that

it must have been chaired by Mandela, while 53 per cent had no idea, with the remaining 7 per cent believing it to have been former National Party leader FW De Klerk.

(Table 11) Recognition of South African and international celebrities

Percentage (100)

Celebrities
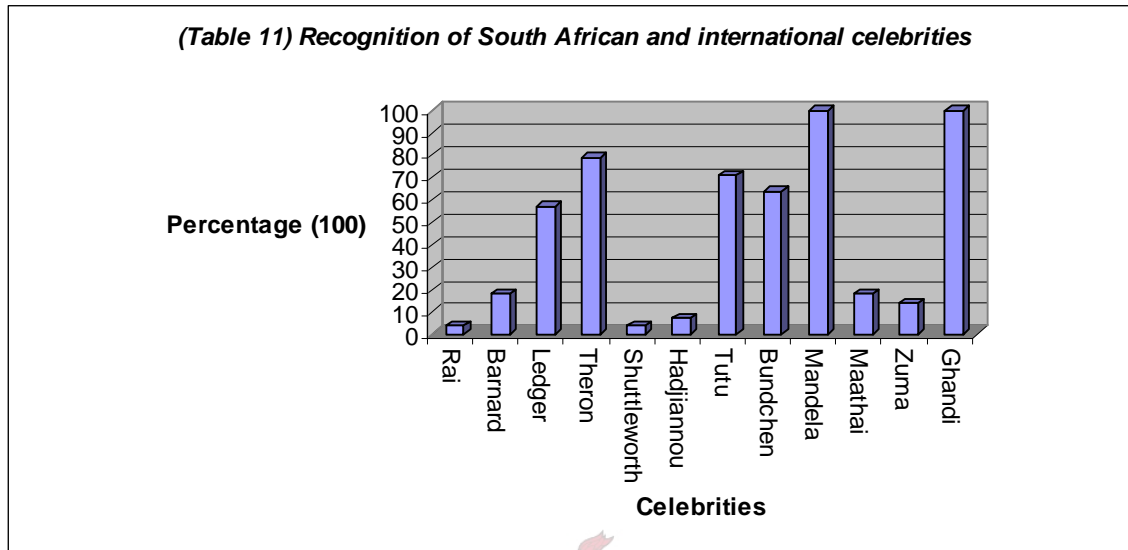
South African actress Charlize Theron, possibly one of the country's most domestically revered ambassadors since her Best Actress Oscar Award in 2003 for 'Monster', was recognised by 79 per cent of the respondents, 50 per cent of whom knew she was South African, with the rest either not knowing (23 per cent) or guessing she is American (27 per cent). Extremely interesting is the fact that India's most famous Bollywood actress Aishwarya Rai, a former Miss World beauty pageant winner, was only recognised by one of the respondents, the same female student who had spent time in India and recognised Sachin Tendulkar in the sports section. Once again this highlights the importance of Hollywood in relation to its competitors in promoting values to the Western world. In addition to this, it appears that the recognition of Theron as a South African is something which is expected rather than forcibly created raising the question as to the relevance of a so-called "brand ambassador" if the international community are unaware of his or her country-of-origin. Theron is a more powerful personal brand than she is a South African one which, while perfectly acceptable, is something which the domestic population are perhaps naively unaware of. Another example of this is supermodel Giselle Bundchen who was recognised by 64 per cent of the respondents but, due primarily to her surname, 50 per cent guessed that she hailed from Germany rather than her native Brazil.

Former South African Deputy President Jacob Zuma was only recognised by 14 per cent of the respondents, all of whom knew he is South African and had heard of him recently due to the rape trial. Only one respondent recognised South African entrepreneur and millionaire Mark Shuttleworth, which is not surprising given that only 2 recognised Greek tycoon and easyJet owner Stelios Hadjiannou.

(Table 12) Recognition of South African cultural indicators
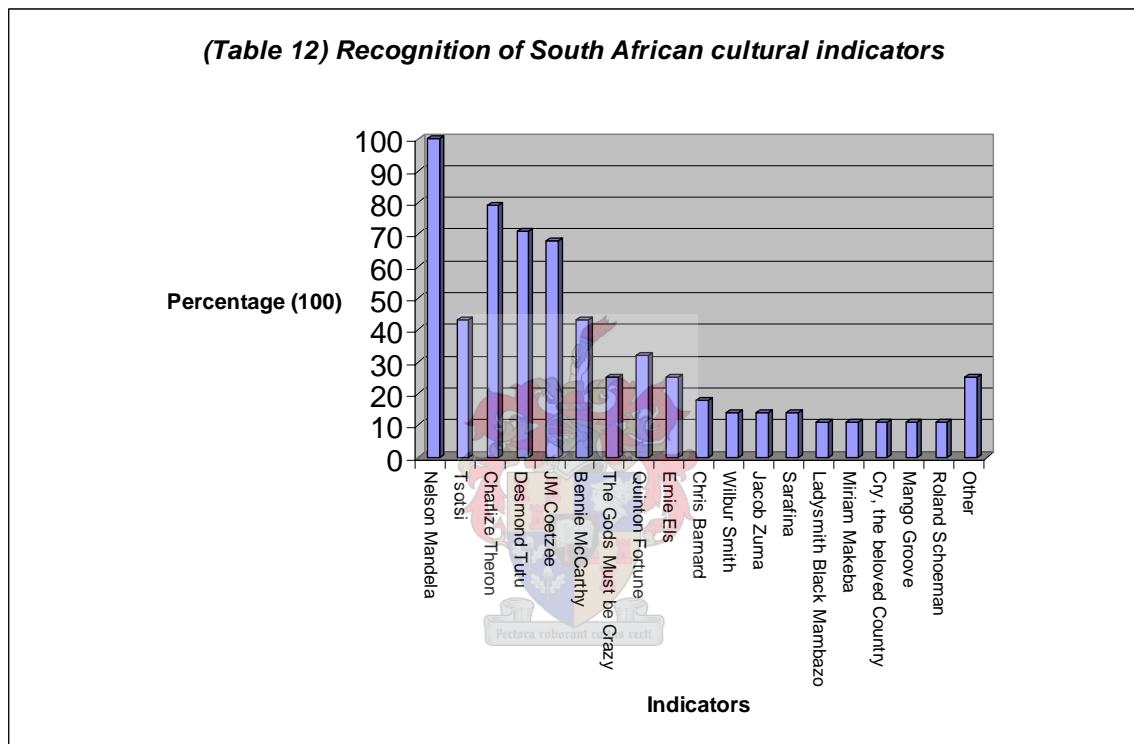
27

As the above chart clearly demonstrates, South African *music* had not imprinted its identity on the respondents. In fairness, of all of the bands and musicians listed, all of which hail from a developing country, the only outfit to be consistently recognised was Cuban ensemble Buena Vista Social Club, which was touring Amsterdam at the time of my interviews and was recognised by 89 per cent of the respondents, 68 per cent of whom knew they were Cuban. Senegalese singer Youssa N'Dour was well recognised as

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[27] In the above chart, the 'Other' category includes all of those indicators which were recognised by less than 2 respondents and therefore accounted for less than 1% of the total. These included: Mark Shuttleworth, Jacques Kallis, Josiah Thugwane, Breyton Paulse, Zakes Mda, Alan Paton, Athol Fugard, Hugh Masekela, Abdullah Ibrahim, Lucky Dube, Freshly Ground, Brenda Fassie, Vusi Mahlasela, and the film 'Yesterday'.

well (54 per cent), as well as Australian rock musician Nick Cave, whose name resonated with 72 per cent of the respondents. South African artists Brenda Fassie and Vusi Mahlasela were not recognised at all, while Miriam Makeba was by 11 per cent of the respondents, due mainly to the fact that she had a hit single during the 1980s in Europe. The fact that Mango Groove was more recognised (11 per cent) than Freshly Ground is interesting in relation to the previously discussed coverage South Africa received in the immediate post-Apartheid era as opposed to the past five years.

3.4.3 *Language*

Furthermore, one of the most important aspects of national culture is undoubtedly *language*. For a country with a single national language the relationship between language and identity is easier to obtain in the generation of a single, coherent international image. However, in a country such as South Africa, where there are 11 official languages, this balance becomes more intricate.

In order to assess what view the respondents had of South African language they were asked to name the most widely spoken mother tongue language in the country from a list which included English, Afrikaans, Xhosa, Sotho, Zulu and Venda.

(Table 13) What is the most widely spoken mother-tongue language in South Africa
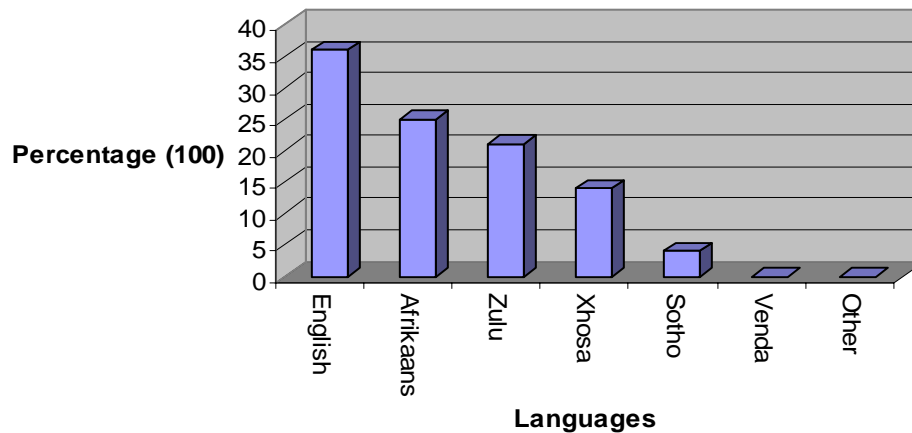
As the graph above indicates, according to 36 per cent of the respondents English is the most widely spoken mother tongue language in South Africa, with Afrikaans second (25 per cent), followed closely by Zulu (21 per cent). This is interesting in the sense that, while it is appreciated that South Africa is a diverse country, the respondents generally viewed the prevailing language culture as being either Western (English) or rooted in history, which the link between Afrikaans and Dutch, as well as the affiliation with the former and Apartheid would indicate. Two of the respondents were undecided on whether the most widely spoken language was English or Afrikaans, but remained adamant that it could not be any of the other alternatives.

Respondents were also asked how many official languages they thought South Africa had. From the options given (1, 3, 6, 11 and 24) there was no clear consensus, due primarily to the guessing involved. One respondent, a male IT student, guessed that SA would only have one official language in order to foster unity in the country in the post-Apartheid era, an interesting suggestion in light of the differing views on the conditions for multicultural harmony. 28 per cent of the respondents chose three, while 25 per cent chose six and 24 per cent chose 11, the correct answer.

In order to consider the appreciation of South African language, in particular Afrikaans, respondents were asked to state whether they knew who Jan Van Riebeeck was and what the historical and linguistic link is between South Africa and The Netherlands. While only 18 per cent of the respondents knew who van Riebeeck was, an overwhelming 90 per cent of them knew that there was a historical link between their country and South Africa, with the general explanation being that SA was at some stage a Dutch colony. One respondent emphasised the link between the Dutch and the Afrikaans people of South Africa by stating that the 'Boers' fighting against the British during the Boer War were in fact all descended from Dutch colonists. Upon pressing this particular respondent to find out whether she felt the Afrikaans link to Apartheid could also be attributed to the Dutch, she immediately withdrew, saying that by the time the Apartheid state was established the Dutch lineage had in many ways diminished.

100 per cent of the respondents had heard of the language of Afrikaans, all of whom knew it was an off-shoot of Dutch, with 61 per cent adding that they can understand it almost entirely, with the remaining 39 per cent only partly. The comments about Afrikaans ranged from admiration to condescension, with one female respondent saying she thought it sounds like "baby Dutch", another labelling it "Medieval" and "funny". However, several respondents spoke of the very expressive nature of Afrikaans, with several citing examples such as the Afrikaans word for elevator 'huisbakkie' and g-string 'amperbroekie'. Several others were surprised how similar Afrikaans is to Dutch, adding that it is easy to read but when spoken it is difficult to follow at times due to the use of outdated Dutch words.

Given this informal discussion as a preamble, the respondents were asked whether they would feel, or have felt, a bond with a South African Afrikaans speaking person based on the linguistic link with Dutch. 50 per cent of the respondents immediately confirmed that they would feel such a bond, 29 per cent of whom used the word "definitely" to emphasise their point. One respondent, a well-travelled male law student, explained his statement by saying that language is quite often "the only bond that exists" between people from all corners of the world. A further 21 per cent of the respondents said that they would feel a little bit of a bond with a native Afrikaans speaker, leaving only 29 per cent to say that they would feel no bond whatsoever. The potential of using this linguistic link has been mentioned in reference to the wine industry earlier in this chapter, the use of which could be influential in creating a personal link with the Dutch consumers from a commercial and a nationalistic perspective. Language it seems is the key to marketing South Africa in a country such as The Netherlands, which would be different in each state in Western Europe, further necessitating the need for specific, if merely cursory, empirical research into each targeted area, nation or region.

The results analysed above also hint at the need for South Africa to market itself as a multilingual state with a diverse culture, the focus of which can be altered depending on the country or continent in which South Africa is being marketed. If the IMC hopes to

penetrate the U.K it should emphasise different cultural and historical realities than should it attempt to recreate the country's identity in the US or India due to the different links which exist with each particular nation. The fact that South Africa is, for commercial purposes, an English-speaking nation can serve in its favour when accessing foreign cultures, but once entrance is assured the country's diversity should be flaunted to instil a sense of depth and exoticism to the employed strategy.

3.4.4 *Food and wine*

Continuing with the assessment of the perception of South Africa's cultural identity, respondents were asked whether anything came to mind when they thought of South African food. The results were fairly inconclusive, except for the fact that 25 per cent mentioned *Bobotie* as a traditional and typical South African dish. Interested by this, as it was the most often cited food type by some margin, each respondent was asked how it was that they were aware of the typical Cape Malay dish. The answer was that Albert Heijn, the most popular and commonly used supermarket chain in The Netherlands, had Bobotie in its 'World Foods' section, which added to its exotic appeal and encouraged consumers to read the packaging which described its origin. This is a perfect example of the way developing world culture's can be harnessed in order to pander to a consumer public in the West which is desperately seeking new and exciting alternatives to what they have become used to.

I was expecting many of the respondents to associate South African cuisine with general African food types, especially given the fact that North African restaurants, especially Eritrean and Ethiopian, are very prevalent throughout Amsterdam. However, only 10 per cent of the respondents did so, with one mentioning that they would expect South Africans to eat almost entirely with their hands. 14 per cent of the respondents, all of whom save one had visited South Africa, mentioned how South Africans typically cook on a 'Braai' and eat mostly meat, with one respondent adding that he sees South Africans eating "crazy exotic meat and game", which another described as being "bush food". Two respondents humorously, but seriously, stated that they believed roasted insects to

be typical South African food, while another vehemently used the word "disgusting" to describe the country's food before listing Bobotie and Potjie as traditional dishes.

The process of asking such a wide range of students what they envisage as typical South African food was also interesting due to the fact that, after admitting that nothing in particular came to mind, many respondents turned the same question on me, which I found difficult to answer. What is typically South African? Indian cuisine from Durban, Cape Malay, traditional Afrikaans 'braaivleis', potjies, bredies, mieliepap and wors? Or all of these cuisines combined? There seems to be no single food type of symbolic importance to all South Africans, such as bratwurst and sauerkraut is to Germans or pasta to Italians, which is relevant in light of the ambiguity of South Africa's cultural and brand identity.

In an attempt to assess the impact South African wine has had on the respondents, the following question was asked: *Presuming you are a wine drinker, from which of the following countries would you be most happy to take a bottle of wine to an important dinner party?* The options included Australia, France, Italy, South Africa and Spain and, for an initial cursory analysis, the table below indicates which were most attractive to the respondents.
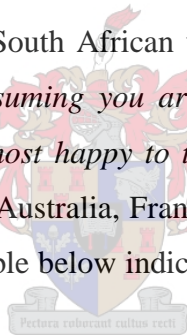
(Table 14) From which of the following countries would you be most happy to take a bottle of wine to an important dinner party?
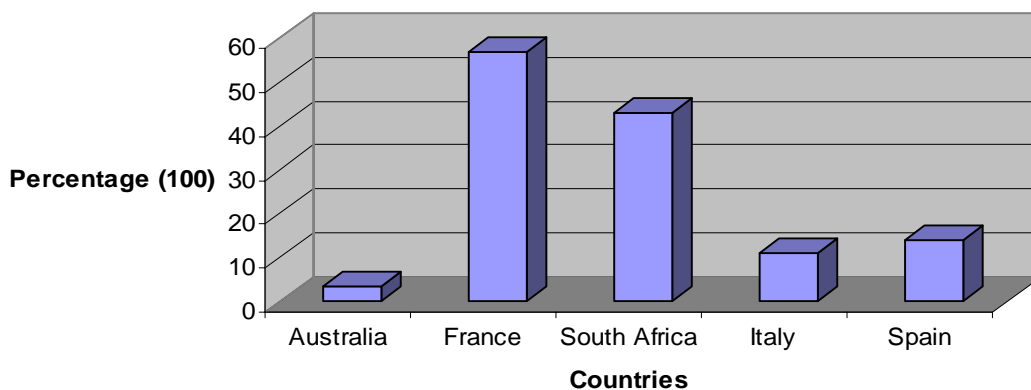
As the graph clearly illustrates, French wine was most favoured as it was the wine of choice for 57 per cent of respondents, while South African wine was close behind with 43 per cent. The reason for the overlap in the sense that the above percentages, when added up, comes to a greater number than 100 is due to the fact that 23 per cent of the respondents remained undecided on French or South African wine and therefore opted to list both simultaneously. The reasons given for choosing French over South African wine were mostly related to the almost unassailable reputation that the former has for its wine-making tradition. One respondent went as far as to say that French wine is "usually the best", while another called France "wine country". Most interestingly, a female respondent who had spent several years in France, explained that the Dutch know French wine more than they do South African for various reasons and stated that the high cost of French wine makes it more exclusive and prestigious than its cheaper competitors.

Herein lies the ultimate difference between the two as far as the respondents were concerned. From my own experience, and from the comments recorded in the interviews, it seems that South African wine has occupied a respectable status in the low-cost for good quality bracket in the Netherlands. Cheap wines such as 'Kaapsepracht' and 'Mooi Kaap' are retailed throughout Amsterdam, mostly at Albert Heijn, for less than €3 per bottle, while a bottle of French wine of the same quality would invariably cost no less than €6. In question 7 I offered a broad range of product labels to the respondents in order to assess which they had encountered and whether they knew what the country of origin was of the particular brand or item. No less than 87 per cent of the respondents recognised the Mooi Kaap label immediately, all of whom knew it to be a South African wine. The other slightly more expensive South African wines which I placed on the flip chart were Welmoed, which 37 per cent of the respondents recognised, Swartland (27 per cent) and Nederburg, which only one person was familiar with.

French wine therefore seems to be riding on its reputation, while several of the respondents spoke passionately of the merits of South African wine, with three unanimously claiming that they refuse to drink anything else. Of course, the fact that all of the respondents were students is relevant in the sense that their wine appreciation is

presumably fairly low and they seek the most affordable option on the market. South African wine, while cheap, seems to have respect for quality and exoticism, with one respondent explaining her preference for South African wine by saying it is a refreshingly "different and unique" product from what she is used to. Another female respondent mentioned that her mother always buys South African wine and went as far as to say that "most of the really good wine in The Netherlands is South African." Spain and Australia, both of which have cheap wines on the market in Amsterdam, featured almost insignificantly, especially given the fact that of the few times they were chosen, the respondents in question admitted to knowing absolutely nothing about wine.

Furthermore, when respondents were asked whether they would trust South African wine the answer was an unequivocal affirmation of the respect it holds, with 100 per cent replying that they would do so without question. Several of the respondents stated terms such as "obviously", "of course" and "definitely" when it came to trusting South African wine. Essentially, this means that South Africa was mentally associated with the positive attributes of wine as a high-end, sophisticated and quality product by the respondents, the benefits of which from a nation branding perspective are significant. In this sense, the fact that South African wine occupies such a strong position in the Dutch market could be exploited by the South African government, the IMC and tourist-related agencies in the country in order to enter into partnerships with wine exporters interested in entering or expanding their products in the Dutch market.

As has already been mentioned, several respondents mentioned the extra appeal of being able to understand the Afrikaans description of the South African wines listed on the label of the bottle. One respondent, who spoke adamantly of the potential marketing links between Dutch and Afrikaans from a language perspective, spoke of the possibility of launching a South African wine which makes use of the symbolic historical links which exist between the two countries. In this sense, the description of the wine could be linked to Jan Van Riebeeck's setting up of a refreshment colony in Cape Town and the resultant budding of commercial activity in the region. The status of wine as a product which denotes cultural sophistication should also be flaunted, with exporters using their status in

the Dutch market to leverage government assistance and subsidies in return for nation branding opportunities. For example, none of the wine labels mentioned above were members of the Proudly South African campaign which, if made use of, could well provide the public-private partnership possible within this type of commercial activity. In conclusion, there can be no doubt that the positive perception of South African wine expressed by the respondents is a "multiplier of value" for the country as a whole, providing further proof of Anholt's central thesis.

3.4.5 *Religion and tradition*

While very few questions related to religion or traditional belief structures in South Africa a few findings are relevant to consider in this regard. In particular, 16 per cent of respondents disagreed, 13 per cent of whom disagreed strongly with the statement *In South Africa it is still legal to have more than one wife*, with 29 per cent choosing to remain neutral and only 14 per cent agreeing. Of the 14 per cent that agreed, 50 per cent based their answer on their knowledge of the current King of Swaziland's polygamous ways as they were unsure whether his Kingdom was part of South Africa. Several of those believed that polygamy is practiced in SA, but disagreed that it would be legal, something which ties into their appreciation of the modern democratic state SA has become. Interestingly, two respondents spoke of the fact that Mandela has had three wives in their belief in the legality of polygamy in South Africa.

Specifically regarding religion, 89 per cent of respondents chose Christianity when asked what they believed to be the most dominant religion in South Africa. The remaining 11 per cent both thought that the category 'Other' would be most applicable as they saw South Africa religion as being primarily linked to practices of ancestral worship and tribal customs. In another question, the following statement was provided: *South Africa is a secular state where religion and politics are clearly separated*, to which 68 per cent agreed, 26 per cent of whom agreed strongly with only 11 per cent remaining neutral and 22 per cent disagreeing. While this indicates an appreciation of the separation between religion and politics in South Africa, certain comments from one particular respondent, a

male student who learnt about the country from one of his lecturers who was born in South Africa, were of particular interest. The student claimed that SA could not be secular due to its HIV policy, which he went on to explain by saying that he read a quote whereby President Mbeki allegedly referred to HIV as a punishment by God for the sins of man. According to this respondent, Mbeki's Christian views are largely to blame for the high HIV rates in South Africa, a simple fact which makes secularism impossible. This idea was backed up by another respondent who believed that the high HIV infection rate in South Africa is due to the religious condemnation of the use of condoms, which exacerbates the existent lack of education about the disease.

Therefore, apart from its religious identity, South African culture seemed to be ambiguously perceived by respondents, with no clear consensus on the nature of the image portrayed and the role of the country's diverse historical and racial make-up. Furthermore, the responses regarding South Africa's cultural indicators confirm the power of internationally accredited affirmations of excellence such as the Academy Awards, which undoubtedly boosted the prominence of 'Tsotsi' and Charlize Theron, and the Nobel Prize, which elevated the status of Nelson Mandela, Desmond Tutu, Nadine Gordimer and JM Coetzee, in the minds of the respondents. As a developing nation, South African accolades are simply unable to afford the same significance to its domestic cultural achievers. Fortunately, there are a myriad international agencies and opportunities for the strength of South Africa's cultural reality to be marketed to a willing audience in the developed world.

3.5 Trend 4: Product and country brands

As has been emphasised in chapter 1, Anholt's central assertion in his book *'Brand New Justice: The Upside of Global Branding'* is that successful country branding can be a "multiplier of value" to public and private enterprises in the developing world. While the theoretical and practical justifications for this claim have been covered in both preceding chapters, it is important to narrow the focus further and consider the success of real products in flaunting their country-of-origin provenance in international marketing

campaigns. In *Brand New Justice*, Anholt discusses several prominent success stories of how powerful brands emerging from the developing world have served to boost the reputation of their home countries. Setting out to analyse this relationship I gathered together some of the most prominent international brands mentioned by Anholt, such as Tata from India, Skoda of the Czech Republic and Acer computers of Taiwan, together with several South African brands and pasted their logos on the same flip chart explained above for my[28] respondents in order to assess which were most widely recognised and, if so, whether the country-of-origin of the particular brand or product was known.

In order to ensure that the results of the flip chart were relevant, only brands from the developing world were included as comparisons with Western products such as Coca-Cola and Mercedes as the comparison to South African commercial competitors would be futile due to the significant strength differentiations. As mentioned, the list was compiled from personal knowledge of the most prominent South African brands, as well as those specifically touted by Anholt as examples of the potential inherent in his hypothesis regarding the strength of country branding. Naturally globalisation has served to blur the country-of-origin of certain brands as different aspects of production may be completed in states with greater expertise or cost efficiency. For the purposes of this analysis, the country where the products originated was taken, without specific reference to where production may now primarily take place. The South African brands listed were: Sasol, MTN, Castle Lager, Nando's, Dimension Data, Outspan, South African Airways, Standard Bank, Investec, DTC (De Beers) and SAB/Miller, several of which were chosen due to their presence on the 2006 Forbes Top 500 list of global companies.

After analysing Anholt's arguments, the author expected brands such as those mentioned above to be the most easily recognisable, with country-of-origin being a link made to galvanise the positive associations of the product in the mind of the respondents. Quite surprisingly, however, the findings negated this link almost entirely.

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[28] The following international brands and products were included: Acer Computers (Taiwan), Tata Corporation (India), Skoda Auto (Czech Republic), Legend Computers (China), Red Stripe Beer (Jamaica), Minute Maid (Brazil), Giant Bicycles (Taiwan), Qantas Airways (Australia), Barclays Bank (U.K.), Proton cars (Malaysia), Kikkoman soy sauce (Japan), Cobra Beer (India) and Whirlpool.

The most recognised brands were Whirlpool, which 96 per cent of the respondents identified, Giant (90 per cent), Skoda (89 per cent), Minute Maid (89 per cent) and Acer (75 per cent). However, appreciation or knowledge of these products country-of-origins was remarkably low, and in many cases entirely non-existent. In this sense, Acer stands out as, of the 75 per cent of the respondents who recognised the company's logo; only one was able to guess that it originated from Asia, with the rest of the suggestions ranging from Switzerland to South Africa indicating an almost complete lack of association with the companies home country Taiwan. Brazilian fruit juice Minute Maid was in this sense also no exception as, of the 89 per cent of the respondents that recognised the label, 56 per cent of were adamant that it was American, with a further 16 per cent suggesting it was founded in the U.K. and 28 per cent remaining unknown. This is congruent with Anholt's vehement belief in the fact that, while Brazil itself is one of the most attractive brands in the world due to the immediate associations with all things festive, there is as yet not a single powerful product to emerge from the developing state and flaunt its country-of-origin to the extent that benefit is accrued on a public and private level.
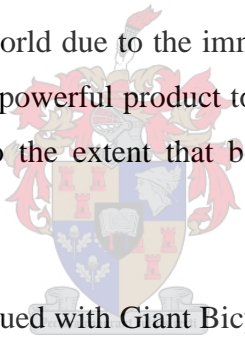
The trend highlighted above continued with Giant Bicycles which, after being recognised by 90 per cent of the respondents, was believed to be American by 44 per cent of the same group, with the rest of the offerings ranging from the UK (12 per cent), Korea, France, Japan, Germany and The Netherlands. Once again, Taiwan was not suggested. Whirlpool, the most comprehensively recognised brand of those listed with 96 per cent identifying the label, was deemed by 15 per cent the respondents to be German, while the rest offered the U.K (11 per cent) or USA (11 per cent), with the remaining 56 per cent remaining unknown. Not a single respondent guessed the correct country of origin of Giant and Whirlpool thereby nullifying any spill-over effect onto the reputation of Taiwan. Of the internationally recognised brands, Skoda was the only one to have registered its country-of-origin in the minds of the respondents. In this sense, of the 89 per cent who recognised the logo, 28 per cent correctly stated the Czech Republic as its home country, with several suggestions from Eastern European states such as Poland,

Croatia or Latvia filling a further 15 per cent. Interestingly, 28 per cent incorrectly guessed Scandinavia, with several others suggesting specific Northern European states such as Denmark, Sweden and Norway. It is difficult to ignore the relative success of Skoda's European marketing drive without considering the fact that it is owned by German automotive giant Volkswagen, which begs the question whether developing countries and their products have the means to forcefully infiltrate Western markets and stamp their unique identity on the minds of the consumer public.

Still referring to the international brands, the most striking surprise was the almost complete insignificance of Indian conglomeration Tata, which was only recognised by 7 per cent of the respondents, none of whom knew it was Indian. Anholt (2003: 77) lauds the success of Tata, which includes Asia's largest software exporter Tata Consultancy Services, in the way it has targeted European markets and has prioritised exports in its developmental strategy. However, with such meagre numbers recognising its name and primary symbol, one wonders how strong the link is between its rising profits and global expansion and the improvement of India's international reputation. Similarly, Malaysian car manufacturer Proton, which, despite being another of Anholt's success stories, was only recognised by 21 per cent of the respondents, half of whom admitted to guessing it was a car company due to the appearance of the logo. 14 per cent knew it hailed from Malaysia.

Moving on to the South African brands listed, the trend analysed above is less recognisable. The most recognisable product was Castle Lager, which 43 per cent of the respondents were familiar with, although only 17 per cent of the same respondents knew it as a South African beer, despite the fact that it is splashed all over the bottle and is a central part of all of its advertising campaigns. MTN was recognised by 18 per cent of the respondents, although 60 per cent of the same group only knew the mobile phone provider from their recent travels in Kenya and Tanzania. This was the same with Nando's and Standard Bank, which the same respondents recognised from East Africa and therefore believed them to be either Kenyan or Tanzanian of origin. The only other

respondent to recognise Nando's apart from those mentioned above had seen the restaurant chain in Australia and therefore presumed it to hail from there.

Sasol was only recognised by one respondent who had spent a semester in South Africa and knew the label from the Springbok rugby jerseys, while Investec and Dimension Data, both companies listed in 2006's Forbes top 500 companies worldwide, were not recognised at all. South African Airways, while self explanatory, was a familiar logo for 86 per cent of the respondents, considerably ahead of Australia's national airline Qantas, which 57 per cent recognised. Most of the respondents who recognised SAA claimed to have seen the logo in major publications such as Time and Newsweek, as well as having seen the planes themselves, or watching advertisement on CNN. Only one respondent was familiar with SAB/Miller and this only because he recognised Miller as an American beer.

(Table 15) Recognition of South African brands
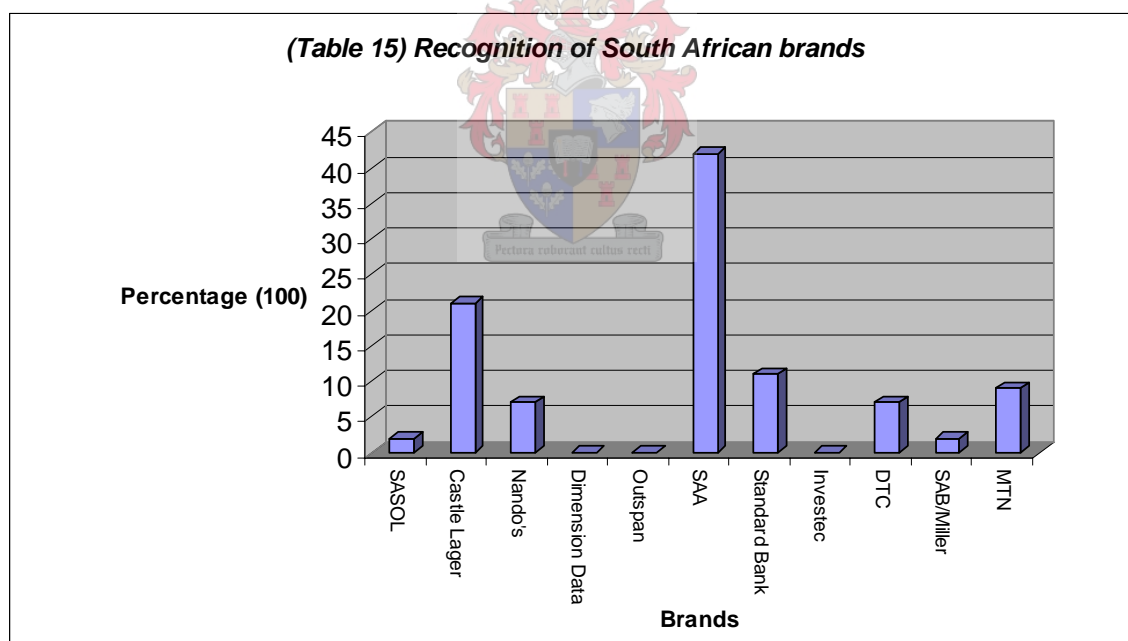
One of the most conclusive set of responses received was where respondents were asked to imagine a range of listed products and services were from South Africa and indicate whether, while knowing their origin, they would trust them enough to use personally. The purpose of this question was to assess whether there were any powerful barriers which

could theoretically prevent the success of any particular South African brands. The importance of this question lay in the potential for South African brands in any of the sectors mentioned to emphasise their country-of-origin without fear of any negative impact on their profit margins. Most interesting in this sense was the response for cars, which only one respondent would not have trusted to come from South Africa. When asked to explain their answers, 22 per cent of the respondents simply said "why not?" Others spoke of the fact that in the contemporary global system, cars and similar products can be assembled anywhere where there is average industrial capacity. Others lauded South Africa's stable economy and its ability to make use of "Western techniques".

The same answers came for fruit and vegetables, clothing and textiles and wine, all of which were unanimously trusted by the respondents, several of whom added that they already consume South African fruit and wear clothes from various developing countries. Interestingly, 14 per cent of the respondents expressed concern regarding South African gold and 23 per cent regarding South African diamonds due to fears of child labour practices and fuelling the so-called "blood trade," although many of them admitted that they were issuing a stereotype to South African mining which has been formed in their minds from stories of West African states such as Liberia and Sierra Leone. It seems the stereotype of Africa is, even when consciously noted, difficult to overcome. The most marked lack of trust registered in this question was for South African banking and insurance services, which 50 per cent of the respondents would not feel comfortable making use of. The explanations varied from calls of impracticality to mistrust of African banking in general, fears once again fuelled by a general stereotype which has been created by the much-publicised Nigerian scams over the past decade. 71 per cent of the respondents claimed to have no problem in trusting South African computer software, while 82 per cent had no reservations regarding technological equipment such as DVD players and VCRs from the country.

This is particular important for Brand South Africa in the sense that financial services are an extremely important aspect of the service sector to the country's GDP and could have an impact on the recognition of Investec and Dimension Data in the flip chart analysed

above. Should South African financial services be viewed with scepticism, it would be impossible to expect major domestic investment banks to emphasise their country-of-origin as it would lead them to be associated with similarly negative traits.

However, these findings need to be seen in the light of the fact that several of the respondents claimed to not pay attention to the country of origin of products in general. One respondent referred to the "Asian invasion", which he described as the massive influx of products from South East Asia and China into Europe, which has effectively altered the way consumers perceive and value the country-of-origin dynamic. Another respondent, a female student who spoke of the concern for free trade as her only requirement when purchasing low-level products such as clothing and processed food, mentioned that she had no negative "feeling" when it came to South African products in general, as opposed to Chinese and Indian products, which she remained sceptical of due to her belief in the presence of so-called "sweat shops" in the manufacturing process.

These findings, albeit limited, suggest that Anholt may have been too hasty in his promotion of the benefits to be accrued to developing states of successful commercial brands originating from within their shores as the respondents indicated very little knowledge or interest in the provenance of the biggest products listed above. From a South African perspective, Swart is perhaps correct in his analysis of the partnership between commercial brands and nation marketing strategies as he confirms how the country's biggest lead brands tend to have "commodity" perceptions (De Beers, Anglo American), meaning that "successful home-grown consumer brands still are largely rooted in South Africa." Promising exceptions for Swart are SAB Miller, Sasol and Sappi internationally, and in Africa MTN and Checkers but, he adds, "there is no South African brand or values thread which links any of these companies" (Swart, 2005). Once again the problematic ambiguity of Brand SA is brought to the fore. Without a consolidated South African identity, commercial brands have no consistent national basis upon which to build their international marketing campaigns and are therefore unable to make optimal use of the value multiplying effect.

Chapter 4: Conclusion

There can be little doubt that time is of the essence with regards to the creation of South Africa's consolidated brand identity. The urgency of the process is emphasised by the attention the country is set to receive with the upcoming Soccer World Cup in 2010 and the increased appeal the country's cultural identity is able to leverage on a global scale. Regarding the latter point, several examples highlighted in this thesis indicate that developing countries such as South Africa have a comparative strength in the presence of a unique and exotic cultural identity, which adds greater value to its products and enhances the creation of its international reputation due to a rising demand in the developed world for fresh alternatives to the traditional products, investment opportunities and tourist destinations which have dominated the market over the past half century. There could be no better time to enter into such a process, as has been explained by the growing importance of nation branding in light of the geopolitical shifts which have been driven in many ways by the rise in importance of commercial forces and the simultaneous emergence of soft power in the contemporary development of the international system.
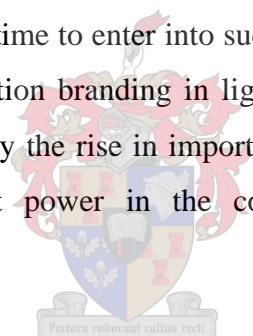
This thesis did not endeavour to assess the validity of Anholt's claims regarding the multiplier effects of successful nation branding. Yet, it appears the South African government already operates within the logic of Anholt's claims, given its many initiatives to market the country and the fact that nation branding is an articulated policy goal. However, while the South African government can be commended for proactively seeking to benefit from the creation of a positive domestic and international identity, the research included in this thesis has highlighted several of the most prominent challenges policy makers face in ensuring that the country is able to promote a consistent image on a global scale. Central to these concerns are the challenges highlighted in chapter three, which depicted South Africa's brand identity as being intensely fragmented and lacking essential consistency amongst the Dutch respondents interviewed. This formidable inconsistency and the incongruence with the image portrayed by the IMC and the South

African government exists on various levels. Firstly, the simultaneous juxtaposition of positive and negative associations to South Africa has prevented the emergence of a set idea on the country's development. Secondly, the lingering and inhibiting association with Apartheid continues to stifle the development of South Africa's contemporary brand identity. Thirdly, South Africa's rich cultural identity has significant strengths and unsustainable weaknesses. Amongst the respondents interviewed there seemed to be no consensus on what specifically South Africa's cultural identity consists of, a problem linked to the ambiguous concept of diversity. Finally, the break-down in the country-of-origin and product link expounded by Anholt in the South African sense hints at a lack of a strong national brand upon which commercial brands can drape their international marketing campaigns.

In addition to this, while the global optimism which South Africa has enjoyed in its post-Apartheid era has been leveraged to a certain extent in the country's brand strategies, its post-Apartheid image has been centred disproportionately on the reputation and global status of Mandela as an embodiment of the 'miracle' of transformation and reconciliation which the country claims to have achieved. As elaborated in chapter two, South Africa is suffering from the residual effect of the deliberate manipulation of its cultural identity by the Apartheid state throughout the latter half of the 20th century. However, the task is not an insurmountable one as the potential for successful branding strategies has been displayed by countries such as Spain, which arguably emerged from the Franco regime with a greater level of international scepticism than South Africa did from Apartheid in 1994. The channels of communication used by Spain and similarly pragmatic modern nation states exist, as is evidenced by the promotion of South African cultural ambassadors through international agencies of accreditation, such as Hollywood, the Olympic Games and the Nobel Prize Committees, the success of which regarding South Africa's brand promotion has been emphasised in chapter two.

This thesis has suggested that a crucial aspect of formulating this image and realising the salient challenges to its creation is the research into the perceptions held about South Africa in the international community- the 'target market' of the country's global brand

campaign. This process has undoubtedly been started by the South African government, which has made direct and concerted efforts to alter the negative stereotypes associated with the country from its Apartheid past. However, a more focused direction is required should the empirical research analysed in this thesis prove to be a valid indication of broader perceptions of South Africa's contemporary identity. Until such direction is found by the South African government and the partnership between public and private branding enterprises is mastered, the comprehensive image portrayed by South Africa to the international community will continue to be riddled with ambiguity.
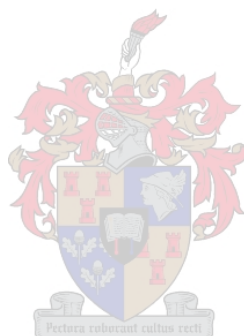
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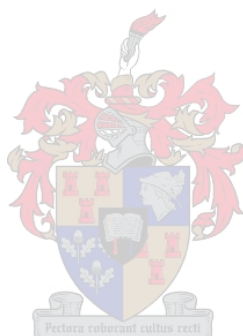http://www.allaboutbranding.com/index.lasso?article=344

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Appendix A

South African Branding Thesis Questionnaire

- Simon Freemantle -

Stellenbosch University South Africa

1. What are the first two words that come into your mind when you think about South Africa?

2. When you think of South African food, what, if anything, comes to mind?

3. Presuming you are a wine drinker, from which of the following countries would you be most happy to take a bottle of wine to an important dinner party?

- Australia, France, Italy, South Africa or Spain

4. Which of the following countries would you most like to win a week's summer holiday to?

- New Zealand, South Africa, Brazil, Croatia or Australia

5. If the university fees and living costs were similar, where would you choose to spend a semester abroad?

- China, Brazil, South Africa, Canada, Malaysia or India

6. What, in your opinion, are the biggest problems facing the South African government?

7. **Appendix A: (Flip Chart of Brands)**

8. Which of the following developing countries do you think should have a permanent seat on the UN Security Council?

India, South Africa, Brazil, Nigeria, Egypt, Malaysia, Saudi Arabia, South Korea.

9. In terms of levels of economic development, which of the following country(ies) do you regard as being on a level footing with South Africa?

South Korea, Kenya, Brazil, Canada, Pakistan, India, Guatemala, Malaysia.

10. **Appendix B: (Culture indicators)**

11. If you could only visit five cities in your life, which would they be?

12. What is the capital of South Africa?

Cape Town, Bloemfontein, Johannesburg, Pretoria, Port Elizabeth

13. Who is the current President of South Africa?

44. What political party does he lead?

15. Who was the leader of the South African Truth and Reconciliation Commission?

16. Given that Australia won 49 medals in total, India won 1 and Brazil won 10 at the Athens Summer Olympics in 2004, how many do you think South Africa won?

17. What would you estimate is the population of South Africa (in millions)?

18 What is the most widely-spoken (mother tongue) language in South Africa?

- English, Zulu, Afrikaans, Xhosa, Sotho, Venda, Other.

19. How many official languages does South Africa have?

- One, Three, Six, Eleven, Twenty-four

20. Given that a regular MacDonalds 'Bic Mac' meal costs around 5 Euro in Holland, how much, in Euro, would you estimate it costs in South Africa?

21. What is the most dominant religion in South Africa?

- Christianity, Islam, Hinduism, Judaism, Other

22. What is South Africa's most popular sport?

- Soccer, Rugby, Cricket, Athletics, Golf, Other

23. Do you know who Jan Van Riebeeck is?

24. Have you heard of the South African language of Afrikaans? If so, can you understand it?

AGREE/DISAGREE QUESTIONS:

25. South Africa is too Western and liberal to be considered an African country

Agree Strongly	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Disagree Strongly

26. South Africa is likely to succumb to the same developmental problems as Zimbabwe.

Agree Strongly	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Disagree Strongly

27. South Africa has the ability to host a successful 2010 Soccer World Cup.

Agree Strongly	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Disagree Strongly
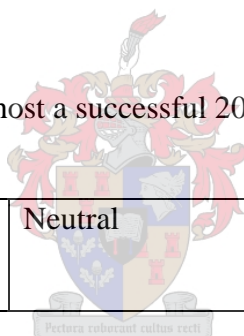
28. South Africa has one of the most liberal Constitutions in the world.

Agree Strongly	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Disagree Strongly

29. South Africa is a sectarian state where religion and politics are clearly separated.

Agree Strongly	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Disagree Strongly

30. South Africa has an independent media and freedom of expression is openly allowed.

Agree Strongly	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Disagree Strongly

31. As the most powerful economic market in Africa, South Africa offers major benefits to foreign investors.

Agree Strongly	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Disagree Strongly

32. The South African government faces severe problems of corruption.

Agree Strongly	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Disagree Strongly
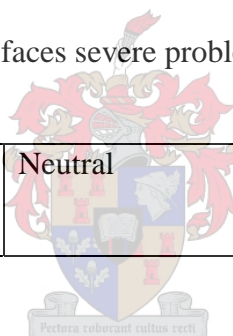
33. South Africa is a very tolerant society when it comes to racial and religious differences between its citizens.

Agree Strongly	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Disagree Strongly

34. In South Africa, companies are forced by law to abide by affirmative action legislation

Agree Strongly	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Disagree Strongly

35. In South Africa, women are disadvantaged in the workplace

Agree Strongly	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Disagree Strongly

34. South Africa has the ability to reverse the world's negative perceptions about Africa.

Agree Strongly	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Disagree Strongly

38. In South Africa it is still legal to have more than one wife.

Agree Strongly	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Disagree Strongly

39. South Africa is the world's largest producer of gold.

Agree Strongly	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Disagree Strongly

40. South Africa has the highest HIV rates in the world.

Agree Strongly	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Disagree Strongly

41. Gay marriage is legal in South Africa.

Agree Strongly	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Disagree Strongly

42. South Africa was recently named as a 'Champion of the Earth' by the United Nations Environment Programme.

Agree Strongly	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Disagree Strongly

43. South Africa was recently polled by Transparency International as the most corrupt country in Africa.

Agree Strongly	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Disagree Strongly
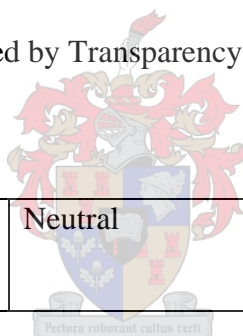
44. What would your reservations be when considering travelling to South Africa?

45. **Appendix 1.3: Country and values chart**

46. **Appendix 1.4: Trust in South African products**

47. Do you know any South Africans living in the Netherlands?

48. If so, has your opinion of South Africa been influenced by this person/these people?

49. Do you have an image in your mind of what a 'typical' South African would look like and how he or she would behave?

Appendix 1.1: Brand Flip Chart

Nando's
there's no saying no

ŠKODA AUTO

DIMENSION DATA

Minute Maid.

GIANT BICYCLES

OUTSPAN

SOUTH AFRICAN AIRWAYS

QANTAS

Standard Bank

BARCLAYS

Investec

PROTON

KIKKOMAN

COBRA®
PREMIUM BEER

Whirlpool

LEGEND™
computers.com

WYN VAN SUID-AFRIKA

MOOI KAAP

DROË STEEN

2004

HARDYS WINES

SWARTLAND WINERY

A True Gift of Nature

ROSEMOUNT ESTATE

THE PRESTIGE WINE OF AUSTRALIA

Welmoed

ANNO 1690

NEDERBURG

THE WINEMASTERS

Penfolds

RAWSON'S RETREAT

SHIRAZ CABERNET

TORRES

Viña Esmeralda

CÔTES DU **RHÔNE**

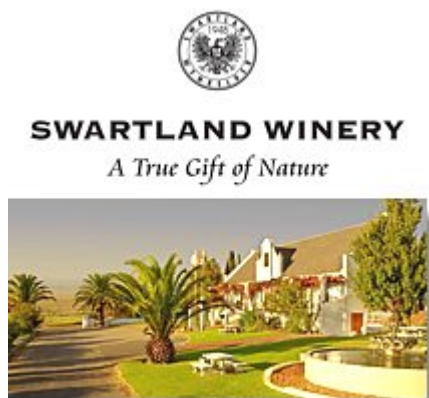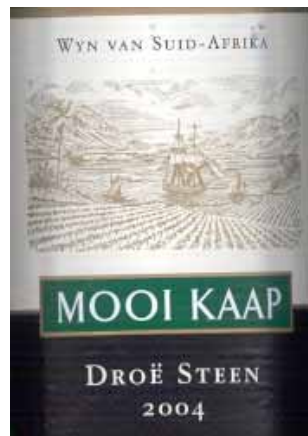## Appendix 1.2: Culture Indicators

*- Which of the following **movies** have you heard of?*

Movie	Heard of it? (Y or N)	Aware of Country of origin? (Y or N)
Cry, The Beloved Country		
Crouching Tiger, Hidden Dragon		
The Sea Inside'		
U-Carmen e-Khayalitsha		
The Gods Must Be Crazy		
City Of God'		
Bride And Prejudice		
Tsotsi		
Paradise Now		
Yesterday		
Sarafina		
Hotel Rwanda		
Red Dust		

*- Which of the following **sportsmen** have you heard of?*

Sportsman	Heard of him? (Y or N)	Aware of Country of origin? (Y or N)
Samuel Eto'o		
Jacques Kallis		
Josiah Thugwane		
Sachin Tendulkar		
Frankie Fredericks		

Bennie McCarthy		
Jonah Lomu		
Wilson Kipketer		
Roland Schoeman		
Ernie Els		
Ronaldinho		
Greg Norman		
Breyton Paulse		
Quinton Fortune		

*- Which of the following **authors** have you heard of?*

| Author	Heard of him? (Y or N)	Aware of Country of origin? (Y or N)
Salman Rushdie		
Wilbur Smith		
Arundhati Roy		
JM Coetzee		
Chinua Achebe		
Zakes Mda		
V.S Naipaul		
Ben Okri		
Alan Paton		
Athol Fugard		

*- Which of the following **personalities/celebrities** have you heard of?*

Personality/Celebrity	Heard of him/her? (Y or N)	Aware of Country of origin? (Y or N)
Aishwarya Rai		
Chris Barnard		
Heath Ledger		
Charlize Theron		
Mark Shuttleworth		
Stelios Hadjiannou		
Desmond Tutu		
Giselle Bundchen		
Nelson Mandela		
Wangaari Maathai		
Jacob Zuma		
Mahatma Ghandi		

*- Which of the following **bands or musicians** have you heard of?*

Band or Musician	Heard of him/her? (Y or N)	Aware of Country of origin? (Y or N)
Ismael Lo		
Ladysmith Black Mambazo		
Youssa N'Dour		
Ali Farke Toure		
Hugh Masekela		
Mango Groove		
Cesaria Evora		
Abdullah Ibrahim (Dollar Brand),		

Lucky Dube		
Buena Vista Social Club		
Miriam Makeba		
Freshly Ground		
Toumani Diabate		
Ravi Shankar		
Brenda Fassie		
Rui Veloso		
Nick Cave		
Vusi Mahlasela		
The Datsuns		
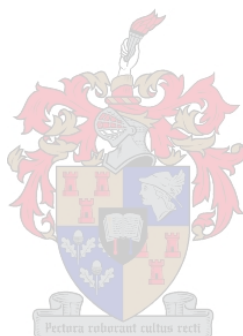
Appendix 1.3: Countries and values chart

(1) Efficiency (2) Laziness (3) Energy (4) Wealth (5) Strength (6) Weakness

(7) Cleanliness (8) Filth (9) Democracy (10) Diplomacy (11) Poverty

(12) Opportunity (13) Growth (14) Crime (15) Safety (16) Tradition

(17) Modernity (18) Tolerance (19) Autocracy (20) Racism (21) Excitement

(22) Creativity (23) Diversity (24) Renewal (25) Possibility (26) Harmony

Country	Adjectives
Zimbabwe	
New Zealand	
South Africa	
Canada	
India	

Appendix 1.4: Trust in South African products

Product/Service	Trust to come from SA? (Y or N)	Reason? (If applicable)
Cars		
Gold jewellery		
Fruit and vegetables		
Clothing and textiles		
Computer software		
Wine		
Hardware equipment		
Cut diamonds		
Banking and insurance services		
Technological equipment (TVs, VCRs, DVD Players etc)		